The Impact of the explicit Teaching of Lexical and Grammatical Collocations on EFL Students’ Writing Production
The Case of Second Year LMD Students at the English Department of L’arbi Ben M’hidi University

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Languages Science and Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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Dedication

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

I would like to thank my precious and beloved parents Lamri Baya & Sahbi Belkasem, my sister Afaf & my brother Aymen for their love, never-ending support and encouragement.
This modest work is gladly dedicated to:

My beloved mother Fatima who gave me the drive and the discipline to tackle any task with enthusiasm and determination and the one who taught me patience and honesty.

To my dear brothers Toufik, Walid, and Khaled whose advice and support guided me all the way to success.

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the effect of teaching collocations on improving the writing production of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. Data for this study were collected from forty second year English LMD students at L’arbi Ben Mhidi University. In this study, it is hypothesized that the explicit teaching of lexical and grammatical collocations would improve students’ writing production. In order to test this hypothesis, twenty participants were assigned to the control group while the other twenty made the experimental group. A writing task was administered as a pretest to examine the learners’ writing production and to measure their collocational knowledge through their writing. The results of the pretest of both groups showed a low performance in writing production including a limited knowledge of collocations. Afterwards, an explicit instruction of collocations was carried out with the experimental group class as an attempt to increase the students’ collocational knowledge for the purpose of improving their writing production. After the treatment, a posttest was conducted with both the experimental and control groups. The results of the paired sample t test showed that the group who received explicit collocation task-based instruction outperformed the control group in the posttest, the experimental group’s scores of writing were remarkably higher than the control group’s scores. This implies that the explicit teaching of collocations helped the students to use collocations more accurately and naturally in their writings. Therefore, the final results of the experiment proved the effectiveness of collocation teaching in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing classrooms.

**Key words:** Grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, writing production, English as a Foreign Language (EFL).
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

C.R: Consciousness-Raising Approach

ELT: English Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LL: Language Learning

LMD: Licence Master Doctorat

MC: Multiple Choice

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching

VS: Versus
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Introduction

Learning a second language is a complex process that is based mainly on learning the four skills. Writing in particular is often judged to be the most difficult skill to be mastered by most learners, in this regard, Nunan (1999) claimed that producing a coherent, fluent and extended piece of writing is a very challenging task to do in Language Learning (LL). This task is majorly difficult for the Second Language (L2) learners rather than First Language (L1) learners because writing does not rely only on acquiring specific writing strategies to measure how a well-structured piece of writing has been constructed, but also it requires a considerable amount of vocabulary stock that should be involved in any learner’s repertoire to be able to use the language productively. Indeed, many research studies (Thornbury, 2002 & Read, 2004) were conducted on vocabulary teaching, but most of these studies gave importance to the study of isolated words to the full neglect of lexical chunks, in particular collocations which are considered as a subcategory of formulaic language. Apparently, the notion of collocation has been a common concern discussed among linguists, lexicographers and language pedagogists as it helps to facilitate language development not only for communicating orally, but also for mastering the writing skill.

Though the importance of collocation acquisition/learning in achieving fluency in language production is recognized by many, few attempts have been made to integrate the teaching of collocations in the English learning curriculum at the department of English of Larbi Ben Mhidi University (Benayad, 2017 & Hmaizia, 2017). Up to the present time, the ultimate focus in vocabulary teaching is given to morphology and lexical semantics paying no attention to word use which refers to the proper formulation of grammatical, lexical and stylistic combination of words in the linguistic context. Furthermore, there are no rules to be
followed by English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to collocate words since the choice of associated words is based on linguistic conventions; which are fixed forms of expression in every language that are stored in the native speakers’ mental lexicon as whole chunks of language forms and not as single words. So, whenever learners want to speak or write they recall these ready chunks instead of searching to find which word goes with which. Under these circumstances, EFL learners seem to consistently produce deviant word combinations not knowing which words co-occur together, even though they are fully aware of the individual words, yet they still struggle to express ideas simply and precisely. Unlike native speakers, EFL learners tend to focus on learning and building a large vocabulary, so it becomes challenging for them to establish a strong association between pairs of words forming collocations, leading them to generate a combination of isolated words based on their creative mechanism rather than store, retrieve and produce ready-made collocations. Therefore, their language production in general and writing in specific would be full of mis-collocations; that would result in unnatural writing.

Henceforth, collocations need to be deliberately incorporated into teaching materials because they may improve writing production of EFL learners. Therefore, teaching and raising awareness of the former contributes to efficient production of the latter. Furthermore, being aware of these lexical chunks and being exposed to them in context instead of rote memorization would help learners not just to acquire new words in their isolated form, but also their associated network with other words, as it would facilitate the writing task by providing learners with a helpful device in writing which contributes to more accurate, coherent and fluent language production.
1. Aims of the Study

The aims of the present study are:

1. Investigating the impact of the explicit teaching of collocations on writing production of second year English LMD students.
2. Examining the level of writing production of second year English LMD students.

2. Research Questions

The present study is undertaken to fulfill the above stated aims; therefore, the following questions need to be answered:

1. What is the level of writing production of second year English LMD students?
2. To what extent does explicit collocation instruction result in the development of the writing production of second year English LMD students?

3. Research Assumption and Hypothesis

It is assumed that second year English LMD students have a low level in writing because of their lack of exposure to reading.

In the light of the above questions and assumption, it is hypothesized that

- If second year EFL learners were explicitly taught collocations, their writing performance would improve.

4. Methodology

The present study aims at exploring the impact of the explicit teaching of collocations on EFL learners writing production. Thus, to meet the study’ aims and to answer the research questions, data is gathered using a quasi-experimental study. Two classes of second year
English LMD students majoring in English are selected randomly; an experimental group who received the treatment based on collocation instruction and a control group who received no collocation instruction. The two groups were pretested through essay writing prior to the treatment to assess their writing skill. Both groups post tested and the findings of the two tests analyzed using a t test to see which group performed better.

5. Structure of the Study

The present study includes two chapters; a theoretical and a practical one. The theoretical part is divided into two sections; the first section introduces the notion of collocation by offering definitions, classifications and an overview of the importance of teaching/learning collocations. The second section addresses the definition of writing, approaches to teaching writing and cover common writing problems. The practical part describes the procedure of the experiment, the pre and post-tests, data analysis and the interpretation of the findings followed by a general conclusion and some pedagogical implications.
Chapter One

Section One: The Notion of Collocation in EFL Classrooms

Introduction

Language production has been the central issue among many researchers interested in the field of language acquisition. Indeed, it has been recognized that language production, whether in its spoken, or written form does not rely on piecing individual bricks together, however, it is formed by the accumulation of ready-made units and formulaic sequences. Among these ready-made chunks there is a type of multiword units named as “collocations”. In this chapter, an attempt is made to clarify this notion by exploring its different definitions which are given by certain approaches including the phraseological, structural, semantic and lexical approach. Then, there were an indication to the very significance of collocation, as an effective element that facilitates and improves the process of language output. Besides, there were a mentioning of the possible difficulties for teaching and learning collocations. As there were an emphasis on the need of obtaining both active/productive and receptive/passive collocational knowledge in developing collocational competence. At last and not least, there were an exploration of the types and the classifications of collocations with a precise assertion on the lexical and the grammatical type. Finally, the chapter were ended up with presenting some valuable approaches for the teaching of collocations.

1.1 Definition of Collocation

The notion of Collocation has been traced back to the 1930s, it has been defined as “succession of two or more words that must be learnt as an integral whole and not pieced
together from its component parts” (Palmer, 1933) in other words, collocation used as an umbrella term which refers to all comings together of words. Yet, Palmer’s approach to collocations does not determine what kind of selection is needed between words to identify them as collocations. Subsequently, the phraseological trend has been recognized by Russian phraseologists who brought an analytical framework of categories and considered collocation as a type of word combination with degree of fixedness. Mainly this trend is concentrated on classifying criteria of collocations which is effective for collocation studies in SLA (Second Language Acquisition). Back to the 1960s, many studies (e.g., McIntosh, 1961; Halliday, 1966; Sinclair, 1966; Mitchell, 1971 & Greenbaum, 1970) have been conducted in the attempt of investigating and describing collocations on the basis of three main approaches, namely: semantic, lexical and structural approaches.

1.2 Approaches to Define Collocation

1.2.1 The Notion of Collocation in the Phraseological Approach

Phraseology is a trend that refers to “the study of the structure, meaning and use of word combinations” (Cowie, 1994, p. 3168), based on the premises of phraseology, collocation is defined as concept which characterized by three main criteria: The ‘semantic transparency’; which means that the meaning of collocation is transparent and easy to be derived like in the example: *commit a crime*. The ‘specialized sense’ of one element; a criterion that requires one of the collocations’ element to carry a specialized meaning which can be figurative like (*adopt in adopt a policy*), technical like (*obtain in obtain a warrant*) or delexical like (*make in make a decision*). Finally, the ‘commutability criterion’, which is very vague and difficult to be recognized, it views collocation restricted in commutability of its elements and none of its element is substitutable, for instance, ‘shoulders and shrug’ are restricted to a number of co-
occurring words and cannot be substituted. The following definitions of collocation are the most prominent definitions in the phraseology approach:

1. In terms of semantic transparency and commutability, collocation is defined as a type of word combination consisting two or more words, unidiomatic in meaning, following certain structural patterns, restricted in commutability not only by semantics, but also by usage, belonging to the sphere of collocations (Aisenstadt, 1981, p. 54).

   Based on the words of Aisenstadt (1981), the term collocation gains a special definition to be distinguished from the other types of word combinations, in which the collocations are often restricted in commutability which means that the constituents of a given collocation, for instance, have the ability to collocate with some words rather than others, called as “restricted collocations”, they are mainly used in one of their regular and non-idiomatic meanings, for example, the adjectives _loud_ and _quiet_, one can say _loud noise_, but saying _quiet noise_ is not acceptable.

2. In terms of commutability, Van Roey (1990) defined collocation as the linguistic phenomenon in which a given vocabulary item prefers the company of another item rather than its synonyms because of the constraints which are not at the level of syntax/conceptual meaning but on that of usage” (p. 46), this definition is quiet similar to what has been claimed by Aisenstadt (1981), it can be explained by the example _fast food_ as a collocation, in which the word “fast” has an equivalent synonym which is “quick”, however, the word _fast_ cannot be substituted by the word _quick_, otherwise these two combined words ‘_quick food_’ are not a collocation since it seems odd for the English speakers.
3. Regarding the specialized sense of one element, collocation is defined as a combination of one element used in its literal meaning with another one used in a specialized sense which can be figurative, delexical, technical (Howarth, 1996).

The following examples will illustrate the meaning of the definition given by Howarth (1996): (1) adopt a policy, ‘adopt’ here is verb which is used in its literal meaning while ‘policy’ is a word which is used in its figurative meaning, (2) make a decision, the verb ‘make’ is used in its literal meaning while ‘decision’ is used in its delexical meaning and (3) obtain a warrant, ‘obtain’ is a verb used in its literal meaning and ‘warrant’ is a word which is used in its technical meaning. Thus, following Howarth’s definition means that whenever two combined words, one of them is used in its literal meaning and the other one is used in its specialized meaning, whether it is “figurative, delexical, or technical” they are considered as collocations.

Among the above mentioned definitions of the term “collocation”, it is clear that this term is not easy to be defined, hence, the phraseological approach tried to indicate certain criteria like the transparency, specialized sense of one element and finally the commutability criterion on the purpose of making the concept of collocation differs from the other word combinations.

1.2.2 The Notion of Collocation in the Lexical Approach

This approach was first emerged by the scholar Firth (1957) who is well known by his precept: “you shall know a word by the company it keeps”, it means that the words obtain their meanings from the words with which they co-occur. This precept was the basic notion on the lexical approach. Aside from the view of Firth on collocations, which are demonstrated as “sequences of co-occurring words, varied in length of sequence from two to fifteen words”, 
Firth’s successors, noticeably Sinclair (1996) and Halliday (1966) developed the notion of meaning of Firth and emphasized the importance of lexical collocations (e.g., adjective-noun collocation and verb-noun collocation). Moreover, collocations “have been considered as examples of word combinations” which have crucial role in the study of lexis as they cut across the grammatical boundaries (Halliday, 1966, p. 150-151). For instance, he argued strongly / the strength of his argument, in this regard, the collocation between “strong” and “argument” keeps and survives the grammatical changes within the sentence. According to Halliday, collocational relations intersect with the structural level while the grammar does not explain the relation between a set of items, for example, the word “strong and powerful” can collocate with “argument’. However, it is grammatically rejected if “strong” collocates with “car” and “powerful” collocates with “tea” while saying “strong tea” and “powerful car” is acceptable, this means that strong and powerful depend on the grammatical structure (syntagmatic relation) unlike the collocational patterning, also it can be interpreted by the notion that the grammar and the collocation are two different facets. In terms of lexical set, collocation is defined as “a linear co-occurrence relationship between lexical items which co-occur together”, it explains that bright, light, shine belong to the same lexical set since they collocate with “sun”. While in terms of cohesiveness, collocation is a cover term for the kind of cohesion that results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way associated with one another because they tend to occur in similar environment (Halliday & Hassan, 1976, p. 287).

According to Sinclair (1991), collocations are defined as the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text’ (p. 170), for instance, analyzing the word “house” in a piece of text ‘He went back to the house, when he opened the door, the dog barked’. All of ‘went, back, to, the, when, he, opened, the’ form collocation with the node
“house” and they are called collocates or the span. In fact, this definition considers as a textual definition since there is no consideration of the syntactic link between the words (Partington, 1998).

Due to the prominent researchers and linguists of the lexical approach, collocation is defined as a type of word combinations, each constituent of these combinations can take its meanings from the words with which they co-occur, as they can collocate with other words which stand near to each other. However, the lexical approach is based exclusively on the syntagmatic relations between words, i.e., relations between linear co-occurring words, separate from their essential syntactic and semantic features (Martynska, 2004, p. 5). Hence, collocations can be recognized as separated and independent entities from grammar because sometimes some combined words can take the form of collocation. However, they can be grammatically rejected and this can be recognized by the native speakers as odd expressions.

1.2.3 The Notion of Collocation in the Semantic Approach

This approach aims to investigate the concept of collocation from semantic standpoint without including the aspect of grammar (Gitsaki, 1999), it also opts for finding the reasons that make one word collocates with a specific word and not with others. As for instance, the expression a “blond hair” is namely a collocation while saying a “blond book” is not acceptable as a collocation. In this regard, DeCarrico (2001) has clarified that some words can be collocated with specific words and not with others, and this can only refer to the semantic properties of these items which they can decide about which words to co-occur with. For example, ‘rancid’ collocates with ‘butter’, ‘oil’ and ‘lard’ since they all share a common semantic feature which is ‘oily’.
Again, in this approach collocation has been viewed from a different semantic framework recognized as the semantic prosody (Sinclair, 1991), in the sense that words combine with chosen other words, but also combine with chosen meaning, it means that there are words that show a tendency to occur in a certain semantic environment, e.g., the word ‘happen’ is mainly associated with unpleasant things as accidents.

According to the widely held views under this approach, collocations are considered as combined words which are collocated semantically, in which the constituents of these collocations are the responsible elements which decide about which words to co-occur with.

1.2.4 The Notion of Collocation in the Structural Approach

Unlike the semantic and the lexical trends, the structural approach stresses the prominence of integrating grammar while dealing with collocations which are words regularly combine with certain other words or grammatical constructions (The BBI Combinatory Dictionary). Thus, grammar and lexis viewed as two aspects that go hand in hand (Mitchell, 1971). In this regard, collocation is considered as a lexico-grammatical unit which brought morphology and syntax back into the center of lexical matters, i.e., there is a necessity for the presence of both grammar and lexis consideration while tackling the lexical aspect of a language. Furthermore, Mitchell (1971) brought a new consideration for the term collocations, in which they are taken as roots rather than words and they are to be studied within grammatical matrices. For example, drink as the root of the word drinker and the conjunction of the roots heavy and drink in the example heavy drinker or drink heavily they are to be considered as collocations (p. 65).

Like Mitchell, Greenbaum (1970) has focused on the syntactic relation of collocations and he stated that without tying collocation to syntax any two lexical items can collocate at a
certain arbitrary distance. For instance, one can say, “his sincerity frightens”, but it is not acceptable to say, “We frighten his sincerity” because “sincerity and frighten” can be determined only by syntax. In a grammatical framework, Kjellmer (1984) has defined collocation as "lexically determined and grammatically restricted sequences of words" (p. 163). Lexically determined means that in order to be considered as a collocation, a word sequence should recur a certain number of times in the corpus. Grammatically restricted means that the sequence should also be grammatically well formed. An example of that could be the sequences found in Brown’s Corpus (Kjellmer, 1984), like: green ideas, try to, hall to. From these strings, only “hall to” and “try to” that recur, and from these two, only “try to” that is grammatically well-formed. Therefore, only “try to” is a collocation. According to Benson and Ilson (1986), collocations are considered as words which regularly combine with certain other words or grammatical constructions; thus, collocations have been divided into grammatical and lexical collocations. Similarly, Haussmann (1989) has stated that “We shall call collocation a characteristic combination of two words in a structure like the following: (a) Noun+ Adjective; (b) Noun+ Verb; (c) Verb+ Noun; (d) Verb+ Adverb; (e) Adjective + Adverb; (f) Noun+ (Prep)+Noun ( p. 1010).

Generally, the structural approach has stressed the prominence of the grammatical aspect while dealing with collocations, in that respect it is understood that grammar and lexis are two intertwined aspects which go hand in hand, and that the collocations have to be lexically determined (i.e., the number of frequency of this items within a corpus) as well as grammatically well structured, also the notion of collocation under this approach has gained the characteristic of syntactic relation which necessitates the tying of collocation with syntax. In this respect, Bartsch (2004) has defined collocations as “Lexically and/or pragmatically constrained recurrent co-occurrences of at least two lexical items which are in a direct
syntactic relation with each other (p. 76). Besides, collocations are viewed as combined words which can be collocated with grammatical constructions, like for instance, (prepositions, articles…) not only with content words like (verb, noun, adjective…).

From the above definitions given under each approach, it is obvious that there is significant disagreement and a lack of clarity in the definition of collocation. However, some of the prominent linguists like, Howarth (1996), Benson (1990), Church and Hanks (1990), Cowie (1978), Halliday (1966) and Bartsch (2004) have come to the agreement that the co-occurrence of words introduces the core concept of collocation. In other words, collocation is defined as the words which are statistically much more likely to appear together. For instance, “commit a crime” is an expression which considers as a collocation because the verb “commit” co-occurs frequently with the noun “crime”. Similarly with the expression “fast food”, the word “fast” recurrently co-occurs with the word “food”, so whenever the attention is directed to the word “fast” we automatically expect the presence of the word “food”, and whenever the verb commit is present, the word crime is expected to be present as well. However, the word “fast” cannot be substituted by any of its synonyms as “quick”, this can refer to the nature of collocation as having an idiosyncratic restriction which is an indicator of the fact that restriction is beyond the scope of semantic and syntactic regularities. Moreover, this notion has been explained by Van Roey (1995), in terms of commutability that the collocation is restricted in commutability and its elements are irreplaceable (p. 46). Nonetheless, the typical definition that has given to collocation as the “co-occurrence of words” is very overall since it can include even other word combinations which are not necessary known as collocations because collocation is only a type that is put into a large list of that word combinations. In other words, collocation is only a subset of formulaic sequences. Thus, in order to distinguish between the term collocation and the other formulaic sequences,
some researchers as Nattinger and DeCarrico (2001) and Howarth (1996) emphasized on a given criteria as transparency, and restricted co-occurrence.

Depending on the definition given to the term collocation as words which regularly combine with certain other words or grammatical constructions (Benson & Ilson, 1986), it should be mentioned that the type of collocation used in the present study would refer to both grammatical and lexical collocations.

1.3 **Collocational Competence**

Collocational competence was first coined by Lewis (2000), as he stated, “we are familiar with the concept of communicative competence, but we need to add the concept of collocational competence to our thinking” (p. 49). Partington (1998) added that the collocational competence refers to “the knowledge of what is normal collocation in a particular environment” (p. 18). That is to say, ‘Toxic snake’ is an example of collocation, but it is considered as a production error, partially in ‘word choice’. Although the intended meaning is obviously communicated, yet there is a failure in achieving the accuracy of production in this case. However, ‘poisonous snake’ is regarded as a more accurate and authentic collocation instead, even though ‘toxic’ and ‘poisonous’ are synonyms, and in this regard, it is a successful language production. This is an indication to collocational competence (Conzett, 2000, p. 73). Heikkila (2005) defined the collocational competence as “the ability to accurately combine chunks of language thus enabling production of fluent, accurate and stylistically appropriate speech” (p. 1). Expressions like ‘compelling argument’, ‘sincere condolence’, ‘deliberately attempt’, ‘access to’ ‘aim at’ are examples of accurate collocations.
1.3.1 Receptive and Productive Knowledge

In vocabulary learning, some educational institutions and material designers have agreed on a common principle of classifying the aspect of word knowledge into receptive (passive) and productive (active) knowledge. The first of which can be learnt passively through listening and reading which is regarded as receptive or passive knowledge, whereas the productive or active knowledge is the outcome of using the words properly in spoken and written language and can be learnt actively (Mokhtar et al., 2010). Nonetheless, some argue that reading and listening do not completely give the impression of being passive. Nation (2013) described receptive vocabulary use as encountering the form of a word while listening or reading and trying to determine its meaning, whereas productive vocabulary use as trying to express a meaning using the correct form while speaking or writing. In general, it seems that receptive learning and use is easier than productive learning and use, yet there is no clarification of the reason behind this facet. Nation (2013) put across several possible explanations.

Amount of knowledge

The first explanation given is related to the amount of knowledge required for productive versus receptive use. The productive learning of languages that have different writing and sound systems than those used in the learner’s first language requires extra learning of those output patterns, while receptive learning requires only the knowledge of a few features of the form of a word which needs to be precise for productive use. On top of that, Knowledge of the word form is more likely to affect difficulty than the knowledge of word meaning because there is much more not precisely, but nearly same shared knowledge of meaning between two distinct languages than there is shared form, thus making productive learning more difficult than receptive learning. This amount of knowledge explanation also relates to contextual
knowledge like collocation. Such knowledge requires a fair amount of exposure to the language, since it is more essential for productive use (p. 51).

**Practice**

A second explanation is the ‘practice’ explanation. Generally, learners tend to practice receptive use than they do with productive use. This may be one of the reasons why a learner’s total vocabulary size is much more receptive in nature than it is productive in nature (Nation, 2013, p. 51).

**Access**

The ‘access’ explanation is a third rationale proffered to indicate why receptive learning and use is easier than productive learning and use. In the receptive direction, when a learner encounters a new foreign-language word, he initially connects this word to only one equivalent in his first language. Whereas, in the case of productive direction, this equivalent may have many competing associations which makes it much more difficult to find the exact equivalent in the foreign language, thus making productive recall more difficult than receptive because there are many competing paths to choose from (Nation, 2013, p. 51).

**Motivation**

Nation’s last explanation relates to the learners’ motivation. A learner may be more motivated to learn certain words for receptive purposes than for productive purposes. A learner learning weather-related vocabulary, for example, may do so because his purpose is to understand the weather forecast and not to produce what is being forecasted (Nation, 2013, p. 52).
Consequently, to overcome the problem of word associations, learner’s collocational competence needs to be developed and improved in order to achieve accuracy, fluency and proficiency in EFL writing.

1.4 The Typologies of Collocations

Collocations have been categorized into various groups since there are nine parts of speech: noun, adjective, adverb, verb, determiners, articles, conjunctions, pronouns and prepositions. A word can belong to two classes, as Thornbury (2002) claimed that ‘word classes are divided into grammatical/function words and content words’ (p. 4) and which also can be combined to compose collocations that effectively function as a single unit. Collocations could be classified into ‘grammatical and lexical collocations’, as Henriksen (2013) stated that “collocations are frequently recurring two-to-three syntagmatic units which can include both lexical and grammatical words” (p. 30). Collocations could also be categorized based on ‘collocational strength’, given that collocations are “co-occurrence of words within a given span demonstrating a statistical strength of co-occurrence” (Webb, Newton & Chan, 2013, p. 92). According to Laufer and Waldman (2011), collocations are “habitually occurring lexical combinations that are categorized by restricted co-occurrence of elements and relative transparency of meaning” (p. 648). That is to say, the classification of word combination could depend on the fixedness and the literalness of its meaning.

1.4.1 Grammatical vs Lexical Collocations

Collocation is often divided into two major categories, i.e., lexical and grammatical collocations. In this terminology, lexical collocations combine two equal lexical components (open class words) which are content words, typically a noun, verb, adverb or adjective such as ‘intensive reading’, ‘vaguely remember’ (see table 1), while grammatical collocations combine a lexical word with a grammatical word (closed class words) which are basically
function words including; pronouns, determiners, articles, conjunctions and prepositions such as ‘aware of’, ‘step into’ (Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 134) (see table 2).

**Grammatical Collocations**

Benson (1986) defined grammatical collocations as “a dominant word (verb, noun, adjective) followed by a grammatical word, typically a preposition” (p. 9). For instance, *decide on, account for, accuse (somebody) of, adapt to, organize over*, etc.

Table 1:

*Classifications and examples of grammatical collocations (adopted from oxford collocations dictionary for students of English, 2002, p. 9)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical Collocations</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preposition+noun</td>
<td>By accident, in advance, at night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb+preposition</td>
<td>Drop out, bring up, give away, look into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective+preposition</td>
<td>Angry at, fond of, hungry for, interested in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun+preposition</td>
<td>The light from, respect for, obsession with</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lexical Collocations**

In contrast to grammatical collocations, Lexical collocations are “normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. Typical lexical collocations consist of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs” (Benson, 1986, p. 24). An example of an adjective-noun collocation is ‘warmest regards’, as ‘I send warmest regards’.
Table 2:

*Classifications and examples of lexical collocations (adopted from oxford collocations dictionary for students of English, 2002, p. 9)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Collocations</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb+noun</td>
<td>Shake hands, pay attention, compose music</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun+noun</td>
<td>Nerve cell, water tank, dining table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective+noun</td>
<td>Brief chat, major problem, key issue, bright color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun+verb</td>
<td>Do the dishes, blood circulates, alarms go off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb+adverb</td>
<td>Climb steadily, serve faithfully, summarize briefly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb+adjective</td>
<td>Greatly encouraged, wonderfully expressive, deeply ashamed, highly recommended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb+verb</td>
<td>Seriously advise, broadly confirm, successfully substitute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb+verb</td>
<td>Look forward to hear, be free to choose, decide to buy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4.2 Strong vs Weak Collocations

Hill Jimmie (as cited in Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 63) classified collocations based on ‘collocational strength’ into four categories: unique, strong, medium-strength and weak collocations.

i. **Unique collocations:** As an example, Hill gives the collocation ‘*shrug your shoulder*’, such collocation is rarely used. It is described as ‘unique’ because the verb ‘shrug’ cannot be used with any other words.

ii. **Strong collocations:** Strong collocations are described as strong in terms of ‘predictability’. As an example; ‘*Rancid butter* ‘*trenchant criticism*’, such strong collocations are not unique because knowledge of one part such as the word ‘*rancid*’
wouldn’t be complete without knowledge of the other part ‘butter’. Besides, the fact that ‘trenchant’ and ‘rancid’ collocates with a very limited number of words.

iii. **Weak collocations:** These combinations are “more predictable” and can be used in an unlimited number of phrases. It also carries the literal meaning of its words. For instance, ‘expensive car’ ‘white wine’.

iv. **Medium-strength collocations:** They are words which collocate with each other with a greater ‘frequency’ than with other words, e.g., ‘hold a meeting’. ‘He’s recovering from a major operation’ is another complex medium-strength collocation where students are aware of each individual word, yet they may not know the whole collocation. It is expected from them to communicate meaning through building the idea phrase by phrase: My father he’s getting better he had a big operation. In which it requires more of an effort for both speaker and listener. According to Jimmie Hill, exposure to this type of collocations which is neither strong nor weak, would be very essential for learners to expand their lexicons and to communicate fluently and accurately (Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 64).

Jane Conzett (as cited in Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 74) stated that “collocations maybe strong_the presence of one word means you strongly expect the other word to be there too_or weak when the collocates can vary a great deal”. She provided a continuum like the one below to conceptualize collocations (see figure 1). According to Conzett, unites that are made of freely combining words like ‘friendly dog’ or ‘old car’ would not be treated as collocations, nor fixed expressions and idioms like ‘throw in the towel’. What is considered as collocations are those items that appear in the middle of this continuum based on a pedagogical decision rather than a theoretical one, with stronger collocations to the right, and weaker collocations to the left.
1.4.3 Open vs Restricted Collocations

Cowie and Howarth (1998) set in order collocations from free combinations to pure idioms through restricted collocations and figurative idioms. In this regard, Howarth (1998) defined the aforementioned terms as follow: ‘Free combinations’ consist of elements used in their literal senses and which are freely substitutable. ‘Restricted collocations’ have one component that is used in a specialized, often figurative sense only found in the context of a limited number of collocates. While ‘figurative idioms’ have metaphorical meanings in terms of the whole and have a current literal interpretation, ‘pure idioms’ have a unitary meaning that cannot be derived from the meanings of the components and are the most opaque and fixed category (p. 28).
Following the same categorization, the Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English classified collocations based on ‘idiomaticity’, depending on a certain degree of fixedness and a certain degree of literalness, leading to more or less difficulty in understanding the meaning of the whole expression from an understanding of its component words.

i. **Pure Idioms**: are the most fixed, invariant collocations, they lack literal interpretation and semantic transparency of their meaning which means it would be hard to guess the meaning that the whole expression trying to convey from a knowledge of the meanings of the individual words, such as ‘blow the gaff’.

ii. **Figurative Idioms**: are fairly fixed but not unique, they are also non-literal but still used in their literal sense, such as ‘catch fire’, ‘a close shave’.

iii. **Restricted Collocation**: Cowie and Howarth (1996) describe ‘restricted collocations’ as a category that consists of word-combinations in which one element has a specialized meaning determined by the other element (p. 81). That is to say, one element used in a non-literal sense and the other used in its literal meaning, like in these examples ‘gain access’, ‘concede defeat’, ‘adopt a policy’.

iv. **Open collocations**: are collocations that involve elements which are both used in their literal meaning; besides they are predictable and freely combinable with each element having its literal sense (e.g., *big flat*).

### 1.5 The Importance of Collocational Knowledge

Formulaic sequences are one of the main important lexical elements in language, in which probably 70% of everything we say, hear or write is to be found in forms of these fixed expressions (Lewis, 2000, p. 53).
Word combinations in general and collocations in specific are seen as subset of these formulaic sequences. From this standpoint, researchers in the field of second language acquisition and Foreign Languages (FL) have shifted their attention to the study of word combinations in general and collocations in specific. Therefore, the significance of collocational knowledge for L2 learners has been recognized by many scholars (Pawley & Syder, 1983; Dechert, 1983; Skehan, 1998; Bahns, 1993; Hunston & Francis, 2000; Fox, 2003; Boers et al., 2006; Dai & Ding, 2010; Yazdandoost, Amalsaleh & Kafipour, 2014). This significance can be arranged in terms of developing native-like fluency, achieving native-like production, and having efficient comprehension of L2.

Collocations are considered as an important key to develop fluency because they give the speaker the privilege to process and produce the language at a much faster rate (Lewis, 2000). In other words, having ready-made chunks as individual whole units in the mental lexicon can be easily recalled while communicating or drawing ideas. Consequently, the language decoding pressure will be decreased. In other words, collocational knowledge increases the automaticity of speech and consequently helps the speaker to speak faster and understand others with less difficulty as Skehan (1998) has stated:

We rely on such chunks to ease processing problems, using them to buy processing time while other computation proceeds, enable us to plan ahead for the content of what we are going to say, as well as the linguistic form. (p. 40)

In support to what has been declared by Skehan (1998), Pawley and Syder (1983) added that the adult native speakers have hundreds of thousands of lexicalized sentence stems at their disposal. Thus, L2 learners might have similar number of these chunked expressions to have native-like fluency. Along with fluency, collocations are seen as an important indicators of
native-like production since they provide the learners with the most natural ways to say or to write something as they help them to save efforts in word reconstructions and selection and gain more time for content organization (Girard Sionis, 2004) which guarantees fluency and consistency of the meaning in writing. In this regard, Fox (2003) has claimed:

When even very good learners of the language speak or write English, the effect is slightly odd. There is nothing that is obviously wrong, but somehow native speakers know that they would not express themselves in quite that way….the problem is often of the collocation (p. 26).

This means that in order to perform at a native-like level, the knowledge of an appropriate range of multiword units is required. Like Fox (2003), Bahns (1993) and Pawley and Syder (1983) indicated that there is more than one possible way of saying something, but only one or two of these ways sound natural to native speaker even though the speech or the piece of writing are grammatically correct, they may not sound native-like. For example, saying “thick tea” instead of “strong tea” or “artificial teeth” instead of “false teeth”.

Another importance of collocational knowledge is that it is beneficial for efficient comprehension. This is explained by Hunston and Francis (2000) that the appropriate knowledge of collocations contributes to an efficient comprehension on the part of the L2 learners because having a large number of collocations in the learner mental lexicon can help her/him to understand the meaning of the text while reading without paying attention to every single word. While in speech, collocational knowledge is pointed out to be helpful for the L2 learner to grasp the meanings even if some words are misheard (p. 270-271).

In addition to the role of collocation in facilitating comprehension, it has been also stated by Widdowson (1989) and Hymes (1972) that collocation has a crucial role in communicative
competence which comprises three distinct knowledge components: what is formally possible, what is appropriate and what is actually performed in the language system, and that the collocational knowledge generally lies at the level of performance. Moreover, the communicative competence is not about knowing grammatical rules to produce grammatically acceptable sentences, but it is mostly about knowing a stock of collocations and formulaic sequences, in addition to a set of rules which have to be applied to make necessary arrangements in accordance with a given context.

In accordance with the widely held views of the above-mentioned researchers about the importance of collocations, another eminent researcher, Lewis (2000); shed light on the significance of collocations which can be possibly summarized as the follows:

Firstly, the lexicon is not arbitrary that the vocabulary choice is predictable and limited to small number of patterns, e.g., when a speaker thinks about something to drink, the hearer would have a number of predictable possibilities as: water, juice, milk, coffee. However, expecting other options as engine oil or shampoo is not probable as the former ones. This is evident in that collocation is about the way words combine. Secondly, collocations are organized and patterned thus they can be easily predicted. Thirdly, collocations cover a considerable size in the mental lexicon. Fourthly, collocation can be retrieved easily if there is a good exposure to these items since the good quality input leads to a good quality retrieval. Fifthly, collocations can promote fluency while speaking, reading and writing. Sixthly, the extensive knowledge of collocations contributes in producing simple and precise chunks that help to express complex ideas. Seventhly, collocations can help in naming complex ideas quickly since they do not depend on using the whole brain space to look for ideas. Eighthly, collocations can indicate a good pronunciation because they are learned with their stress
patterns as a whole. Finally, recognizing collocations can be enormously helpful for acquisition because if the words are wrongly identified, they will be wrongly stored.

In short, collocations represent the building blocks of the spoken and the written discourse, they are outstanding features that make the language sound more specific and correct. Indeed, collections are of much higher importance since they consider as an important key to develop fluency, achieve native-like production and facilitate comprehension.

1.6 Criteria of Collocations

Collocation is characterized by three main criteria: non-compositionality, non-substantiality and non-modifiability. First, ‘non-compositional nature’ means that collocations are phrases that have their idiomatic or fused meaning that cannot be predicted from its components, e.g., “hot dog” cannot be interpreted to the individual words of “hot” and “dog”. Fixed expressions and idioms are the most common examples that have non-compositional nature. In addition to non-compositional nature, collocations have also ‘non-substantiality nature’ which means trying to associate words with the use of synonyms cannot achieve the intended and the equal meaning from the viewpoint of a native speaker of English. To point out, “He has a black mood” can hardly be substituted with “He has a dark mood” though “black” and “dark” give the same connotation. Collocation has also a ‘non-modifiability nature’, simply put, any part of the fixed expression cannot be changed from positive to comparative or superlative degree. For instance, “White wine” cannot be modified to “whiter or whitest wine”. “Mother-in-law”, “kick the bucket”, and “a piece of cake” cannot be modified to “mother-in-laws”, “kick the buckets”, and “pieces of cake”. (Bowles Hugo, 2007, p. 7-9).
1.7 Difficulties of Teaching/Learning Collocations

Based on a tacit premise, producing and using collocations appropriately in a given context is a notoriously challenging task for learners who are in the process of learning a second/foreign language (Ha, 2013 & Marco, 2011). Usually, they tend to join words which are either completely malformed and misused or they could be semantically compatible but regarded as unacceptable collocations from the viewpoint of native speaker of English, and this is due to the complex nature of collocations. As a result, the production of collocations which considered a significantly high proportion of L2 learners writing is highly problematic for them. Thus, collocations pose special difficulties for learners which can be rendered to some reasons like experiencing negative transfer of L1, interlanguage problems, overgeneralization and lack of vocabulary knowledge that contribute to collocational deviations in the target language.

1.7.1 Native Language Interference

When it comes to combining words in English to produce appropriate collocations, second language learners have a tendency to translate word for word and think of words that are definitional equivalent in the L1 and the L2. This could happen under two circumstances; learners might directly translate L1 collocations into their L2 without realizing that some collocations in the L1 are actually different from those in the L2 (Laufer & Waldmman, 2011 & Nesselhauf, 2005), or it could be “the influence of a learner’s first language knowledge in the second language” (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 205), i.e., an accidental translation of collocations from their L1 to L2. Martelli (1998) believed that the mother tongue interference accounts for the generation of wrong collocations. Thus, students consciously transfer the appropriate collocations they use in their native language resulting in producing deviant collocations in L2, such as ‘strong smoker’ instead of ‘heavy smoker’, ‘powerful tea’ instead
of ‘strong tea’. Arab students often say, “He is knocking on the door” instead of saying “He is knocking at the door”, “He is making his homework” is also a common mistake rather than “He is doing his homework” (Al Ghazali, F., 2015, p. 251). Aside from that, Chinese learners of English often make mistakes such as “learn knowledge”, “learn to speak”, “learn the example”. The correct expression should be “pursue knowledge”, “learn to speak English” and “follow the example”. They make mistakes because the English words ‘pursue, learn and follow’ have the same equivalent “learn” in Chinese. And this is owing to the way Chinese use a general term to express many different meanings, Chinese students of English transfer this habit into making wrong English collocations (Manfu, D. & Xiaohui, Q., 2012, p. 1892).

1.7.2 Interlanguage

The interlanguage is another difficulty that may lead L2 learners to create L2 collocations through false analogy depending on various strategies such as the use of synonyms or L1 transfer. To begin with the use of synonyms, EFL learners tend to violate collocational patterns by applying the strategy of synonyms when they decide which collocates should be used despite the fact that they might have low or limited knowledge of collocational specialization. Hence, collocations will usually have distinctly different nuances in different contexts based on the fact that terms whose meanings overlap are generally called synonyms. Such terms are usually substitutable one for the other in at least certain contexts; but rarely, if ever, are two terms substitutable for each other in any and all contexts (Nida, 1975). To emphasize, not all synonyms can be used interchangeably with words carrying the same meaning, words will have some senses that largely overlap with those of other words, but not totally overlap. As an example, “pretty flower” and “handsome car” cannot be substituted with “pretty car” and “handsome flower” although “pretty” and “handsome” have equal meaning. Similarly, “ride” or “bike” are used with a horse, “drive” with a car and “fly”
with a plane; none of the verbs can replace the others (Al Ghazali, F., 2015, p. 251-252). Negative transfer of collocations from L1 is another strategy used by EFL learners which will end up with inaccuracy in production and wrong use because “in English you run a business, but in German you lead it…In English you smoke a cigarette, but in Hindi you drink it…In English you lie in the sun, but in Russian you lie on it” (Wray, 2002, p. 73). Another feature that characterizes the interlanguage is that the same word may have different connotations or specific meaning in particular collocations and overusing it distorts the meaning. For example, the word break can be used with nouns such as leg, news, promise, record and carry different meanings in different contexts: “he broke his leg (crack/separates into pieces)”; “who broke the news (announce)”; “he broke his promise (failed to keep)”; “He broke yet another record (improved)” (Rott, 2013, p. 2). McIntosh et al. (2009) gave an example of the word handsome that has different meanings based on the context. A handsome man is a good-looking man, a handsome woman is a physically strong woman, a handsome reward is a large amount of reward, and a handsome present is a generous present. The meaning of handsome is, therefore, realized through noticing the specific collocates with this word in a given context. Therefore, students’ lack of awareness of the unique meanings of a word and other words and the same word in other situations leads to producing erroneous expressions that look opaque from the viewpoint of native speakers of English.

1.7.3 Overgeneralization

In addition to interlanguage issues, overgeneralization is a frequently used strategy by EFL learners which could be one of the reasons behind the deviation of collocations. According to Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2001), overgeneralization is often used strategy by learners who rely on expanding a certain target language feature or form to a different contextual use in the target language. Thus, it has been found as a source of incorrect use of
L2 English collocations, as an example; the subjects in this study confused the words ‘shame’ and ‘ashamed’, thereby extending the use of ‘ashamed’, while the word ‘shame’ was intended (Zughoul & Abdul-Fattah, 2001). In general, they tend to generalize the use of a word in a correct collocation for producing other expressions that have deviant collocations ignoring restrictions and expectations. For example, learners tend to generalize the use of “commit” from the correct collocation “commit a crime” to make new expressions like “commit a murder” or “commit a theft” which are both illegitimate examples of word combination as the words following ‘commit’ all have negative connotations. By the same token, generating “play computer” based on correct collocations such as “play the piano” or “play basketball” (Manfu & Xiaohui, 2012).

1.7.4 Lack of Vocabulary Knowledge

Apart from associating a poor choice of words to generate collocations, learners’ limited or lack of vocabulary can be attributed to lack of appropriate and context-specific collocations. The lack of diversified use of collocations is also characterized by overuse and underuse of certain collocations. In the spoken production of formulaic sequences and routines by L2 learners, both De Cock et al. (1998) and Foster (2001) discovered an overuse of some vagueness tags (e.g., and, so and on) and a highly significant underuse of other vagueness tags (e.g., sort of thing, stuff like that). Importantly, and often an overlooked point, the use of highly frequent collocations that account for general-use adjectives, rather than context-specific adjectives (e.g., a good person rather than a kind person or a responsible person) is the best example for this phenomenon. In other words, EFL learners seem to overuse a limited group of collocations which implies their lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge, like for example, in adjective+noun collocations, they overuse adjectives such as bad, big, different, good, important, negative, strict. Furthermore, through analyzing the adjective+intensifier
combinations amongst the writings of intermediate and advanced learners with L1 German, Lorenz (1991) concluded that learners underused more restricted collocations and overused collocations that are less restricted. Consequently, the most likely reason for the problem seems likely to be a lack of sufficient input because L2 learners typically have less exposure to the target language than natives.

As can be seen, L2 learners consciously pair up collocates, rather than taking them from an implicit tallying of their co-occurrence frequencies in input, they never effectively establish the appropriate association probabilities between words. In general, learners are introduced to curricula that are traditionally grammar focused which actively discourage the adoption of native-like formulas. Consequently, this approach results in a failure to produce and notice collocations and even to understand their existence and importance. And therefore, inappropriacy of collocations may give rise to lack of confidence to learner’s language ability no matter how worthy the content of the writing is. For learners to overcome these difficulties and to be able to recognize the word’s form and meaning (receptive skills) and produce the word in writing and/or speaking (productive skills), teaching approaches such as raising-awareness, teaching collocations through highlighting and noticing, task-based and context-based need to be used for an effective learning of collocations.

1.8 Approaches to Teaching Collocations

The explicit teaching of collocations has been proved by several studies on collocational competence as an effective strategy to enhance learners’ knowledge and use of collocations, and thus to improve mastery of their L2. Brashi (2006), Fan (2009) and Farrokh (2012) have suggested that collocations must be taught explicitly in EFL classrooms and recommended four important activities: (1) awareness raising, (2) identification of collocations, (3) receptive knowledge, and (4) productive knowledge. In this regard, EFL learners need to be engaged in
a variety of collocational activities that enhance both their receptive and productive knowledge of collocations. Once made aware of collocations, learners need to be trained to identify collocations in different texts and use them in their writing.

1.8.1 Teaching Collocations by Highlighting and Noticing

Language acquisition in most cases depends on noticing as Ellis (1995) stated, “No noticing, no acquisition.” (cited in Thornbury, S., 1997, p. 326). This approach rests on the fundamental principle of noticing the particular language features that learners need to learn. Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggested two types of noticing needed to acquire a language:

1. Exposure to the language input which helps to convert it into “intake”.
2. The comparison between the “output” and the “input”.

According to Thornbury (1997) noticing is “a conscious cognitive process” (p. 327), therefore, it is the job of the teachers to contribute to developing, implementing and maintaining learners’ “noticing strategies”. This could be achieved, in his opinion, through two main tasks: “reformulation” and “reconstruction”. He considers reformulation as a technique of improving student’s writing skills where the teacher reformulates student’s erroneous sentences, whereas reconstruction is a technique whereby the learner reconstructs a text that is provided by the teacher which equips students to deploy and develop their “linguistic competence”.

On the basis of what has been mentioned above, each of attention, noticing and conscious/awareness contribute to learning process. As claimed by Schmidt “nothing in the target language input becomes intake for language learning other than what learners consciously notice” (cited in McLaughlin, 1990, p. 627). Moreover, “consciousness/awareness is another significant component that leads to noticing and which on its role controlled by
attention” (Harley, B., 1994, p. 58). Thereupon, ‘noticing’ is an interesting strategy that can be reliably used in teaching collocations by drawing learners’ attention and helping them to notice words that often co-occur together, it could be done through highlighting or other similar techniques that captivate the learners’ attention. Therefore, by training them to notice such words, learners will make a compelling progress in increasing fluency in both writing and speaking (Morgan Lewis, cited in Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 14). Hence, this complex process certainly has to be guided by the teacher who should be selective in highlighting collocations. However, this process should not be based only on learners noticing common collocations in a text, but also enabling them to explore texts for themselves and select those collocations.

1.8.2 Consciousness/Awareness-Raising

Consciousness is a prerequisite factor in language learning. Schmidt (1994, cited in Lier, 1996) indicated four major dimensions of consciousness. Firstly, intention that indicates the existence of purpose; secondly, attention which includes focusing and noticing; thirdly, awareness, i.e., “to have a knowledge of”; fourthly, control that represents automaticity in performing tasks (p. 69-70). These four elements are interrelated and consequently interdependent (Lier Leo Van, 1996. p. 70).

Consciousness-raising approach (C.R) has been proposed by several studies as an approach that fundamentally train learners to explicitly and implicitly notice and recall collocations they encounter. Consciousness-raising attempts to involve students in reflecting on their learning processes with an interest in learners’ collocation-learning strategies (Ying & O’Neill, 2009, p. 184). In other words, the applicability of C.R focuses mostly on providing the learner with an opportunity for sufficient exposure to a specific feature of the language which includes highlighting and identifying multiword units in authentic texts (Boers,
Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers & Demecheleer, 2006), contrasting L2 and L1 collocations and encouraging consultation of collocation dictionaries (Komuro, 2009) and concordance/collocation sources (Wu, Witten & Franken, 2010). In the case of collocations, Morgan (cited in Lewis, 2000) asserted that the learners will not make progress unless they are trained to notice words that go together which will increase their fluency in speaking and writing (p. 14). Additionally, affirming the significant role of the teacher in the learning process, Ellis (1993) claimed that “Consciousness-raising refers to a deliberate attempt on the part of the teacher to make the learners’ aware of specific features of the L2” (p. 108-109), particularly the process of selecting and using these strategies has to be exhaustively directed by the teacher.

Ying and O’Neill (2009) refer to the approach as AWARE, an acronym for the following steps of an awareness-raising approach to the teaching of collocations:

A: Awareness-raising of important language features, in particular collocations (helping learners notice collocations in the weekly theme-based reading or any other sources of input)

W: Why should we learn collocations? (helping learners see the rationale for/meaning of learning what they learn)

A: Acquiring noticed collocations using various strategies (learners making selective use of a repertoire of learning strategies that suit their individual learning style to promote effective learning of collocations)

R: Reflection on learning processes and content (learners thinking about their learning processes and making necessary adjustments for better learning)
E: Exhibiting what has been learned (learners making a weekly oral report in class on the theme under focus by using as many as possible of the collocations they have noticed and learned)

Ying and O’Neill (2009, p. 183)

In a word, awareness is the fundamental principle of acquisition which helps the learner to acquire the language efficiently. Since “there is no learning without awareness” (McLaughlin, 1990, p. 626), the teacher has to develop students’ awareness of the language by attracting the learner’s attention which is a necessity in Foreign Language Teaching (FLT). Overall, the awareness-raising approach has been positively assessed and could prove to be an efficient method for teaching collocations (Granger & Meunier, 2008, Henriksen & Stoehr, 2009 & Nesi, 2009).

1.8.3 Teaching Collocations through Context

It is valuable to mention that teaching collocations in isolation through keywords lessons, synonym drills and classification, defining and sentence production tasks proved insufficient as methods of teaching because the learners’ attention is not directed towards collocations. Forthwith, teaching collocations in context-based classes proffered as an alternative procedure instead which help students discover precisely what collection of meanings a word may convey, in this case collocations will make sense to learners and eventually meaningful learning will take place. It is widely thought that the best learning opportunities occur in the context of real language use. Hill (2000, p. 47-70) and Thornbury (2002, p. 121) emphasize the importance of teaching collocations through context as this will help students know how to use new vocabulary items according to their collocational field and context. It is remarked by Hoey (cited in Michael Lewis, 2000) that “learning items in context may be easier than
learning them out of context” (p. 230). Here, it is the teacher who should direct the learners’ attention towards the meaning of word combinations in context because it is not an easy task to guess the meaning.

It is useful to point out the importance of using context for implicit collocation teaching/learning since each collocation or expression is appropriate for certain contexts. Worthy of note, words have a habit of changing their meaning from one context to another (e.g., the doctor ordered me to stay in bed/He called our names in alphabetical order). It could be done through listening or extensive reading which will not only expose learners to a massive amount of vocabulary, but will also help them to discover, notice and acquire new collocations. Along with the use of writing and speaking skills, on the other hand, which provide students the opportunity to practice collocations (Hill, 2000, p. 47-70).

1.8.4 Teaching Collocations through Exercises (Task-Based Approach)

There has been a broad interest within ELT (English Language Teaching) directed towards Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) which refers to “an approach/method based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching...as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223). Basically, task-based instructions are the implementation of a great variety of tasks and procedures to produce effective results in L2 acquisition. Henceforth, teachers can make us of such instructions in order to develop students’ collocational knowledge.

For this purpose, Michael Lewis and Jimmie Hill introduced several exercises from Michael Lewis book Teaching Collocation (2000) that might be effective for teaching collocations.
1. The first exercise is ‘correcting common mistakes’ in which the learner is asked to correct a collocation mistake in each sentence by looking up in a collocation dictionary. For instance, in the sentence: “When you decide what to study, you must make a planned choice”. Students have to find a word that goes with choice (Lewis Michael, Lewis Morgan & Hill, J., 2001, p. 106-107).

2. The second exercise below is to match the adverbs with the adjectives using a dictionary to check the adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List 1</th>
<th>List 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bitterly</td>
<td>Anticipated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strictly</td>
<td>Available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lavishly</td>
<td>Damaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eagerly</td>
<td>Disappointed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generously</td>
<td>Illustrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widely</td>
<td>Influenced by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavily</td>
<td>Limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extensively</td>
<td>Rewarded</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After that, the students are asked to complete a text with each expression.

3. Another type of exercises is to cross out the ‘odd verb out’ in verb-noun collocations (noun=advice), for instance:

Accept, act on, disregarded, follow, ignore, make, solicit, take

It is remarkable that the preceding exercises are effective in teaching collocations because they focus on promoting the learner’s awareness of the associations that cluster around the word. However, it is noticed by Hoey (cited in Michael Lewis, 2000, p. 229) that the majority of strategies in teaching lexis rely on “themed” word lists which are ineffective in vocabulary learning.
As an example, he provides the following exercise:

VOCABULARY: Art, music and literature

Look at the nouns below and write them in the correct column

Composer | Author | Palette | biography | Drawing
---|---|---|---|---
Poem | Painter | orchestra | detective story | Novel
oil painting | band | Chapter | Brush | Pianist
Instrument | Sketch | Tune | Bugle | pop group
Banjo | Portrait | Fiction | Play |

Consequently, In the words of Hoey (cited in Michael, Lewis, 2000, p. 229) these exercises could become effective if “the themed lists” are related to “collocational information”. He provides the following exercises as example:

VOCABULARY AND LISTENING: Sport

Make a list of as many sports and leisure activities as you think of.

Use the picture to help you. (picture omitted)

Write in play, go, or do. There are three of each.

………………tennis | ……………..athletics | ………………..football
………………exercises | …………….volleyball | ……………….fishing
………………jogging | ……………aerobics | ………………skiing
Based on the above-mentioned claims and suggestions, there has been a great interest in TBLT since “it treasures both the learning process and learning results, language forms and meaning, and linguistic competence and communicative function” (Zhang, 1999 as cited in Talebinezhad & Esmaeili, 2012, p. 1700). Regarding its compelling significance, teachers should provide students with opportunities to practice collocations through exercises that vary according to their needs, either by having a reliable source to follow such as McCarthy and O’Dell collocation exercises or by designing their own exercises or make use of both.

1.9 Empirical Studies on the Impact of Collocational Knowledge on Writing

In order to present an overview of the subject, this section will be introducing the notion of collocations along with previous studies that have been conducted to investigate the impact of explicit teaching of collocations on EFL students’ writing production.

More recently, attention has been drawn to the area of formulaic language or “multiple word phraseological units” that has been estimated to cover a certain degree; variously between 30-60% based on research on conversation, of our productive language that we use on a daily basis. Wray (2002) defines formulaic language as: “a sequence, continuous, discontinuous of words or other elements which appear to be prefabricated that is stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar.” (p. 9).

To put it differently, it’s important to realize that there is a category that consisting of almost ‘ready-made’ chunks that are produced and recalled as a single lexical item, rather than being generated from individual items and rules. Furthermore, formulaic sequences are in general lexical phrases including; idioms (e.g., giving the cold shoulder), binominal (e.g.,
aches and pain), standardized similes (e.g., the bottle rolled off the table like a teardrop), proverbs and clichés (e.g., a tree is known by its fruit, in the nick of time) and last but not least, collocations (e.g., deeply religious). As a subcategory of formulaic language, the notion of collocation has been fully recognized by many scholars and it has been addressed by various terms and definitions, however, “collocation” is used as an umbrella term to fundamentally refer to the relationship of words showing constant co-occurrence, for examples, the adjective-noun combination (e.g., heavy smoker), the adverb-verb combination (e.g., firmly reject), the verb-preposition combinations (e.g., choose between two things). The idea of collocations was first presented by J. R. Firth in 1957 which led many linguists to conduct an increasing number of research studies on this linguistic phenomenon.

Recently, many studies have been conducted to investigate the pivotal roles of collocations. However, these studies did not bring valuable contributions to ELT including the effect of collocation instruction on the productive and receptive collocational knowledge in general and its effect on the language production in specific.

Among the studies that were interested in investigating the effect of collocation teaching on the productive and receptive collocational knowledge was that of (Adelian, M., et al, 2015). The study investigated the influence of the knowledge of collocations on writing ability of 88 Iranian advance EFL learners in which their writing ability was analyzed, their productive collocational knowledge was measured by free writing tests and their receptive collocational knowledge was measured by MC test. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between both the receptive and the productive knowledge of collocation, while the knowledge of collocations showed no positive effect on the production of collocations in EFL learners’ free writing.
A worth mentioning study was administered by Rahimi and Momeni (2011). The study investigated the effect of collocation teaching on the English language proficiency, it was a quasi-experimental design in which two groups made up of sixty students have been pre and post tested. The control group received the usual techniques for learning words in isolation while the experimental group was taught through the use of concordances and corpus-based activities to learn collocations of particular words. After the treatment, both groups were exposed to a language proficiency test. The results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in language proficiency test implying that teaching collocations can improve the students’ language proficiency. Similarly, Al Zahrani (1998) in his study has demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between the knowledge of lexical collocation and language proficiency.

Concerning the effect of collocational knowledge on writing proficiency. Zhang (1993) measured the correlation between the EFL learners’ use of lexical collocation and their writing fluency. Indeed, the study investigated two groups composed of sixty freshmen, one group consisted of thirty native English speakers and the other thirty non-native English speakers, both groups have assigned to a ‘fill in the blank’ collocation test and a writing task. The results revealed that the native English speakers outperformed the non-native English speakers on both collocation test and writing task. Thus, collocational knowledge is viewed as an important factor to achieve proficiency in writing. In other words, frequency of lexical collocations helps in enhancing writing.

Another study measured the impact of lexical collocation instruction on the pre-intermediate Iranian language learners’ writing proficiency. The study composed of fifty Iranian learners who randomly divided into a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group received a treatment based on lexical collocation instruction while the
control group was taught by a conventional method of writing instruction. A lexical collocation test and a paragraph task was administrated to both groups. The final results demonstrated a difference in the mean scores of both groups in writing components including grammar, fluency, vocabulary and relevance. The results revealed that the lexical collocation instruction developed vocabulary component of writing rather than grammar, relevance and fluency (Eidian & Gorjian et al., 2013).

Déogratias Nizonkiza (2017) conducted a pre-/post-test experimental design study to assess academic literacy of students; English majors at a university in Burundi, through explicit teaching of collocations. Henceforth, the main objective of this study is to build the students’ academic vocabulary and produce articulate writing that are needed to estimate their academic literacy, particularly writing competence. Academic literacy has been measured by means of collocation completion tasks and writing task before and after being exposed to a collocation-based syllabus as a part of writing course through the awareness-raising approach operationalized by means of a collocation web model (McCarthy and O’Dell’s 2005). On the basis of the participants’ pre- and post-test scores of both collocation and writing tests, the performance was better on the post-test, this suggested that the intervention with a focus on collocations could contribute towards building the vocabulary needed in academic settings and using it efficiently. Considering that, explicit collocation teaching results in a better mastery of these items.

The above-mentioned studies have provided detailed overall picture of the use of collocations in written production in EFL contexts. However, it has been found that these studies were not very accurate in terms of their methodology, regardless to their approaches of teaching collocations, since there is an absence of an overall coverage of different types of collocations while exposing the learners to collocation instruction. Besides, there was no
involvement of control group in one of the studies which would provoke revelation of questionable assumptions. Further, their focus was mainly on lexical collocations and no attention has given to grammatical collocations. Regarding these limitations, the present study is being replicated to focus on teaching both types of collocations (grammatical and lexical) to investigate whether the collocation instruction will result in a proficient level of EFL learners’ writing production.

**Conclusion**

Collocations are as much important as other linguistic features in academic prose, yet these features are one of the most overlooked aspects of language learning and teaching. In fact, collocations are valuable for learners in order to increase their knowledge of lexicon and general language proficiency. Many studies have acknowledged the importance of collocational knowledge in increasing the automaticity of speech, comprehension and language use (Skehan, 1998 & Bonk, 2000). However, little has mentioned the significance of this notion as an indicator of native-like production in general and writing production in specific. Even though, this collocational knowledge opts for providing learners with the most natural language when they are engaged in writing task.

As a matter of fact, collocation is instinctively used by writers heavily in academic texts in that it extends native fluency that is longed for academic writing. Howarth (1998) reported that ESL/EFL learners may become native-like writers if they become aware of the important role of collocations and pay the necessary attention on collocational competence. As Brown (1974) stressed that collocational competence enables language producers to realize formulaic expressions or language chunks used by natives in their writing, and to get the intuitive use of word combinations in a natural way as natives do. According to Fillmore
(1979), the proficiency of how to combine words in association with one another is a source of fluency. Learners become more fluent when they acquire more chunks of language for instant retrieval. Therefore, knowledge of collocation undoubtedly assists EFL/ESL learners who desperately aspire for native fluency in writing production. In this regard, teaching collocations deserves special attention as it is perceived as an influential way to increase fluency in academic writing, reasoning from this fact, learners’ written productions would meet the qualities that could make them native-like.
Section Two: Writing in EFL Classrooms

Introduction

Learning to write effectively and clearly is a very challenging task for both ESL and EFL learners. In fact, the process of writing requires an exhaustive training, as it has been noted that “achieving effective performance in writing is a matter of lifelong apprenticeship” (Baron, 2007, p. 15). Writing is a medium of communication that represents language through the inscription of signs and symbols. It can be used in different contexts, whether formal as in academic writing, or informal like text messaging via social networking or emails. Indeed, the way of writing differs from one context to another. Within any language system, writing relies on some basic structures including vocabulary, grammar, semantics, spelling and punctuation. Despite the fact that a great emphasis has been placed on the written skill in EFL classes. It seems pointless since the constant efforts were made only to consider the grammatical mistakes and take no notice of other areas of mistakes like those which occur because of collocations’ misuse. Thus, even if there is an accurate use of grammar, problems concerning vocabulary use in general and collocation in particular need to be taken into consideration. Among language skills, writing is considered to be the most complex skill for native speakers and much more difficult for EFL learners because they may need to focus on the language rather than the content since they tend to have a limited second language proficiency in general and less vocabulary and collocational knowledge in specific. This lack can be stated as the source of difficulty in second language writing, and consequently it may affect achieving proficiency in writing. Therefore, the possibility of drawing the EFL learner’s attention to acquire some of the lexical and grammatical collocations may help in minimizing the burden of this skill, as it could make the process of writing easier for the EFL learner which results in improving their writing style and having access to native-like writing production.
2.1 Definition of Writing

Learning a second or a foreign language is a difficult process that requires the mastery of the four skills which are listening, reading, speaking and writing. Writing in particular is superficially referred to the mere use of graphic symbols, letters or combination of letters to represent the sounds people utter when they speak (Byrne, 1988). However, this simplistic view of writing is insufficient and no one seems to believe in it (Brown, 2001). For that, many researchers in the field of ELT (Hairston, 1982 & Heaton, 1975) have brought a set of definitions for this skill. Heaton (1975), for instance, stated that “the writing skill is complex and sometimes difficult to teach, requiring mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices, but also of conceptual and judgmental elements” (p. 135), these judgmental and conceptual elements refer to the potential of achieving the suitability and the relevance of writing according to the intended audience and the proposed purpose. Another definition is presented by Nunan (1989) who considers writing as a difficult and a complex cognitive activity that imposes on the writer to manifest control over number of variables like content, vocabulary, sentence structure, spelling, punctuation, format and also a control over the delivered information that has to be integrated and structured into a coherent and cohesive context. For Troyka and Nudelman (2004), writing is asserted to be an act that is based on respecting certain steps while dealing with the writing process since in this skill words are not expected to flow perfectly. Thus, the writing process indicates a need for generating the ideas then translating them into a text by using a correct grammar and lexicon, then reviewing the final product. Similarly, Flower and Hayes (1980) emphasized this view by stating that the writing process involves mental operations as planning, editing and reviewing.

To gain better understanding of writing skill, a comparison between writing and speaking and writing and reading is necessary.
2.2 Speaking vs Writing

Writing and speaking are two intertwined processes. Thus, it is not very appropriate to speak about writing without associating speaking. As a matter of fact, these two processes are not identical. It means that there is a broad difference between those processes (Harmer, 2004 & Raims, 1983). According to Raims (1983), speaking is a skill that is to be learned at an earlier age and taught without systematic instructions, it is viewed as a spontaneous and unplanned process. Moreover, the nature of speech is mainly related to the voice (pitch, stress and rhythm) and the body language (gestures and facial expressions) of the speaker, as well as the spoken form of language depends on the use of intonation patterns and simple, informal and repetitive sentences like “let me explain, what I mean is…” etc. In contrast, teaching writing is generally based on specific methods, this mode of language relies on the use of graphic signs and symbols. In fact, it is a planned process where the writer is required to convey the message accurately to the readers. Thus, it depends more on standard forms like vocabulary, grammar and style.

2.3 Reading vs Writing

It is widely argued by certain researchers (Tsai, 2006 & Olness, 2005) that all of reading, writing and language learning have an integral relationship. Reading in particular, is viewed as an important element that helps the language learners to have an incidental contact with the vocabulary and the grammar included in a variety of written works. In other words, reading is defined as a process of attaining linguistic information through print (Widdowson, 1979). Moreover, reading is a complex cognitive process that includes the construction of meaning with the integration of several elements as the reader, the text and the relation between them. However, the act of reading makes the readers become aware of a variety of possible structures and the different ways of connecting ideas that will be reflected in their written
production later (Collie & Slater, 1987). Similarly, writing is essentially a language assistant skill that contributes to enhance the language users’ abilities through experiencing the various uses of natural words and sentences of the language and to foster the learners reading fluency as well. Consequently, learners who perceive the richness and diversity of the language they are reading about may appear efficient in their writing production (Hişmanoğlu, 2005). In this regard, achieving proficiency in writing is a result of a sufficient and a comprehensible reading input (Krashen as cited in Williams, 2003). However, reading is not completely the only factor that helps in achieving writing proficiency (Williams, 2003), yet it is very important to indicate that both reading and writing are strictly intertwined and connected in terms of processes and they should be developed in close collaboration.

2.4 The Importance of Writing in EFL Classrooms

Learning and achieving proficiency in writing is not an easy task. However, this productive skill is really important for both L1 and L2 writers, its significance has been emphasized by many EFL linguists (Rabideau, 1993; Hairston, 1982; Chappell, 2011 & Maley, 2009). Generally, the act of writing can help in expressing one’s personality because the writer’s way of thinking can be clearly reflected in their writings (Chappell, 2011). In addition, writing’s importance lies in fostering communication (Walsh, 2010) because if students do not know how to express themselves in writing, they will not be able to communicate effectively and since much of professional communication is done in writing like writing proposals, reports, applications and preliminary interview, L2 learners need to develop their writing skill more than any other skills. Moreover, the writing task could help teachers to assess the students’ knowledge about language and to detect their areas of mistakes like vocabulary and grammar then to provide the necessary feedback to correct these mistakes. For that, writing seems to reinforce the use of correct grammatical structures and vocabulary
which includes multiword units as collocations and idioms that have been taught in some contexts (Maley, 2009). Also, writing helps to organize the ideas by putting them in an explicit form because often the clarification of evasive and vague concepts could not be easily illustrated, only if these concepts are interpreted in a written mode (Chappell, 2011). Last but not least, writing can help in making the ideas look more objectively when they are written down. Finally, this skill usually tends to keep the learners more active rather than being passive receivers of a set of information.

Generally, writing effectively, logically and coherently about thoughts, knowledge, and opinions may evidently expand students’ access to further academic success, as they can become fully effective in intellectual organization as well as in the expression of ideas and arguments (Tribble as cited in Firth, J, 2009, p. 1). Additionally, writing can open up wide horizons for people to share their experiences and knowledge with others. Furthermore, possessing effective writing skill can assist the understanding of others’ written works and can help to analyze various amounts of information on diverse topics and trends.

2.5 Common Writing Problems

The ability to articulate ideas clearly and effectively, express ideas logically, follow conventions of standard English grammar, use academic vocabulary and control the basic elements of standard written English is a complex process for EFL learners that requires the use of each of the aforesaid aspects of writing to be taken into account in order to produce accurate, fluent, well-structured, well-organized and high-quality content writing. During this process EFL learners encounter many problems, such problems are restricted to the lack of grammatical knowledge, lack of vocabulary knowledge, lack of coherence and cohesion, lack of content, lack of exposure to authentic materials.
2.5.1 Problems with Grammar

Grammar is a set of structural rules governing the composition of clauses, phrases and words in a language or languages in general. These structural rules are called ‘the grammar rules’ which are defined as “the description of the ways in which words can change their forms and can be combined into sentences in that language” (Hamer, 2001, p. 12). It is important to realize that these basic elements of language are inseparable from writing. Thus, in composing a piece of writing, EFL learners markedly encounter grammar related difficulties regarding tenses, prepositions, word classes. For instance, combining a function word with a content word to generate ‘Preposition+Noun’ collocation, students face problems in associating words that basically go together resulting in the production of inappropriate collocations, such as ‘I’m in school’ instead of ‘I’m at school’. It could be classified as ‘preposition misuse’ or ‘mis-collocation’.

2.5.2 Problems with Vocabulary

Vocabulary knowledge is classified into receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. In his study, Webb (2008) defined receptive vocabulary knowledge as the ability to perceive the form of a word and to retrieve its meaning or find a synonym for it, while productive vocabulary knowledge is the ability to recall the form and the meaning of a foreign language word. Essentially, the first can be learnt through listening and reading which is regarded as receptive or passive knowledge. While the productive or active knowledge is the outcome of using the words properly in spoken and written language and which relies on the amount of vocabulary that people know, in which the most ambitious goal is to know all vocabulary of the language. Further, it relies on the knowledge of deeply-rooted words of any language which is based on the mental lexicon that is thought to include more than just individual lexical items, but also entire phrases, such as ‘collocations’ which can be combined
Vocabulary related difficulties are generally related to those features mentioned above, including; failing to recall important lexical items (words or ready-made chunks), failing to use the appropriate words and use of poor vocabulary. More importantly, knowing words generally requires knowing their meaning, basic forms and their distribution which is confusing to students at different occasions. Nakata (as cited in Mehring, 2005) noted that vocabulary acquisition is an ongoing process that requires students’ constant repetition and use of words to be effectively attained in the long-term memory, and then retrieved once needed. Generally, a successful vocabulary development requires learning words as a part of the context in which they occur. This method is proven to be beneficial as “it helps the student understand the word’s correct usage” (Mehring, 2005, p. 4). Besides, being exposed to vocabulary in context of occurrence would aid learners not just to acquire new words in their isolated form, but also their associated network with other words which would provide learners with a helpful device in writing.

2.5.3 Lack of Coherence and Cohesion

In writing, Widdowson (1978) defined cohesion as the overt structural link between sentences and coherence as the link between the communicative acts that sentences are used to perform (p. 26-27). In detail, coherence refers to the meaningful connections or the logical bridge between words, sentences and paragraphs that readers or listeners perceive in a written or oral text often called linguistics or discourse coherence, whereas cohesion is the use of repetition, pronouns, transitional expressions, and other devices called ‘cohesive clues’ which involves the way ideas and relationships are communicated to readers. What requires for both coherence and cohesion to be achieved in a text is the writer’s effective ways of offering the
reader with an impactful writing quality either through word choice, sentences and paragraph structure which influence the coherence of a written or spoken piece, or through context clues, direct use of transitional phrases, cultural knowledge, understanding of the processes and natural orders that can also serve as cohesive elements of writing (Richard Nordquist, 2018).

Many EFL students find the task of writing in English a difficult assignment to manage. For instance, producing a piece of writing which is basically cohesive but lacks coherence on one side. In this case, coherence is needed to be achieved and this can be done through the use of formulaic language, such as collocations. This lack of coherence and cohesion is mainly due to the learners’ inability to connect or organize sentences and phrases correctly and sequence their ideas logically, in this case; they are initially unable to use collocations appropriately or subordinating conjunctions or any other connectors successfully in English writing. Therefore, paying attention to both coherence and cohesion while writing can make it easier for the reader (or listener) to process and to make sense of what they read (or hear).

2.5.4 Lack of Content

In writing assignments, learners with a background knowledge about the subject or topic have an edge over those who lack it. Langer (1984) and Cheskey (1984) found that learners with high prior knowledge produce written outputs of better quality and obtain higher scores in writing tasks. To clarify, the topic-relevant prior knowledge that is stored in learner’s memory contribute in facilitating the processes that are activated during writing, resulting in the use of unambiguous, well-structured and formal language. Giving these points, teachers should provide students with topics related to their interests and maintain high expectations of all students and ensure that writing is equally visible and valued across the full range of purposes, contexts and subject areas (focus on literacy: writing, 1999). Thus, students who are interested in a subject are more likely to feel confident about their work in that subject and
exert their efforts to set goals, make use of helpful strategies, prevent plagiarism and generate their own content ideas during writing process.

2.5.5 Lack of Exposure to Authentic Materials

Authentic materials are elements in language teaching and every teacher has to rely on the available ones, especially when teachers are working with textbooks that do not contain naturally occurring language. Moreover, (Byrne, 1996; Mishan, 2005; Berardo, 2006 & Tomlinson, 2003) emphasized that exposure to FL/L2 input through reading English authentic materials, such as authentic texts that present language in real contexts leads to linguistic development and a native-like competence which results in foreign language writing development. With this in mind, the written texts that are presented to students have to be authentic because authenticity provides possibility of noticing and using language in its real context, as Morrow (1977) claimed that “an authentic text is a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort” (p. 13). The use of authentic texts can offer good opportunities to learn various collocations included in every subject matter. Furthermore, Harmer (1994) remarked that learners can greatly benefit from authentic materials as these types of input help students improve their language production, acquire the language in an easier manner, and increase their confidence when using the language in real life situation. Nevertheless, for Widdowson (1990, as cited in Ahlstrom, C., 2005, p. 5) authenticity alone is insufficient since the materials might not fulfill the learners’ needs. So, in this case, materials are required to be chosen by both the teacher and the learner or self-designed by teachers along with receiving suitable feedback.

As stated above, authentic materials such as authentic texts are found to be very helpful in effective language teaching and writing in specific, and their absence can be the
reason behind the students’ incompetent writing in English writing tasks. In a word, reading and writing are inseparable, in the sense that they are basically complimentary skills in language. Reading affects writing and writing affects reading. As such, better writers tend to be better readers, and better readers produce better writing.

There is a considerable agreement that traditional teaching of grammar and vocabulary through rules and rote memorization has no impact on improving students’ writing ability, nor on their ability to avoid errors. In order for learners not only to overcome the main difficulties related to grammar and vocabulary which result in difficulties in arranging proper writing (Bahri & Sugeng, 2010), but also to use correct lexicon, grammar and genre rules and to be familiar with the topic in order to create fluent, well-structured, well organized and high-quality piece of writing. Feedback should be provided to students about the effectiveness of features, such as organization, cohesion and coherence, grammar, word choice, spelling, punctuation and presentation (handwriting or word processing) on their writing through explicit and systematic teaching accompanied with exposure to authentic materials which occur when teachers ensure that the writing programs deal with the balanced development of these aspects of writing, as well as the writing processes (focus on literacy: writing, 1999). As students learn to pay attention to all these aspects of writing and have control over them, the ability of composing any type of writing for different academic purposes would become more advanced.
2.6 Approaches to Teaching Writing

According to several studies including (Raimes, 1983 & Leki, 1991) the teaching of writing has been marked by the adaptation of three main approaches namely the product approach, the process approach and the genre approach. Indeed, these approaches have been developed to provide the most effective ways of producing any piece of writing.

2.6.1 The Product Approach (Grammar-Syntax-Organization)

This approach has been considered as one of the traditional approaches in the teaching of writing. In fact, it takes into account the linguistic knowledge, syntax, grammar and cohesive devices as the basic features of the writing product (Pincas, 1992), it also looks for the general organization of the task and neglects the quality of the content. In this approach, the learners are encouraged to acquire linguistic knowledge through the imitation of the modelled texts provided by the teachers. Furthermore, the product approach is based on four stages of writing (Badger & White, 2000) which are familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing and free writing.

“Familiarization” is a stage where students are acquainted with different forms of texts, in this stage teachers will be able to cope with the deficiencies of the learners in language usage and reinforce their writing performance. “The control and guide stages” of writing, is a phase where learners are permitted to practice more the writing skill as they may shift their attention to the content. In the final stage, which is “free writing”, learners are allowed to produce a genuine piece of writing depending on their own preferences.

In brief, the product approach to teaching writing is based on the provision of modelled texts, in which the learners will rely on these models, so that they will be able to produce a grammatically and syntactically correct piece of writing.
2.6.2 The Process Approach

The process approach has been introduced for the purpose of explaining how the individual components of the writing are connected. Within this approach, the language writers are majorly required to focus on the steps that make up the act of writing instead of concentrating on the final product.

While focusing on the writing process which is generally identified by a set of steps, the learners are needed to move back and forth while going from one stage to another, as they are often tend to raise questions like “how do I write this?” or “how do I get started?” (Raims, 1983).

Unlike the product approach which emphasizes fostering the linguistic knowledge, the process approach places great emphasis on teaching learners to go through a series of steps in order to refine and correct their writing rather than rely on a one-shot draft (Badger & White, 2000). As a result, the researchers Badger and White (2000) have identified four main stages which the writer might go through, which are prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing. Furthermore, the writing activities which are involved in this approach generally tend to move learners from the generation of ideas and the collection of data to the publication of a finished text (Badger & White, 2000, p. 154). Therefore, the learners engage in a discussion with their teacher and their peers to exchange ideas and gain some suggestions for their written works (Hillocks, 1987).

One of the central objectives of the process approach is to make the student aware of and gain control over the cognitive strategies involved in writing. Thus, the application of the process approach in EFL classes may has a great demand on the teachers to devote considerable time for the learners to explore the topic of their written task, collect and organize their ideas as well as they are recommended to set up time for exchanging the
produced piece of writing between the learners for various purposes. All in all, the process approach is characterized with learners as active participants in learning which aims at providing good opportunity for them to develop their writing.

2.6.3 The Genre Approach (Communicative Approach)

The genre approach is viewed as the most recent approach to the teaching of writing. It is worth mentioning that this approach has become of major importance for many writers, especially those who look at language writing as a medium of interaction to complete social practices or for those who have particular goals to accomplish (Hyland as cited in Albesher, 2012). Moreover, the notion of “genre” in writing refers to the distinct structure of texts, the different use of language in terms of grammar and vocabulary that the writers use to convey their ideas (Luu, 2011). This latter has been explained as a class of communication events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes (Swales, 1990). It means that there are different genres (narratives, explanatory, expository…) which based on different social purposes (Derewianka, 1990), and accordingly writing will differ across social contexts. Thus, in order to compose an effective piece of writing, the writer in the genre approach should carefully abide by the special features of any kind of genre like the subject matter, the writing purpose, the patterns of organization and the relation between the reader and the writer (Badger, 2000, p. 155).

Nevertheless, this approach by some means is an extension of the product approach since the genre approach as well views writing as a merely linguistic process of production (Badger & White, 2000). Additionally, it is based on three main stages, it starts with acquainting the learners with the different features and models of texts that are analyzed with the help of the teacher, then comes the step where learners have to practice the provided writing text, and ultimately the learners produce their texts by imitating the genre presented in the given texts.
Indeed, this approach concentrates on highlighting the linguistic conventions which are needed for specific writings, and most importantly it focuses on the explicit teaching of language patterns (Christie, 1990), so that the learners can accomplish coherent, purposeful prose writing. Therefore, depending on the genre approach, the EFL learners may have great opportunities to deal with different types of texts which are produced for real social purposes. As a result, these learners can achieve mastery over various genres and their writings will be successful.

Each of the above-mentioned approaches are very important for the teaching of writing. However, the notion of collocation is truly neglected within these approaches. If one strictly sticks to the implementation of only one approach and neglects the integration of the other approaches, this is by no means would affect the final production of the text presented by the learners. Therefore, It has been indicated by some researchers as (Raime, 1983 & Badger & White, 2000) that in order to guarantee the successful learning of writing, the teacher should be eclectic concerning the use of the abovementioned approaches, i.e., combining these approaches under one eclectic approach in which context and communicative needs of the learners should be of primary concerns. So, in order to satisfy EFL learners needs in producing a well-structured and a more natural piece of writing, vocabulary knowledge is of major importance in writing, and since collocations are the major parts of vocabulary there is a need for the teaching of these items to facilitate the writing skill by directing the learners’ attention to the correct use of collocations to use them in their writing. Thus, in the present study, the genre and the product approach will be taken into consideration, since both share a common trend which is text modelling in which a set of texts will be introduced to the learners as models, these texts have to be authentic to expose learners to the real language of native speakers which is full of collocations. Besides, the collocations which are included within the
given texts are going to be highlighted for the learners in order to help them notice these collocations as whole chunks. Consequently, these chunks could be learnt and used by the learners while they are engaged in their writing tasks.

2.7 Processes of Writing

The ability to write articulately gives one the capacity and opportunity to share thoughts, ideas, and opinions with others. Therefore, as educators, it is important to teach students about the processes of writing that equips them to produce accurate written works, and as learners, to learn how to work through each of the steps in order to improve the quality of writing. Characteristically, the writing process approach recognizes that there are many stages to writing and that these stages are fluid and overlapping (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1983; Flower & Hayes, 1980 & Murray, 1982). For most academic purposes, the processes of writing consist of drafting, revising, conferencing, editing, proofreading and publishing as displayed in figure 3.

![Figure 3: The writing process](image)

2.7.1 Drafting

Pre-writing involves making notes of ideas, planning out what is going to be written. It is an essential step in the writing process and should account for 70 percent of the writing time (Murray, 1982). Research indicates that skilled learners spend significantly more time organizing and planning what they are going to write (Hillocks, 1986). For example, when
writing an essay, learners might start with generating a “working thesis” or a main idea that they would like to explore by collecting information and ideas that relate to that idea. However, some students spend little time thinking and planning how to express their thoughts before writing them down, therefore, they are not accessing information and ideas that could possibly enhance their writing. Forthwith, teachers should implement pre-reading tasks such as the use of brainstorming which help to stimulate the imagination to produce ideas on a topic or problem.

2.7.2 Revising

An important feature of the writing process is its recursive nature which allows learners to revise their work continually after being assessed by the teacher. Therefore, revising, an important source of learning, is part of the writing process and entails assessing what has already been written (Hedge, 2005). In general, revising is the process of analyzing the writing based on the teachers’ remarks in order to improve ideas or amend the content. It might involve editing because it often requires reorganizing the written work or changing sentence structures (focus on literacy: writing, 1999). Additionally, it is noteworthy that students need to receive feedback from teachers while the experience is still ‘fresh in the mind’ (Hedge, 2005, p. 121) because when the writing task is completed, mistakes are highlighted and corrected and suggestions for improvement are provided at the moment, meaningful learning will take place.

2.7.3 Conferencing

Conferencing involves discussing drafts with others to engage in critical reflection and clarification of meaning. During the process of conferencing, revising and editing might occur, or be the result of such discussion (focus on literacy: writing, 1999). Thus far, one-on-one
strategy conferencing is the most common one which takes place between the student and the teacher. According to Don Graves (1994), the “purpose of the writing conference is to help children teach you about what they know, so that you can help them more effectively with their writing” (p. 59). To put it differently, one of the basic purposes of teaching writing is to create independent writers who are constantly able to ask themselves questions, such as “what else do I want or need to say?” “what can I add?” “does this make sense?” “how can I change this to make it better?” and “what kind of questions will the reader ask about their writing? and look for efficacious ways to make it more comprehensive, accurate and relevant to their intended audience (writing conferences, 2007). And most importantly, to be able to write precisely what they want to say and get their intended meaning across to their readers. In short, whether it is a ‘teacher-student’, or ‘peer- student’ conference, students will be presented with the best opportunity to learn how to interact with their own writing.

2.7.4 Editing/Proofreading

While revising focuses mainly on expressing ideas clearly for readers, editing or proofreading focuses more on making the assignment requirements for content, organization and style meet the conventions of standard written English. Editing is the process of analyzing and refining a paper that is basically complete by considering specific errors and small-scale improvements in grammar, mechanics, punctuation, word usage and sentence structure (Peter, D. S., et al., 2009). As learners write a sentence, they probably consider different words, organizations and types of punctuation. This kind of editing can get out of hand if, for example, they are still drafting, and they get stuck on finding the precise word to use and end up losing the rest of the thought (Peter, D. S., et al., 2009). Henceforth, learners are required to read each sentence carefully and identify its function in the paragraph, then they need to ask themselves how they might redesign the sentence to more effectively accomplish that goal.
For instance, as we know, sentences length affects the quality of the writing, so when it comes to managing sentence length; long sentences that can obscure individual ideas need to be resized by the use of collocations in this case, in order to produce short sentences that clearly communicate individual ideas. Therefore, eliminating or giving no importance to proofreading hinders the students’ writing credibility because it assists any piece of writing with a distinctive professional and academic style (Dupont, 2004).

2.7.5 Publishing

Publishing stage involves presenting the written work to its intended audience after spending a considerable time to upgrade the content of writing. Donohue (2009) concluded that “the final stage of writing process includes sharing, reflection, and assessment of the students’ writing” (p. 14). However, at this final stage of the writing process, several conditions need to be fulfilled by learners with regard to the impression of the readers such as refraining from presenting readers with large blocks of text. Since it is important for learners to work through each of the steps in order to ensure that they have produced a polished, complete piece, they need to recognize that there is always room for improvement and take into consideration each step toward a finished piece of writing.

In essence, organizing and planning how to divide time between writing processes play an essential role in writing process. Before delivering the work, it is better for learners to start in advance to have some extra time especially for proofreading. Whereat, errors can be difficult to spot, so learners need to read slowly and deliberately in order to detect errors and use correction neatly and concisely instead of major rewriting. Once students have learned to go through all the steps of writing and applied all the different types of writing and components of writing to their work, they should start to see a marked improvement in their overall writing ability.
2.8 Assessing EFL Writing

Assessing and scoring students’ writing production is one of the most tiring tasks for the teacher to accomplish, yet these components are very important in any EFL writing classroom.

In fact, assessing writing refer to the process of collecting data and evidences on students’ writing proficiency and achievements through the use of diverse instruments like essays, class tests portfolios or large-scale standardized exams (Hyland, 2003). Generally, assessing writing can be formative as it can be summative. The formative assessment refer to the informal continuous feedback on the students’ writing (Lenski & Verbruggen, 2010), it is helpful for both the teacher and the students in which students will become aware of how well they have achieved and what they should do to outperform in their writings, while the teacher will get the opportunity to regularly evaluate the students’ writing by detecting the students’ needs, and therefore, the teacher can decide about what to teach individually or collectively (Leki et al., 2008).

Unlike formative assessment, the summative assessment refers to a formal feedback that is provided by a specific schedules like the annual state exams (Lenski & Verbruggen, 2010), in other words, this type of assessment is used on the purpose of evaluating the students’ achievement at a specific period of time including, for instance, midterm exams or final projects.

In short, assessing students’ writing is a critical process, by which teachers are needed to be wise in selecting the appropriate way to measure the degree at which their students are progressing or to detect the areas of their weaknesses in order to help them improving their writing.
2.9 Scoring Procedures for EFL Writing

The process of assessing written products depends on a key component, namely, the rating scale or scoring rubric. In fact, scoring rubrics are tools that are used to assess the quality of student work in a range of excellent to poor performances (Schafer, 2004). In other words, scoring rubrics are descriptive schemes used by the teachers to guide the analysis of the products or processes of students' efforts (Brookhart, 1999). In terms of rating scale’s categories, Weigle (2002) noted that “most rating scales can be classified as either holistic (assigning a single score based on the overall impression of the writing sample) or analytic (an evaluation based on detailed scores given for specific elements of writing such as vocabulary, grammar, composition, or mechanics)” (p. 72).

2.9.1 Holistic Scoring

Holistic scoring is one type of assessing students’ writings. It is defined as a process which “involves rating scripts impressionistically on a single rating scale according to their overall properties” (Shaw & Weir, 2007, p. 150). In other words, this type of scoring aims at rating the overall proficiency reflected in the students’ writing sample by assigning a single score. The holistic mode, however, depends on a rubric that outlines the scoring criteria which are never explicitly stated. An example of holistic scoring rubric could be the scale used for TOEFL writing test (Weigle, 2002).

Indeed, the holistic scoring was one of the widely used modes in writing assessment due to its positive features. First, it is more economical and faster since raters are required to assign only a single score without focusing on a specific aspect of writing (Shaw & Weir, 2007). Second, scorers tend to focus on the strengths demonstrated on a given piece of writing rather than sticking on its deficiencies (White, 1984 as cited in Weigle, 2002). In addition, it is
recognized as valid procedure because it reflects the personal reaction of the rater to the script (White, 1984 as cited in Weigle, 2002). Despite the advantages that attributed to the holistic mode, there are some drawbacks which are reported to this mode. First, holistic scores are not always easy to interpret because each rater can depend on a different scoring criterion when assessing the same script (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Second, it has been stated that the holistic scoring procedure cannot provide useful diagnostic information about a person’s writing ability. This is problematic in the sense that a single score that is assigned to a given script does not clearly explicate what features like grammar, vocabulary and organization are accountable for the writers’ real writing ability (LIach, 2011).

2.9.2 Analytic Scoring

Analytic scoring is another mode of assessing writing samples, it is based on rating each writing aspect alone rather than assigning a single score (Shaw & Weir, 2007). In other words, the analytic scoring procedure involves a separation of various features of a composition into components for scoring purposes. For that, the analytical assessing of scripts might be rated on features as grammar, organization, content and vocabulary. An example of analytic scoring profile could be that of Jacobs et al.’s scoring profile (1981), depending on this scale, scripts are rated on five aspects: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics.

The analytic scoring profile is sometimes preferred over the holistic rating scale due to the advantages it presents. First, the analytic scoring mode can equip the raters with a useful diagnostic information about the learners’ writing ability (Weigle, 2002) because the learners are assessed precisely on each aspect of their writing, for that it can be helpful for the rater to detect the learners’ aspects of strengths and weaknesses. Second, it is argued that the analytic assessment of scripts is much easier for the unexperienced raters to use than the holistic assessment because they are allowed to evaluate specific textual features in which each feature
is rated separately (Cohen 1994 & McNamara, 1996). The analytic scoring, however, has also come under criticism because of number of reasons. To begin with the analytical assessment of writing, it is time consuming compared to the holistic rating because the raters are required to make more than one decision about the score given to a single writing sample (Weigle, 2002). Also, another critic pointed out to the analytic scoring in the sense that evaluating a script by accumulating the sub-scores given for each criterion in the text is not valid because it reduces the interconnectedness of the written text and offers a false impression that the text can be judged by its separated components (Hillocks, 1995 & White, 1994). Finally, the analytic assessing of writing was remarked by Hamp-Lyons (1989) as an act where even experienced teachers often find difficulties in using it because it requires assigning numerical scores depending on specific descriptors.

In brief, the selection of the rating scale to use is not an easy task, however, it based on the objective of the rater and the written task. For that, the holistic scale can be useful for the rater if his objective is to collect data about the learners’ overall achievement, while the analytic scale can be beneficial if the intended aim is to obtain knowledge about certain aspects of the learners’ writing.

2.10 Writing Quality

The process of writing, whether in the second language, or in the first language is quite similar. In fact, writing in a second language requires from the writers to devote a considerable amount of cognitive energy to plan, retrieve and manage several kinds of information in order to construct a coherent and a well-structured message. In doing so, there is a need for the linguistic knowledge, the topical knowledge, the task schemas and the appropriate lexical retrieval (Hayes, 1996; Roca et al., 1999 & Zimmerman, 2000).
Generally, EFL learners tend to have limited second language proficiency. Majorly, this lack can stand as an obstacle for the learners who aim to produce any piece of writing. In this regard, Silva (1993) stated that writing in second language tends to be more constrained, difficult and less effective where the L2 learners plan less, revise the content less and write less fluently and accurately than native writers (p. 668).

Concerning the linguistic knowledge, it can be introduced as the knowledge of the language resources that is needed in the writing process. In other words, it is about the basic structural elements of language including vocabulary knowledge, grammar knowledge and syntax. In this respect, Chenoweth and Hayes (2001) stated that the writing process strongly depends on this knowledge. Hence, in the stage of planning the writer needs to select words from the mental lexicon then put them together in grammatically correct and pragmatically adequate way to maintain cohesion and coherence. This can be explained by the fact that written language has a great demand on the writer to possess a large repertoire of words, sentence frames and especially collocations, so that the intended message can be effectively transmitted. However, if the learner does not have a sufficient vocabulary knowledge as well as collocational knowledge, this will burden their working memory with vocabulary searches and morpho-syntactic considerations. Consequently, their attentional resources will be narrowed down to local problems while ignoring the overall features of the ultimate written product (Kellogg, 1996 & McCutchen, 1996).

The topical knowledge is a necessary element for writing, it is required whether the content is conveyed by self-selected writing or by prescribed writing assignment. Additionally, it has been recognized by Schoonen et al. (2003) as a factor that affects the quality of the ultimate written product. Therefore, having less topical knowledge about the
written task will constrain the writer from achieving an effective text even if the writer has a proficient level in this second language.

Along with the topical knowledge, task schema is another important element that may affect the quality of writing (Hayes, 1996). Ordinarily, it includes information about the task goals, the necessary processes for accomplishing the task, such as rewriting, drafting, and editing, and how to sequence the processes and finally evaluating the success of the task.

The quality of writing in a foreign language is more likely affected by the fluency of the lexical retrieval as it has been stated that some writers refrain from using certain wordings, probably because of the lexical problems (Roca et al., 1999). Thus, once the lexical retrieval proceeds effortlessly, the process of writing would be facilitated in two ways (Zimmerman, 2000): firstly, it may help the learners to retrieve the necessary combined words which co-occur together directly. In this regard, collocations are the combined words which are concerned because if one has owned this lexical retrieval, there would be no need to simplify the wording of the concepts that are to be expressed. Consequently, the quality of writing may improve. Secondly, it enables faster retrieval process in which the number of temporary structures can be generated rapidly and freeing the writer to select the most appropriate structures for use which means that the writers will gain time for word reconstruction since these structures have already been stored in the writer’s disposal.

Conclusion

Writing skill has been known as one of the difficult language skills to be mastered by second language learners. It is a complex cognitive activity and a planned process which requires a mastery over certain language areas including grammar, vocabulary, semantics, mechanics and content. Considering that EFL learners have a less proficient language level,
they are more likely to face problems with the standard forms of language mainly grammar and vocabulary which are the basic elements of the writing skill. However, vocabulary in specific considers as the most difficult component of writing for the learners because of the variety and the great amount of vocabulary that should be included in language system. Though, knowledge of vocabulary does not depend only on the number of the individual lexical items one may acquire, but it is more importantly about the acquisition of entire phrases and multiword units including “collocations” which occupy larger parts of English native speakers’ vocabulary. Despite the fact that collocation acquisition is claimed to have a great importance in achieving fluency and native-like production in the written language, the common approaches of teaching the writing skill including the process, the genre and the product approach disregarded the notion of collocation. Thus, it may be helpful for the teacher to follow an eclectic approach as a combination between the genre and the product approach since they both focus on introducing modelled texts for the learners. These texts would give learners great exposure to variety of collocations. Therefore, learners can make use of these items in their writing which they are regarded as important factors for developing an adequate quality of writing. Ultimately, one may say that the absence of collocational knowledge would affect writing negatively by making it less accurate and unnatural.

Although, EFL learners face serious problems when they come across finishing a writing task, this productive skill is of great importance because having a good level in writing means writing effectively, logically and accurately about thoughts and points of views. Consequently, learners with a proficient level in writing are more likely to develop their critical thinking, make comments and critics on various amount of information and topics and more importantly they could expand their access to a further academic success.
Chapter Two

This chapter provides information about the experimental study which has been conducted at the English Department of Oum El Bouaghi University. It contains two main sections: section one provides a description of the research methodology and section two presents and discusses the results of the study.

Section Three: Research Methodology

Section three introduces a complete description of the methodology of the study that has been applied, the setting in which the study took place, the participants who contributed in the study, the instruments used to collect data, and finally the data scoring procedures.

3.1 Research Design

To reveal the impact of teaching lexical and grammatical collocations on writing production, a quasi-experimental design was implemented. Quasi-experimental design is quite similar to true experimental design in the sense that they have pretests, posttests, interventions, experimental and control groups. However, quasi-experimental designs lack the feature of random assignment of the participants (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In this study, the random selection of the participants was not possible, i.e., students were grouped together in intact class groups for reasons other than the experiment. In that respect, one group was taken randomly as an experimental group and another group was taken as a control group. Generally, quasi-experimental designs are most likely to be conducted in field settings for the purpose of evaluating the effectiveness of a treatment or an educational intervention as identifying variations between two or more groups to expound causation. This type of design was selected because it is the tool that best demonstrates the effect of one variable upon another, and it is used here in order to show the extent to which collocation’ teaching has an
impact on students’ writing, this suggests that any change in the dependent variable could be the result of the impact of the independent variable. The independent variable in this study is grammatical and lexical collocations teaching while the dependent variable is the students’ written productions.

As mentioned in figure 4, both the control and the experimental group in this study were asked to write a brief essay which was taken as pretest to assess the students’ writings and to test their collocational knowledge and use through their writings. After one week, the experimental group received the treatment which is composed of a set of exercises and texts about different types of grammatical and lexical collocations, there was also a simple writing task within the treatment, its objective was to make sure that the students are acquiring the provided collocations by implementing them in their writings. However, the control group did not participate in the treatment period. Following the treatment period, both groups were post tested through writing another brief essay then the mean scores of these groups were compared.

Figure 4: The experimental design
3.2 Participants and Research Setting

The present study was conducted in the second semester of the academic year 2018/2019 at L’arbi ben Mhidi University. Given that, the researcher is a postgraduate English LMD student at L’arbi Ben Mhidi University, this university was selected as the setting for conducting this academic research due to the availability of students with intermediate to upper intermediate levels, as well as the easy access to the teaching staff and the administration.

The selected population for this study was made up of almost 210 second year English LMD students covering a total of seven groups. Each group includes at least 28 students. Second year English LMD students was the population of interest because their English could be considered as intermediate or upper-intermediate level; hence they are expected to use acceptable language in writing. Giving that, collocational knowledge is viewed as an indicator that helps language learners successfully move to an advanced level (Richards, 2008). Apart from that, these students are at their initial stage of learning how to write essays. Thus, it would be suitable for them to start learning collocations in parallel as they are significant to writing production.

Among the seven groups of second year English LMD students, one of the groups is taken randomly as a control group and the other one as an experimental group to represent the general population of second year English LMD students. However, only twenty students from each selected group participated in this study while some of them were excluded because they were absent during the first session of the pretest.
3.3 Instrumentation

Within any research study, there is a necessity for data gathering and analyzing. In this study, a pretest and a posttest were used to collect the necessary data. Software programs GraphPad Prism and Excel were used to calculate and to transform the data to figures.

Tests

The aim of using tests as tools for data collection rather than other instruments was due to their important role in providing the researcher with qualitative data (Cohen et al., 2006). A prewriting test was used with both groups before conducting the treatment to obtain data about their level in writing. Then a post writing test was used after the treatment.

Aside from the pre and post writing tests, the researcher of the present study relied on collecting a set of exercises and texts from two main sources, McCarthy and Odell books “collocation in use” (2008) and (2005) and Oxford collocation dictionary for learners (2002), in addition to designing some exercises from different online sources (websites) to explicitly teach collocations for both productive and receptive purposes. Following the steps of some researchers, like Abdaoui (2010), which based their studies on teaching collocations using exercises and texts from McCarthy and Odell books. The aim of using these exercises and texts as tools to teach collocations was due to their significance in introducing learners to the different types and usages of collocations in different context.

After administrating the pretest, there was comparison between writing scores of both groups followed by the administration of a t test that was performed to prove that both groups are homogeneous. After the treatment period, both groups were post tested through performing a writing task. Similarly, the scores of both groups in writing production were compared and
calculated statistically by a t test to demonstrate the difference in performance that may occur between both groups. And thus, to confirm or to reject the hypothesis.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

3.4.1 The Pretest

The pretest is designed to be a tool for testing the learners’ writing production through collocations use. Students in both groups, the control and the experimental one, were asked to write a brief essay about “the things that they could realistically do if they were elected as President, why they need these changes and how they affect the country?” (see appendix 1).

The aim of choosing this topic is due to the period of the presidential elections in Algeria, so we can ensure that the learners could have an acceptable topical knowledge since it is a topic which is very common in the social media, television and journals, also many of the candidates of the elections have discussed this subject by presenting series of changes that they may apply if they were elected as president of Algeria. A total of 40 essays have been collected, examined and corrected.

3.4.2 Content of the Treatment

The period of treatment was divided into 4 sessions in order to teach lexical and grammatical collocations. Indeed, there are multiple ways of collocation teaching, yet in this study the selected materials were based on the use of authentic texts and exercises to raise the learners’ awareness about the notion of collocations.

These texts and exercises have been adapted from various sources, like oxford collocation dictionary (2002), McCarthy and O'Dell (2005, 2008) ‘English collocation in use’ book and other collocational online sources. The textbook of ‘English collocation in use’ and the oxford collocation dictionary are two important sources that the teacher should rely on when teaching
collocations because they provide various collocations from different fields, whether in a form of exercises, or short texts. For that it can be easy to acquaint students with these examples of texts while they are learning written expression by introducing some of the useful collocations involved within these texts because learning collocations through context is somewhat easier than learning them out of context (Lewis, 2000). Along with the choice of teaching collocations through contexts, the use of exercises was the fundamental tool used in this treatment because it was noticeable that relying on language teaching approaches, like the task-based approach that is based on teaching language through intensive implementation of tasks is helpful for L2 acquisition (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223).

The experimental group received a treatment based on collocation instruction, while the control group continued to take the regular writing lessons. The researcher focused mainly on presenting collocations which occur with high frequency in academic texts. It is to be expected that these items would assist learners who aim for native fluency in their academic papers, research reports, term papers, so it is important for them to primarily upgrade their collocational knowledge and secondly to minimize lexical problems related to collocations in their papers which results in a better quality of writing.

Session 1

Due to the fact that opportunities for an exposure to collocations are considerably limited in contexts where English is a foreign language, students are not completely familiar with collocations. Therefore, the researcher decided to start the session by explaining the definition of collocations introduced by well-known scholars in the field of second language learning along with their classifications and their facilitative roles in writing. The reason why collocations need to be introduced to learners is to build their awareness of what is meant by
collocations. And because without such introduction, learners will remain unaware of the fact that collocations can play a key role in helping them achieve native-like production in the second language, whether in oral, or in written language. After that, students were given handouts that contain a variety of collocation exercises extracted from McCarthy and O’Dell textbook and other various sources. In the first worksheet, the students were given a short passage titled ‘plans and decisions’ retrieved from “McCarthy and O'Dell book” (2008, unit 28, p. 60) with highlighted collocations in it (see appendix 2). The objective is to draw the learner’s attention towards noticing words that often co-occur together by highlighting them, so learners can understand the meaning of each collocation through context, and therefore, their consciousness about collocations would raise. After that, students were asked to write a paragraph of approximately 5 lines about ‘plans to achieve career goals and aspirations’ and to employ 5 collocations from the text. The aim of this task is to train learners to use collocations in their writings, such training will help learners improve both their collocational knowledge and writing accuracy and fluency. This strategy basically focuses on obtaining both receptive and productive collocational knowledge.

The second part is a collection of exercises related to collocations. The first exercise focused only on grammatical collocations in which students were provided with a bunch of sentences, each sentence included 3 grammatical collocations, among them were two erroneous collocations and students were asked to select the right option (see appendix 2). The second was a ‘fill-in-the gap’ activity which focused mainly on lexical collocations, whereby students were given a number of incomplete sentences with a list of lexical collocations to choose from to complete the sentences given (see appendix 2). The third exercise was in a form of ‘fill-in-the gap’ activity as well, but this time, 11 gapped sentences were provided while learners have to guess the grammatical collocations based on some clues set between
brackets at the end of each sentence (see appendix 2). These types of exercises offer an opportunity to practice both receptive and productive use of collocations and allow the students to encounter collocations in a variety of contexts. At the end of the session, students were provided with detailed feedback which is used as a basis for improvement.

Session 2

In the second session, the students were provided with a text entitled “why you should start learning a foreign language” (see appendix 3) as the first activity, it is taken from an academic writing source. This text has been chosen as model because the students in that group were dealing with argumentative essays, and this text precisely included some of the lexical and the grammatical collocations which can be beneficial for the learners in their academic writing. Even though the mentioned collocations in this text were somehow considered as weak, it was helpful for the learners to differentiate the existing types of collocations. After distributing the text to the students, they were asked to read it silently twice, then they were asked to pay attention to the highlighted collocations included in the text. In order to refresh the students minds, they were reminded by the types of collocations they dealt with in the previous session. Then a brief discussion about the meaning of each highlighted collocation in the text was held. After that, they tried to write down these collocations in their copybooks by putting each collocation in its right column (i.e., whether it is lexical or grammatical). Following the first activity, there were two ‘fill-in-the-gap’ activities which are gathered from different online sources, they were used as receptive exercises for lexical and grammatical collocations. For the second activity (fill in the gap activity) in which the learners were provided with thirteen sentence and thirteen lexical collocations and asked to choose the collocation which best fits each gap in the given sentences (see appendix 3). As the second activity, the third activity was also a ‘fill in the gap’
activity, it was, however, concerned with the grammatical collocations, where the learners were given eleven sentence and asked to fill in the gap with the appropriate grammatical collocations, following the meaning which is provided between brackets (see appendix 3).

Finally, a brief writing task was designed as a productive task for the learners in order to use some of the learned collocations in their writings (see appendix 3).

**Session 3**

In the third session, the researcher followed the same procedure as in the previous sessions, a variety of collocation exercises extracted from McCarthy and O’Dell textbook and other various sources (see appendix 4) were presented to the students. In the first part of the session, students were asked to read a short passage titled ‘Academic Writing’ retrieved from “McCarthy and O'Dell book" (2005, unit 33, p. 70) and to pay a careful attention to some of the highlighted collocations in the text. The objective is to direct the learner’s attention towards collocations in order to raise learners’ collocational competence. Subsequently, students were asked to write five sentences using five collocations from the text in order to train them to make use of these sequences accurately and appropriately in writing.

The second part is composed of three collocation exercises. The first exercise focused on both grammatical and lexical collocations in which students were provided with set of sentences with blanks left to be filled with the appropriate collocations which were arranged in a list (see appendix 4). The second exercise was a word choice of ‘verb’ in ‘noun-verb’ combinations in which students were presented with a number of sentences, each sentence contained three verbs and students were instructed to select the correct verb among the choices to form an appropriate ‘verb+noun’ collocation (see appendix 4). The third exercise was a ‘gap filling’ task where learners were provided with 11 gapped sentences in addition to a list
of collocations and instructed to match each collocation with where it belongs in a sentence (see appendix 4). All of the above-mentioned tasks covered a theme which is ‘academic writing’ and the reason behind that choice lies in the fact that it contributes in building the vocabulary needed in academic settings.

Session 4

In the last session of the treatment, the learners were provided with a short text entitled “courses and qualifications” which is retrieved from “McCarthy and O'Dell book, 2008, unit 17, p. 38” (see appendix 5), in addition to three short receptive collocation activities and a brief writing task. The chosen text was a good model for the students to be acquainted with because it contains some of the collocations which belong to the field of education.

At the very beginning, the students were asked to read the text and to focus on the highlighted collocations, then these collocations were explained for them so that they can learn them easily. After that, they were supposed to classify the aforementioned items into grammatical and lexical collocations. The given text was followed by a question which is related to the items involved in the text in which the students were asked to match each sentence with its appropriate ending. This question was added to make sure that the students obtained the preceding collocations (see appendix 5). Afterwards, students were provided with a short paragraph and asked to identify the collocations included within it. The aim of this task was to train the learners to notice and identify any type of collocations during the reading process (see appendix 5). The second activity was based on some grammatical and lexical collocations which belong to the field of education, each provided sentence includes three options of collocations and each option included a wrong collocation (see appendix 5). The objective of this activity was simply to explain the fact that some combined words can be used
together, but they cannot be considered as collocations. In the third activity, some of the common grammatical collocations have been mentioned in a set of sentences, these sentences have been gathered from different online sources, the students’ job was to choose the appropriate preposition that could form a correct grammatical collocation (see appendix 5). The fourth activity was based on some of the lexical collocations (intensiﬁed adverbs that collocate with some nouns) which have certain relation with the field of movies. The students were asked to cross out the options which are not suitable for forming a correct lexical collocation (see appendix 5). This activity was designed to make the learners aware of the fact that there are collocations which belong to speciﬁc ﬁelds. The last activity was a writing task, in which the students choose between two different topics. The main objective of this task was to ensure that the students are capable of using different collocations they have learned during this session (see appendix 5). Each writing task giving during the treatment was assessed to follow the students’ progress in collocation use.

3.4.3 Posttest

The last step was to perform the posttest, which aims at ﬁnding out if the students use enough collocations in their writing, and to investigate their collocational knowledge and more speciﬁcally to determine if teaching collocations has contributed to the improvement of the experimental group’s writing production. Therefore, 40 written works were collected from 2 groups (experimental and control group) of second year EFL students who major in English at Oum El Bouaghi University. Students were asked to write compositions on ‘career planning after graduation’ to discuss routes to take after graduation (see appendix 6). The compositions were done in class under the researcher’s supervision. The participants were asked to address such a topic in the hope that they use collocations that belong to the field of ‘education and careers’ since they encountered a considerable number of these themed collocations during the
treatment period. The written works were analyzed to find out whether the use of collocations contribute in improving writing production of the students (see appendix 6).

3.5 Description of Scoring Procedures

To assess the students’ writing products, the researcher scored both pre-post writing tests analytically by adopting Jacobs’s et al. scoring profile (1981). This scale depends on rating scripts on five aspects: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics (see appendix 7). Concerning the assessment of ‘vocabulary’ and ‘language use’ components, the researcher decided to mainly evaluate the collocations used in their writings since it is the ultimate focus of this study. The researcher first read the students’ writing samples which are administrated in the pre and the posttest, and manually spotted out all the possible collocations based on her intuition. The researcher judged whether a collocation was acceptable with the help of the BBI dictionary of English word combinations (Benson et al., 1986), Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Learners of English (Lea et al., 2002), and an online Oxford Collocations Dictionary. After that, the spotted word combinations were examined based on three aspects: frequency of occurrence, accuracy and appropriacy. That is to say, each of the frequency of occurrence which refers to a considerable amount of collocations that should be used by students to write productively, and the accurate formulation of grammatical, lexical and stylistic combination of words, as well as the proper use of collocations in the linguistic context were assumed but not measured.

The researcher has chosen this rubric over holistic rubrics because analytic rubrics are helpful in equipping the rater with useful diagnostic information about students’ writings (Weigle, 2002), they are also much more easier for unexperienced raters to use since they are based on evaluating specific textual features (Cohen, 1994; McNamara, 1996). And most importantly, the analytic profile of Jacobs et al. (1981) is suitable for the present study because
it takes into consideration the necessary features in writing and especially vocabulary which includes individual words and multiword units as collocations which are the main concerns of this study.

**Conclusion**

The section offered a detailed description of the research design that has been applied in the study that seeks to reveal the effect of teaching collocations on writing production of EFL learners. There was also a description of the participants, research setting, both measurement tools (the pre-test and the post-test) and content. The analysis and interpretation of findings and results of the students’ tests will be discussed in the next section.
Section Four: Discussion and Results

Introduction

The section introduces, analyses and discusses the findings of both pre-writing and post-writing tests. It aims at answering the research questions set in chapter one. And thus, to reject or confirm the hypothesis. The first research question tests the students’ level in writing production. The second research question investigates the extent to which collocations’ instruction affects students’ writing production. First, the chapter starts with analyzing and discussing the results of the control and the experimental group in the pre-writing test. Then, it presents the analysis and the discussion of both groups in the post-writing test. Finally, a conclusion summarizes all the findings obtained from the writing tests.
4.1 Analysis and Interpretation of Data

4.1.1 Control and Experimental Groups’ Scores in the Pretest

Table 3:

*Results and means of the control and experimental groups’ pretest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>4.5</td>
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<td>10.5</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>7.5</td>
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<td>4.5</td>
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</tr>
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<td>17</td>
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<td>7.5</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean Score \( \bar{X} = 5.8 \) \hspace{1cm} Mean Score \( \bar{X} = 6.1 \)
Figure 5: Control and Experimental Groups’ Results of the Pretest

Table 3 displays that the experimental group and the control were found to have similar levels in writing because their means are nearly the same. It shows that less than half of the students scored above 6 and more than half of them obtained a score under or equal to 6.5. Likewise, the control group recorded an average of $\bar{X} = 5.8$, while the experimental group obtained a mean of $\bar{X} = 6.1$. The means of both groups before the treatment demonstrate that the students’ writing production is approximately similar. To find out whether these two means are statistically different or not, an independent samples t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups’ mean scores on the pretest before conducting the study (see table 4).
The Independent Samples Test of the Pretest

Table 4:

*The independent samples test of the pretest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpaired t test</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>s_d</th>
<th>Std Error Mean</th>
<th>p value</th>
<th>Confidential interval 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control and Experimental Group-Pretest</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-1.471 to 0.771</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the t value of the pre-writing is t (38) = 0.6, p<0.05. It indicates that the differences between the participants’ mean scores in both the control and the experimental groups in the pretest are not significant. In addition, the p value (2.27) is greater than 0.05 which means that the variability in both groups is almost the same. In other words, there were no significant differences between the performances of participants in the control and the experimental groups in the pretest. Therefore, both groups are homogeneous regarding their writing production before the treatment.

**Discussion**

Students of both groups exhibited a poor performance in their pre-writing. While assessing the students writing, the researcher took into consideration the most important aspects of writing to the study including vocabulary and language use. These two aspects were most of the students’ weaknesses.

Concerning language use, students in both groups showed a poor knowledge of tenses and modals, for instance, they say: ‘I would started’, ‘I would made’, ‘it must changed’, ‘it is
help’, and ‘it is cancel’. Also, the sentences produced by the students are very long and not well-structured as well as they are dominated by errors of prepositions and overuse of articles.

Similarly, vocabulary items which are used in the students’ writing were limited and their writing was full of numerous “mis-collocations”, in which they associate words that basically do not go together resulting in the production of inappropriate collocations; such as, ‘obtain the support’ instead of ‘gain or win the support’, ‘expose my plan’ instead of ‘reveal my plan’, ‘apply a change’, ‘put a change’ and ‘do a change’ instead of ‘make a change’, ‘brain emigration’ instead of ‘brain drain’, ‘workless people’ instead of ‘unemployed people’, ‘eat pills’ instead of ‘take pills’, ‘enrich learning capacity’ instead of ‘increase, improve, expand learning capacity’, ‘do regulation’ instead of ‘make regulation’ and ‘meanwhile situations’ instead of ‘current situations’. As indicated, comparing the types of collocations that were more problematic than others, the researcher found that ‘verb-noun’ collocations constituted half of the mistakes, and therefore, they were more problematic. Substitution of a wrong preposition was also widespread in their writing, for instance, they write ‘governed under’ instead of ‘governed by’, ‘compared with’ instead of ‘compared to’, ‘apply in’ instead of ‘apply to’, ‘work in government’ instead of ‘work for government’, ‘run from time’ instead of ‘run out of time’, ‘acquainted on’ instead of ‘acquainted with’, ‘responsibility on’ instead of ‘responsibility for’. Markedly, omission of a function/content word within collocations was another recurrent problem found in the students’ writing, for example, ‘take the responsibility’ instead of ‘take on the responsibility’, ‘I will be up to your expectations’ instead of ‘I will live up to your expectations’, ‘focus’ instead of ‘focus on’, ‘put’ instead of ‘put down’. Moreover, the use of informal expressions such as ‘messed up’, ‘rock-bottom’ was also remarked in their essays. The researcher also observed that students significantly overused collocations such as ‘bad situations’, ‘make change’ and ‘good president’ while other collocations were underused,
in particular collocations that have adverbs within. Furthermore, some of the students’ essays lacked tremendously collocations in which three or less collocations were used despite the fact they might be accurate, the lack of these sequence might cause reduction in fluency. To conclude, almost all the collocations that have been employed in the students’ essays are either misused or mis-formed. This could be an indicator of learners’ low or limited knowledge of collocations.
### 4.1.2 Control Group’ Pretest-test versus Post-test Scores

Table 5:

*Results of the control group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Pre-test Scores</th>
<th>Post-test Scores</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>+1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td>5.5</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
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<td>3.5</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
</tr>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>+1.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>+0.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>+3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>+1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean Score: $\bar{X} = 5.8$  $\bar{X} = 5.9$  $\bar{d} = 0.1$
Figure 6: Results of the control group

Figure 6 shows that the students in the control group made no significant difference in their posttest scores. Table 5 demonstrates that ten students increased their score in the posttest by obtaining an extra 0.5 to 1.5 point. However, these improvements are not really remarkable because the students did not arrive at the average. Also, it is illustrated in the table that six students scored less in the posttest than in the pretest. This can be explained by the fact that these students have a poor knowledge of the written topic and thus their sentences were badly structured, also they did not produce any acceptable vocabulary items, especially collocations. Contrarily, there is a student who performed better in the posttest and got an extra of three points. In fact, this student scored highly in the posttest because she succeeded in using more correct collocations than she did in the pretest, for that her score concerning the collocation use is increased.

Results in table 5 showed that the students in the control group show no considerable improvement as they got a mean of $\bar{X} = 5.8$ in the pretest and $\bar{X} = 5.9$ in the post test while the
means’ difference is calculated to be equal to $\bar{d} = 0.1$. To assume that the means’ difference is not really significant, a paired samples t test was conducted.

**The Paired Samples Test of the Control Group**

Table 6:

*The paired samples test of the control group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>paired t test</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean $\bar{X}$</th>
<th>$t$ value</th>
<th>$s_d$</th>
<th>Std Error Mean</th>
<th>$p$ value</th>
<th>Confidential interval 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control Group-Pretest and posttest</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.3982</td>
<td>1.404</td>
<td>0.314</td>
<td>0.6949</td>
<td>-7.782 to 0.532</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that the $t$ value (0.3982) is less than the critical $t$ value (1.729) at 0.05 level of significance, also the calculated $p$ value (0.6949) is found to be larger than 0.05 which indicates that the results are not significant. These results indicate that the control group did not make a remarkable improvement.
### 4.1.3 Experimental Group’ Pretest-test versus Post-test Scores

Table 7:

*Results of the experimental group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Pre-test Scores</th>
<th>Post-test Scores</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>+3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>+2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>10.5</td>
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<td>+1.5</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mean Score**

\[ \bar{X} = 6.1 \quad \bar{X} = 8.8 \quad \bar{d} = 2.7 \]
Unlike the control group, the experimental group (as shown in figure 7), recorded a considerable improvement in their writing scores. Table 7 illustrates that all students except two gained high scores in the posttest compared to their performance in the pretest. The rate of score each student obtained can be classified into 5 categories. 30% of the students obtained from +3 to +3.5, 35% of them got from +2 to +2.5, 10% obtained +1.5, 15% represents three students who improved with a difference of +5 to +5.5, and the other 10% represents two students. One maintained the same score in both tests, while the other one, her score reduced with a difference of – 0.5. This denotes that these two students did not benefit from the period of treatment that is mainly based on collocation instruction. To make these findings clearly evident, the researcher made a comparison between the students’ score means in both tests. Thus, table 7 demonstrates that the experimental group arrived at an average of $\bar{X} = 6.1$ in the pretest while it achieved a high score mean of $\bar{X} = 8.8$ in the posttest. Calculating the two means difference gives $\bar{d} = 2.7$, this difference indicates that the students in the experimental group made a progressive improvement. The rise in the students’ writing level is noticeable in
the posttest. Even though, there was still a lack of the proper use of tenses, the sentences were clearly and precisely stated, well-structured and connected.

Regarding the use of collocations in the post-writing, the frequency of collocations went high compared to their pre-writing. Moreover, there was a positive result in achieving the accuracy of production of collocations; ‘a fulfilling job’, ‘a promising career’, ‘stimulating working environment’, ‘make a small fortune’, ‘a steady income’ ‘a permanent job’ ‘to embark on a career’ ‘sense of adventures’ are some of the mentioned collocations in their essays. Markedly, the amount of the possible misused and malformed collocations was reduced, that is to say, in the pretest, the researcher observed that they generated erroneous collocations such as ‘to give someone a job’, ‘work in the government’, ‘apply in job’, yet in the posttest they formed them correctly; ‘to offer someone a job’, ‘work for the government’ and ‘apply for job’, whereas ‘verb-noun’ collocations which was the most difficult type to deal with was improved impressively as they made use of collocations such as ‘to set targets’, go into partnership/business’, ‘to supervisor a work’, ‘earn a good salary’ and ‘start a career’. However, there was still a recognizable lack of the use of adverb combinations. Additionally, students expressed their ideas concisely by the use of collocations which played a part in reducing the use of simple and overused vocabulary. This outcome denotes that teaching collocations, including raising collocational awareness and imposing collocation use in writing, has an impact in improving their writing production. However, this claim cannot be proved unless it is validated by the paired samples test.
The Paired Samples Test of the Experimental Group

Table 8:

*The paired samples test of the experimental group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired t test</th>
<th>$Df$</th>
<th>Mean $\bar{X}$</th>
<th>$t$ value</th>
<th>$s_d$</th>
<th>Std Error Mean</th>
<th>$p$ value</th>
<th>Confidential interval 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group-Pretest and Posttest</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.725</td>
<td>7.9419</td>
<td>1.534</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
<td>-3.443 to -2.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After consulting a distribution table at $n-1$ degree of freedom, it has been revealed that the calculated $t$ value = 7.9 exceed the critical $t$ value = 1.729 at 0.05 level of significance. Also, it is mentioned in table 8 that the $p$ value (0.0001) is less than the 0.05 ($p$ value < 0.05) (see table 8). This result can allow us to accept the study’ hypothesis. In other words, the difference between the pre-posttest means of the experimental group is statistically significant. Thus, one can say that the students’ writing is improved due to the collocation instruction they received. In fact, the students could show a remarkable improvement in their writings, especially at the level of vocabulary use, whereas most of them became well aware of importance of collocations in enhancing writing style and facilitating the writing process. This awareness was clearly evident when they intended to use an adequate number of collocations accurately.
### 4.1.4 Control and Experimental Groups’ Scores in the Posttest

Table 9:

*Results and means of the control and experimental groups’ posttest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.5</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mean Score** \( \bar{X} = 5.9 \)  
**Mean Score** \( \bar{X} = 8.8 \)
As it is mentioned above in table 9, it seems clear that the experimental group with a mean of $\bar{X}=8.8$ outperformed the control group which recorded a score mean of $\bar{X}=5.9$. The table also demonstrates that the higher score obtained by the students in the control group is 9.5. In fact, only one student could get this mark while the other students’ marks are under 9.5. However, in the experimental group, the students succeeded in obtaining a high score of 12.5. This displays that the experimental group who received collocation-based instruction improved their writing production more than the control group who was under their usual circumstances. Though, the control group showed a kind of progress from the pretest $\bar{X}=5.8$ to the post test $\bar{X}=5.9$. This latter was not significant. Thus, it can be stated that the experimental group’s writing improved due to the treatment. Yet, it is not acceptable to rely only on the difference between the two means to confirm or to reject the study’s hypothesis. Indeed, the independent t test is the instrument that can give more validity to the data given from the comparison of the two means.
The Independent Test

The independent t test is carried out to determine whether the means’ difference between the two groups is statistically significant. Thus, since it has been hypothesized that collocations’ instruction has an impact on writing production, the stated hypothesis can be confirmed if the calculated t value is equal or larger than the critical t value.

Calculating the Variance (Standard Deviation)

Table 10:

_The standard deviation of the experimental group’s results_

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Control Group’s Scores</th>
<th>Diff (X - M)</th>
<th>Sq. Diff (X - M)^2</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Diff (X - M)</th>
<th>Sq. Diff (X - M)^2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>13.14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>4.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>-2.32</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0.62</td>
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<td>1.38</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>4.52</td>
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<td>-1.82</td>
<td>3.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>-4.38</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>-2.32</td>
<td>5.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>-4.32</td>
<td>18.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>10.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
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<td>-2.38</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>13.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-2.88</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>10.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
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<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>-0.38</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>2.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.12</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8.5</td>
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<td>6.89</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-2.88</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-1.82</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-0.88</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>-2.82</td>
<td>7.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Sample Variance of the Control Group

\( N_1: 20 \)
\( df_1 = N - 1 = 20 - 1 = 19 \)
\( M_1: 5.88 \)
\( SS_1: 74.94 \)
\( s^2_1 = SS_1 / (N - 1) = 74.94 / (20 - 1) = 3.94 \)

The Sample Variance of the Experimental Group

\( N_2: 20 \)
\( df_2 = N - 1 = 20 - 1 = 19 \)
\( M_2: 8.82 \)
\( SS_2: 93.14 \)
\( s^2_2 = SS_2 / (N - 1) = 93.14 / (20 - 1) = 4.9 \)

The T-Value

\[ s^2_p = \left( \frac{(df_1)(df_1 + df_2)}{(df_1 + df_2)} \right) \times s^2_1 + \left( \frac{(df_2)(df_2 + df_2)}{(df_2 + df_2)} \right) \times s^2_2 = ((19/38) \times 3.94) + ((19/38) \times 4.9) = 4.42 \]
\[ s^2_{M1} = s^2_p / N_1 = 4.42 / 20 = 0.22 \]
\[ s^2_{M2} = s^2_p / N_2 = 4.42 / 20 = 0.22 \]
\[ t = (M_1 - M_2) / \sqrt{(s^2_{M1} + s^2_{M2})} = -2.95 / \sqrt{0.44} = -4.44 \]
The Independent Samples Test of Posttest of the Experimental and Control Group

Table 11:

The independent samples test of the posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unpaired t test</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean $\bar{X}$</th>
<th>$t$ value</th>
<th>$s_d$</th>
<th>Std Error Mean</th>
<th>$p$ value</th>
<th>Confidential interval 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control and Experimental Group-Posttest</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>-4.4357</td>
<td>3.244</td>
<td>0.665</td>
<td>0.000038</td>
<td>-4.296 to 1.604</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After conducting the independent t test (see table 11), it has been found that the calculated $t$ value is ($-4.44$), the sign (-) is not considered in this case because the first mean is larger than the second mean. To evaluate the calculated $t$ value, it is necessary to consult the table of distribution at the level of $n_1+n_2-2$ degree of freedom, i.e., $(20+20-2=38)$ and at 0.05 level of significance. The critical $t$ value that corresponds to the level of $n_1+n_2-2$ degree of freedom is ($2.0244$). It sounds blatantly obvious that the $t$ value 4.44 is greater that the critical $t$ value 2.0244 at the level 0.05 of significance. Also, the $p$ value ($0.00004$) is less than 0.05 of significance, this suggests that the findings are statistically significant and the study’s hypothesis is confirmed.

Summary of the Results

The present study shows four main findings. First, the independent sample t test for the pretest demonstrates that the means of both groups were similar, the $p$ value was greater than 0.05 ($p=0.27>0.05$). Thus, we concluded that the selected sample is homogeneous. Second, the paired sample t test for the experimental group shows a significant change in results. Third, the paired sample t test for the control group showed no significant change in the pre post test.
results, and the p value was greater than 0.05 (p=0.69>0.05) which indicates that the results are not really significant. Finally, to prove that the experimental group outperformed the control group due to the treatment they received, a comparison between the post tests of both groups was done. The independent sample t test shows that there is a significant change between the two groups’ posttest means, it was statistically proved by the p value which was less than the 0.05 (p=0.00004<0.05). By the aforementioned results, we can confirm the study’s hypothesis which that teaching lexical and grammatical collocations has a positive impact on students’ writing production.
General Discussion

In the present study, an attempt was made to reveal the impact of teaching collocations on the writing production of second year LMD students enrolled in English department at L’arbi Ben Mhidi University. The analysis of the data has been validated through both the literature and the findings of this study. The study indicates that even a short explicit exposure to collocations has a positive effect on learners’ writing production. To restate this claim, the posttest performance serves as a clear evidence of the effectiveness of collocation instruction, in which the experimental group who received 4 weeks of exposure to collocation instruction outperformed the control group, this implies that the scores of the experimental group improved due to the effectiveness of the treatment. Therefore, the findings demonstrate that there is a relationship between the explicit teaching of collocations and writing production at the significant level of (0.05). It is important to note that the experimental group’s essays which were analyzed in this study revealed that the students’ writings before the treatment were inarticulate in terms of collocation use, this incoherence in one way has negatively affected the overall structure of sentences by making them lengthy and vague. However, after administrating the treatment, the intervention group’s knowledge of collocations increased, given that students in the post writing test used more lexical and grammatical collocations accurately in their essays. Ultimately, the study’s results are partly in accordance with previous conducted studies including that of Seesink (2007) and Abdaoui (2010) which are similar to the results that are obtained from our study. Seesink’s study (2007) concluded that the attention that is directed to collocations has a positive impact on the students’ writing. Additionally, Abdaoui (2010) in her study came up with a positive result about the impact of collocations’ teaching on writing, in fact, she emphasized the explicit teaching of collocations and her ultimate outcome showed a strong linear correlation between writing proficiency and
the use of collocations. In this regard, the researcher reached the conclusion that exposing learners to a considerable amount of collocations through implementing a diversity of collocation tasks in EFL classrooms is proved to be an effective method to use during an academic writing course, and thus it might help students to write more productively and communicate their writing more fluently and more accurately. In the light of what has been discussed above, the results of the present study support the claim that an adequate mastery of collocations results in the improvement of writing production.

**Conclusion**

The key aim of the present study was to determine the extent to which grammatical and lexical collocations teaching can improve L2 learners writing production. Results indicate that the explicit teaching of collocations appears to be a significant teaching method which contributes towards having a positive effect on second year LMD English students’ writing production. Apparently, the use of collocations in writing can be taken as an indicator of reasonable competence in writing production. With that being said, it can be concluded that focusing on collocations during an academic writing course might help students to write more productively. Therefore, the category of collocations in L2 teaching/learning deserves a special attention from researchers and language instructors.

**Limitations of the Study**

Like any other research, the present study has encountered a number of limitations. To start with time constraints, the researcher is only left with short period to conduct the study and to reveal the impact of the used method. In fact, the treatment period composed only of 4 sessions which are relatively insufficient to raise the students’ awareness about collocations and to make use of these word combinations in their writing since they should spend more
time and exert more efforts to reach a competent level of collocational knowledge. The period of treatment was also hampered by other obstacles, like the notable absence of the students which led the researcher to eliminate those who were absent in the pretest. Hence, the sample size was reduced and only 40 students from a population of 210 participated in the study. Thus, this number of students may not be representative for the whole population.

Another problem was the inevitable delay of the treatment period because this period witnessed the presidential elections, the students’ long strike, then the unplanned holiday. Thus, only a pretest and two sessions took place before the holiday, while the posttest and the other two sessions were held after a long period. For that, it might be said that this delay affected the students’ memory retention of the instructions they received in the previous sessions of the treatment. Consequently, it can constrain the ultimate results of the study. At the end, some students in the control group showed a kind of carelessness, inactivity and lack of cooperation when they were asked to write an essay which made it difficult for the researcher to assess their papers.

**Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions for Further Research**

Raising the students’ awareness about collocations helped greatly the researcher to prove that the explicit teaching of collocations is effective enough to improve writing production. In the light of this outcome, it seems reasonable to suggest that the explicit teaching of collocations has to be involved in English teaching curricula. In an attempt to clarify this suggestion, special focus has to be given to teaching vocabulary as a separate module in order to devote special attention to collocations, of which collocations are an important component of vocabulary. In addition to that, collocations teaching/learning is not an easy task for both teachers and students, indeed, it requires a long time for the teachers to design and collect the necessary materials and the appropriate methods to teach collocations,
as it takes time for the students to learn and be well familiar with these items. Moreover, it would be of great help to call for more emphasis on collocations when teaching writing. This can be done through adopting the mixed genre/product approach to teaching writing because this approach is mainly based on modelled texts. Thus, it would be helpful for the teacher to take advantage of this approach by drawing the learners’ attentions to the widely used collocations in these texts and make it easier for them to grasp the meaning as well as the correct use of these items through context. In doing so, learners will be able to write effectively and their writings would sound natural and native-like. However, learning this type of combined words requires a great deal of practice through a variety of exercises and written tasks to guarantee the students’ correct use of these items. Eventually, it is very important for the teacher to emphasize on the use of collocation dictionaries and encourage the students to make use of them to be well acquainted with various collocations, then to store the learned collocations in a lexical notebook to be easy to recall them.

In the present study, the researcher proved the effectiveness of the explicit teaching of collocations upon students’ writing production. Further research can be conducted to test the impact of teaching vocabulary through collocations. Furthermore, other researchers can make use of this method to investigate its effect on other language skills, such as speaking ability and reading comprehension.
Bibliography


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H. Gyllstad (Eds.), *Researching collocations in another language* (pp. 224-231). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.


Appendices

Appendix 1: Sample Test of the Pretest

You have been elected President of Algeria. What three things could you realistically do as President, why would we need those changes, and how would they affect the country?

Discuss in a form of a composition, (about 25 lines)

All the Algerians have a dream to become a long-term president? However, this goal need to be realized by doing changes. What are needed to prove the effectiveness through your being President of Algeria must follow basic future plans. First, it will provide the educational minister with higher foundation and offer a better conditions for living for example, include technology in all the systems, and following the world’s final trends and why not make the credibility of our nation’s hand more powerful among societies!
On the other hand, I see with these changes, there will be a true answer to all questions, and live to my people's expectations of real answers to overcome all the difficulties that my nation suffers from in comparison to others. The nation that has to restrict immigration.

In addition, a change in a political position as needed to clarify, I'll make sure to replace all members of the parliament with qualified members, ensuring education, schools will be provided with basic needs such as security to produce advanced students and will be able to represent Algeria in broad contexts.

To develop students...
Appendix 2: First Lesson

**Plans and Decisions**

As you know, for some time now we’ve **been toying with ideas** of transferring all our business to Internet-only sales as a **long-term solution** to the problem of finding good retail outlets. You’ll remember that at the last team meeting Rob **unveiled a plan** to move the line to the web in three phases over nine months. And Philippa a great job **drumming up support** for the move among the sales and marketing people. Since then, as you also know, we’ve had a **slight change of plan**, and, **acting on suggestion** from the logistics team, we’ve now decided that the move should happen over 12 months. In order to **implement** such a **plan**, we need to **draw up a schedule** and **stick to that schedule**. So, I’d like to make a **tentative suggestion**. Before we **launch the scheme**, I think we should invite the web designers to come here and take us through the process from their side. That will give us the opportunity to **exercise greater control** over things. I don’t think we should just **leave** everything **to their discretion**. I’m just aware of how important it’s going to be to **cover every eventuality** before we commit 100% to the internet. We propose to end our relationship with the garden centers where we currently sell. We’ve reached this decision **after careful consideration**. We do believe that realistically it’s the only **option open to us**. The deciding factor was losing our biggest customer_ The Greenway garden center chain. After that, we really had no choice.

* McCarthy and O'Dell book: English Collocations in Use (Advanced), 2008, unit 28, p. 60

**Task**

Read the text above carefully and pay attention to the highlighted collocations.

Selecting a career is the most important decision in a person’s life. Choose 5 collocations from the text and try to write a **paragraph** about how do you plan to achieve your career goals and aspirations?
Exercise 1

Read the following sentences carefully and circle the correct preposition in each collocation among the choices to form meaningful sentences.

EXAMPLE: She received approval on / for / about the proposal from the shareholders.

1. Do you have any interest for / in / on doing a study abroad program?
2. He gave a speech at / on / to the dangers of texting and driving
3. I really admire her dedication about / for / to animal rights.
4. Most people have little awareness at / from / of world events.
5. I’d like some information about / by / of the software.
6. There are high taxes at / on / over imported products.
7. Eighteen is the age in / for / at which you’re allowed to vote.
8. The policeman accused him about / with / of breaking into / in / of the house, but he said he could prove he had been somewhere else.
9. She had an argument at / to / with her friend and she’s still angry.
10. That company has a reputation by / from / for bad customer service.

* https://youtu.be/ghCfJgkv9Sw

Exercise 2

Read the sentences below and choose the collocation which best fits each gap from the list below.

Second thoughts  Political parties  Residential area  Panoramic view
Capital punishment  Budget accommodation  Luxury hotels  False limbs
Middle class  Fast food  Fine arts

1. Are you having ................. about coming to Brighton with me?
2. The most dominant ................. in the US are the Democratic and the Republican.
3. I can’t aff ord to stay in .......... I always have to look for .................
4. McDonald's is the largest ................. advertiser in the US.
5. The term ................. is used to refer to the visual arts such as painting and architecture.
6. Although there were no executions, the state reestablished ………….. in 1982.
7. China hopes to grow its ………….. to more than half of its total population by 2020.
8. Fixing ………….. has now become possible.
9. It was mainly a quiet ………….. with many family homes and a few businesses.
10. From the top floor restaurant diners have a ………….. of the countryside.

**Exercise 3**

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate grammatical collocation following the meaning in the parenthesis.

1. They s………. u… a bomb in the busy marketplace. (to cause explode)
2. A drunk driver c………. i…… a tree near my house. (to bump or ram into someone or something accidentally or roughly)
3. As Jack went on stage to receive his gold medal for the judo competition you could see his parents sw………. w…… pride (looking extremely proud)
4. He's racist – he dis………. ag……. black and Hispanic people (to impose limitations on a particular group for prejudicial reasons)
5. Her younger son t………. a…… his new toys because he wants to see what is inside. (to disconnect the parts of something, disassemble something)
6. We’ve been talking about this for over an hour now, let’s m………. o… to another topic. (to pass to another thing)
7. Olivia also ar………. f…… a meeting with the school board to petition them to add Dance as an official physical education class. (to organize or plan something)
8. Why did he t………. d…… such a nice job offer? (to dismiss, reject, spurn, or refuse something)
9. I hate talking to Ronald because he's always bo………. ab…… how much money he makes. (to talk about something arrogantly)
10. We ordered pizza and two hamburgers, and the bill c………. t… $40. (to total).
## Appendix 3: Second Lesson

Learning a language **typically involves** not only memorizing a bunch of new words, but also studying its native country’s culture and history, **penetrate into** its contemporary context, following its evolution. Believe it or not, but your native language has shaped your personality in the same way your parents and surroundings have. Logically, the more you acquire languages, the more diverse and profound of a person you can become; by understanding paradigms different from yours, you can broaden your outlook and become more open-minded; you will be able to read between the lines, and get rid of **communication breakdown** with other people not just in a regular—verbal—way, but in the dimension of gestures, circumlocutions, allegories, etc. You can view it as adopting and integrating a new personality in your mind, which occurs every time you **dig deeper into** a new language. Of course, there are more pragmatic and less philosophical reasons to begin studying foreign languages. Since ancient times, people who could communicate with foreigners have been highly privileged. Commerce, diplomacy, and **cultural exchange** in addition to the exchange of views would be difficult or even impossible if there were no people able to converse with the representatives of other countries. Nowadays, the situation has not changed much, even despite the existence of numerous computer-assisted translation tools. Try **conducting business correspondence** with a Japanese company using only Google Translate or any of the more advanced tools, and you will realize how inferior they are compared to a **professional translator**. Considering that nowadays there are many companies export their business abroad, the demand for **sufficiently qualified people** speaking at least one foreign language is **extremely high**. Even if you will not be **travelling around** the world all the time, you will still be more valued at work. Besides, it will be easier for you to **apply for** job in a different country. Besides, being able to speak a foreign language can **save** you a lot of **money** and/or **time**. If you are a regular English-speaking tourist, you have two options to get to your destination from the airport: either by a shuttle, or by taxi, which can cost you a fortune. However, when talking to people in the airport, you can rather often **find an alternative**; for example, you can learn about a cheaper local bus, or you can **run into** a person who will agree to **drive** you **up** to the city for free, or for a considerably lower sum of money than a taxi. This works effectively in underdeveloped countries, where locals are eager to earn some extra coin. Learning foreign languages is highly beneficial for personal development. Not only does it allow you to **assimilate** other **cultures** and mentalities, but it also enriches your personality with new outlooks, makes you more open-minded—which is **extremely valuable** nowadays. Besides, speaking at least one foreign language can significantly improve your travelling experience, help you **make** **new friends** from abroad, and go into business. In addition, professionals who speak foreign languages are more valued by their companies, and often **get a chance** to work in different countries.

* [https://academichelp.net/samples/academics/essays/persuasive/start-learning-foreign-language.html](https://academichelp.net/samples/academics/essays/persuasive/start-learning-foreign-language.html)
Exercise 1

Read the sentences below and choose the lexical collocation which best fits each gap from the list below.

Rigid attitude  Narrow escape  Occupational hazard  Heavy rain
Moral obligation  Public opinion  Severe pressure  White lie  Skip lectures
Annual turnover  Unsolicited advice  Attend class  Do homework

1. The forecaster predicted with .................... and strong winds during the afternoon storm.

2. Everyone knows that a .................... is sometimes necessary in a time of crisis.

3. He had a .................... from gunfire.

4. In college, students may .............. if they choose and refer to the syllabus to acquire missed assignments or tests.

5. Politicians are trying to influence .................... on the topic.

6. We are under .................... to reduce the wage bill and make 500 workers redundant.

7. Scott talked to me last night. He gave me a lot of .................... about how to run the department.

8. We have a .................... to protect the environment.

9. If students .... their ........... it is to their advantage; if they do not, the students are not forced to submit it.

10. In high school, students must ............ to get assignments and individual help in a certain area.

11. Eye strain is an .................... if you work in front of a computer.

12. Why does he have such a .................... ? If he were more flexible, I’m sure we could come to some kind of agreement.

13. The company had an .................... of new liturgy introduced in 2011.
Exercise 2

Fill in the gaps with the appropriate grammatical collocation following the meaning given between brackets.

1. When she saw her exam results, Kate b………i…… tears. (Suddenly started crying)

2. Eight people were injured when a bus …co …w… a car. (To accidentally strike or crash into someone or something)

3. I’m sorry I can’t drive all the way to school, but I can …dr……… you o… at the bus stop if you like. (To drive someone to a place)

4. Please …st ………b… Our operators are busy at the moment. (To remain uninvolved; refrain from acting)

5. The police never found the robber. He g………a…… with his crime. (To evade or escape someone or something)

6. Are there any special issues you would like to …b……u…… at the meeting tomorrow? (To introduce into discussion, mention)

7. The rescue teams ca………o… the search temporarily because of the storm. (To cancel or postpone)

8. After he has quit from the industry company, Mr. Pok has now g……… The tourism business (to start a career in)

9. John is a rude boy, he was …ex ………f…… university for using drugs. (To send or force someone from a place or area).

10. The troops had p……… deep… I… enemy lines (to succeed in entering an organization, especially when this is difficult to do).

Writing task

In a short paragraph list the importance of learning foreign languages. Try to use some of the collocations (lexical and grammatical) you have learned from the text and the exercises.
Appendix 4: Third Lesson

**Academic writing**

**Reinforcing arguments**
Look at these extracts from university lectures and note the collocations.

The book *The Eye of the Universe* **draws an analogy**\(^{(1)}\) between the birth of the universe and a lottery. It also **draws parallels**\(^{(2)}\) between the formation of new stars and the birth and death of flowers. It **presents the case for** a complete rethinking of how we understand space. The author, Patrick Rivaux, **puts forward the argument** that the universe is as it is because we humans are here looking at it. The author **takes up / adopts the position** that the universe cannot have any beginning or end and **states** his **opinion** that we can never understand the universe using the human ideas of time and space. He **argues convincingly**\(^{(3)}\) that the universe has a unique nature. He **draws attention to** new **research** which **suggests** that other universes may also exist alongside ours. He **briefly summarizes**\(^{(4)}\) the views of leading physicists and mathematicians, **disagrees profoundly**\(^{(5)}\) with some of them and **draws the conclusion** that science alone cannot solve the mystery of the universe.

1 makes a comparison between things which have similar features, to help explain an idea
2 says that something is very similar to something else
3 argues in a way that makes people believe that something is true or right
4 expresses the most important ideas in a short and clear form
5 disagrees very strongly or in an extreme way

* McCarthy and O'Dell book: *English Collocations in Use* (Intermediate), 2005, unit 33, p. 70

**Writing Task**

Read the text above carefully and pay attention to the **highlighted collocations**.

Choose **5 collocations** from the text and use them to form **5 sentences**.
Exercise 1

Read the sentences below and choose the collocation which best fits each gap from the list below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>draw a distinction</th>
<th>significant contribution</th>
<th>strenuously defends</th>
<th>groundbreaking research</th>
<th>lend support to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gives an account</td>
<td>provides evidence</td>
<td>support the claim</td>
<td>concise summary</td>
<td>come under attack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lays emphasis on</td>
<td>touches on issues</td>
<td>to assess the significance</td>
<td>goes into great detail</td>
<td>lend support to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>establish a connection</td>
<td>take into consideration</td>
<td>irrefutable proof</td>
<td>powerful arguments</td>
<td>hold firmly to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>played a central role</td>
<td>significant trends</td>
<td>shape our thinking</td>
<td>raises important questions</td>
<td>commit plagiarism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Many studies have attempted ................ of diet in the prevention of cancer.
2. Wastov .................. examining the vital first three years of a child’s development.
3. These statistics .................. the view that attitudes to the environment are changing fundamentally.
4. Some economists .................. the belief that a certain level of unemployment is inevitable.
5. We need to .................. the economic history of Latin American as a whole.
6. In this chapter, I .................. between societies where democracy has developed slowly and those where it came about quickly or suddenly.
7. Chapter 3 .................. important .................. about the need for transport planning in rapidly growing urban environments. It also .................. such as pollution.
8. In 1998, Lucas Georgescu published the results of his .................. on genetics. His latest paper also makes a .................. to the field. He sets out some .................. which will .................. for years to come.
9. Partridge .................. her theory, which has .................. recently in several journals. She argues that the Prime Minister .................. in the political crisis of 1811 and .................. to support her argument.
10. Nathan Peel attempts to ………………. between mobile phone use and physical damage to users’ brains, but he does not offer ………………. and the statics do not show any ……………….

11. In this latest book, Marina Kass ………………. of Karl Marx’s philosophy and ………………. to ………………. that Garpov seriously misinterpreted Marx. In addition, the book offers a ………………. of the present state of Marxist philosophy.

12. It is important in academic writing always to acknowledge your sources. If you fail to do this, you will ………………. (use another person’s idea or a part of their work and pretend that is your own).

Exercise 2

Choose the correct collocation.

1. This paper proposes / presents / offers the case for the complete revision of the theory.
2. Recent research hints / explains / suggests that Jackson’s theory of economic development is flawed.
4. The writer of the article explains / states / declares his opinion very clearly.
5. The article concludes by briefly / shortly / precisely summarizing the main points that the author wishes to put across.
6. The writer does / draws / creates some interesting parallels between life now and life in the Middle Ages.
7. I keep / take / hold firmly to my belief in the importance of basic human rights.
8. The book rises / arises / raises some key questions but fails to deal with them in a satisfactory manner.
**Exercise 3**

Match each sentence from column A with each word from column B by filling the gap with the correct number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Just because he doesn’t devote all his time to you, doesn’t mean he doesn’t _______ care about you.</td>
<td>1. Painfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. “They have a bunch of great vintage furniture shops, and it was _______ cheap” he said.</td>
<td>2. Wildly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Harry was _______ unaware that he was in danger.</td>
<td>3. Downright</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Joe’s sister was a _______ attractive woman</td>
<td>4. Blissfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. When I was a kid I was _______ shy, so it was hard for me to make friends.</td>
<td>5. Ridiculously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. I wonder what she will do when she finds out he is_______ exaggerated how rich he really is.</td>
<td>6. Deeply</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Alfredo Scaluzzi’s new film is_______based on a nineteenth-century novel.</td>
<td>7. Faintly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. This topic is _______controversial and very difficult.</td>
<td>8. Stunningly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Ms. Giroa said she regarded reports that she was about to seek a divorce as _______ridiculous.</td>
<td>9. Thoroughly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. It was (downright) rude of Antonio to tell Paula that she looked older than her own mother, I hope he feels _______Ashamed.</td>
<td>10. Loosely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Highly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. ………</td>
<td>e. ………</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. ………</td>
<td>f. ………</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. ………</td>
<td>g. ………</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ………</td>
<td>h. ………</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 5: Fourth Lesson

Courses and qualifications

When she was a small child, Amelia’s teachers identified her as having an acute intelligence and remarkable mental agility, they put her on a special program for gifted children. Amelia won a scholarship to attend a local grammar school by the age of eighteen, she was a straight student and she secured a place at one of the country’s most prestigious seats of learning to read English literature. In the first academic year of the English literature program, the core subjects were the development of the novel and the contemporary poetry, Amelia had a large number of set texts to read. It was hard work but she loved it. Her professors were all distinguished scholars and her courses were taught by some of the world’s leading authorities in the field. She completed her studies with a considerable success and graduated from university last year. In the meantime, her parents have decided that it is time they made up for their lack of formal education and they have signed up for a number of evening courses. Eventually, they hope to meet the entry requirements for the university entrance and to be able to complete a degree as a mature student.

*McCarthy and O’Dell book: English Collocations in Use (Advanced), 2008, unit 17, p.38

Exercise 1

B/ match the following sentences with their appropriate endings.

1. We were all very impressed by the student’s …… a. formal education
2. My grandmother is very intelligent but she had a little …… b. quick learner
3. Your little girl has shown herself to be a very …… c. entry requirement
4. I hope to study there but I may not be able to meet the …… d. set texts
5. For the first year Shakespeare exam, we had to read six …… e. mental agility

*(McCarthy and O’Dell: 2005, exercise 1 p.39)*

Exercise 2

C/ read the following paragraph then try to identify the collocations included by underlying them.

My friend Beth is desperately worried about her son at the moment. He wants to enroll on a course of some sort but just can’t make a decision about what to study. I gave Beth a ring and
we **had a long chat** about it last night. She said he'd like to study for a degree but is afraid he won't **meet the requirements** for university **entry**. Beth thinks he should **do a course** in Management because he'd like to **set up** his own business in the future. I agreed that that would be a **wise choice**.

* (**McCarthy and O'Dell: 2005, Exercise 2.1 p 9**)

**Exercise 3**

Cross out the incorrect options (the are more than one correct answer)

1. He got full/ maximum/ top marks in the listening test.
2. We have to do/ make/ write a vocabulary test every Friday.
3. How many students have enrolled on/ signed up for / undertaken the course.
4. He suffers badly from exam nerves/ stress/ worries which affects his concentration length/ span/ time.
5. The teacher made up / set/ wrote a difficult exam but checked/ corrected / marked it leniently.
6. We were supposed to do / compose/ write the essay by Friday but I delivered it / gave it in / handed it in late.


**Exercise 4**

Read the sentences below and circle the correct preposition in each collocation from the choices to form meaningful sentences.

1. She did a translation into / in / on English of some ancient Chinese poems.
2. You definitely have a talent about / for / with learning language.
3. The police inquiry in / into / on the theft continues.
4. She didn’t give a reason as / for / of her refusal.
5. He’s about to graduate with degree in / of / at finance.

* [https://youtu.be/ghCfJgkv9Sw](https://youtu.be/ghCfJgkv9Sw)
Exercise 5

Cross out the options which cannot be used in each sentence

1. Alla Repina has a high/considerable/well-deserved reputation as a character actor
2. The all-star / star-studded/starring cast is set to make the film a box – office success
3. My cousin highly /spectacularly/thoroughly recommended the play
4. The plot is based on an extraordinary series/burst/chain of events that happened in New York in the early 1800s
5. The stage sets were strongly/highly / heavily influenced by the work of the surrealist artist, Salvador Dali.
6. The film made a consummate /lasting/indelible impression on me
7. He has been deeply /actively / strongly involved in politics for thirty years, he knows more about parliament.
8. I am bitterly / fully/ pretty aware that there are serious problems with the project we are going to deliver
9. He was very / well /deeply acquainted with the literature of France, Germany and Holland.


Exercise 6

Choose one of the following topics:

1/ Write a short paragraph describing a movie that u have watched and made an impression on you. Use some of the collocations you have learned from exercises.

(Colloctions: indelible impression, thoroughly recommended, considerable reputation, revolves around, come out, heavily influenced…).

2/ In a short paragraph describe a gifted person that you know. Who succeeded to go abroad for studying, and how did he get the chance to go there? Use (lexical and grammatical) collocations that you have learned from the text.
Career planning is a long-life process encompasses the stages involved in discovering a career path, including self-assessment, decision making, job searching, and accepting a job offer. In a brief essay, discuss whether applying for a Master’s degree is the best next step for you. Second, do you think graduates with English degree have the best chances of getting a job? And finally, what are your plans after graduation?

Every one has his or her own goals in life. Thus, life aims at achieving them. But first, one may need to implement a fixed plan because it makes the rest easier. So, being interested in having a Master’s degree is a good step for getting a high-salared job. Also, it can open up new barriers to success for students.

First, Master’s degree is one of the main levels in the university job. It is a key for having a brilliant future. Because it is not easy for everyone to apply for Master’s degree because it demands hard work and careful preparation. In addition, it needs an implementation of a plan. For instance, making a promise to get a high mark in all courses. First, one should study try to be diligent for the following year when being accepted as English Master student because it will give him student more
chances as winning a scholarship and study abroad.

Second, applying for English Master degree is one of the options open to straight students to start a noble career like teaching which is a high-powered job and can guarantee you of not a good salary a steady income for the whole life.

To conclude, Master degree application is one of the high-term solution for good students it helps in having a brilliant career and having a generous life.
## Appendix 7: The Scoring Rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing features</th>
<th>Rating Score</th>
<th>Description of the features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Content**      | 2 points     | • Knowledgeable vs. little knowledge of the topic.  
|                  |              | • Substantive vs. adequate range.  
|                  |              | • Thorough development vs. limited development of thesis.  
|                  |              | • Relevant to assigned topic vs. relevant but lacks details.  |
| **Organization** | 2 points     | • Fluent expressions vs. non-fluent or choppy expressions.  
|                  |              | • Ideas clearly stated vs. ideas confused or disconnected.  
|                  |              | • Logic sequencing vs. incomplete sequencing.  |
| **vocabulary**   | 5 points     | • Sophisticated range vs. limited range.  
|                  |              | • Effective word choice vs. little knowledge of vocabulary.  
|                  |              | • Appropriate use of collocations vs. inappropriate use of collocation  
|                  |              | • High frequency of collocations vs. low frequency of collocations  |
|                  |              | • Complex sentence construction vs. Simple or no mastery of sentence |
Language use  3 points

- Few errors of tense, word order, articles, pronouns and prepositions vs. dominant errors.
- Accurate knowledge of combined words (collocation) vs. inaccurate knowledge of combined words.

Mechanics  2 points

- Frequent vs. dominated errors of spelling, punctuation and capitalization.
- Legible vs. illegible handwriting.

Jacobs et al. scoring profile (1981)

Appendix 8: The Experiment’s Schedule

Schedule of the Treatment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data collection procedure</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>04-02-2019</td>
<td>1h30min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Session</td>
<td>06-02-2019</td>
<td>1h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Session</td>
<td>17-02-2019</td>
<td>1h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Session</td>
<td>15-05-2019</td>
<td>1h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Session</td>
<td>17-05-2019</td>
<td>1h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>22-05-2019</td>
<td>1h30min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Résumé

La présente étude a pour objectif d’examiner l’effet de l’enseignement des collocations sur l’amélioration de la production écrite des apprenants d’anglais comme langue étrangère. Les données de cette étude ont été recueillies auprès de quarante étudiants de deuxième cycle d’anglais à l’Université L’arbi Ben Mhidi. Dans cette étude, on a présumé qu’un cours explicite des collocations améliorerait leur production écrite. Afin de vérifier cette hypothèse, vingt participants ont été choisis pour former le groupe témoin, les vingt autres font partie du groupe expérimental. Un exercice d’écriture a été effectué comme un pré-test afin d’examiner la production écrite des apprenants et de mesurer leur connaissance de la collocation à travers leur rédaction. Les résultats tirés du test préliminaire des deux groupes ont montré une faible performance en production écrite et une connaissance limitée des collocations. Après cela, un cours explicite sur les collocations a été effectué avec le groupe expérimental, dans le but d’augmenter leur connaissance en matière de collocation ce qui aboutirait à l’amélioration de leur production écrite. Après le traitement, un test final a été réalisé avec les deux groupes : expérimental et témoin. Les résultats du test-t des échantillons appariés ont montré que le groupe ayant reçu un apprentissage basé sur les taches des collocations était plus performant que le groupe témoin ; les scores d’écriture du groupe expérimental étaient remarquablement supérieurs à ceux du groupe témoin. Cela signifie que la présentation explicite des collocations a aidé les étudiants dans l’usage correct et naturel des collocations dans leurs écritures. Par conséquent, les résultats finaux de l'expérience ont prouvé le rendement de l'enseignement des collocations dans les classes d'écriture d'anglais comme langue étrangère, confirmant ainsi l’hypothèse.

Mots clés : collocations grammaticales, collocations lexicales, la production écrite, l’anglais comme une langue étrangère.
ملخص

تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى البحث عن تأثير التدريس المعتمد للمتلازمة النقطية على نتائج الكتابة لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، تم طرح الفرضية في هذه الدراسة وتمثلت في أن التدريس المفصل للمتلازمة النقطية مثلاً أآن يحسن نتائج متابعة الطلاب، لغرض فحص هذه الفرضية والوصول إلى نتائج إعتماداً على المنهج شبه تجريبي، وعينة من الطلبة حجمها أربعين طالب من طلاب السنة الثانية لجامعة العربي بن مهدي، عشورون طالب كمجموعة ضابطة أما العشرون طالب المتقصية تم تعيينهم كمجموعة تجريبية، قبل تطبيق التجربة تم تكليف الطلاب بكتابة نص كاختبار أولي لمعرفة مستوى في وحدة قياس الكتابة وكدواقياس معرفتهم عن المتلازمات النقطية في سياق كتاباتهم، وكانت نتائج الاختبار الأولي لدى المجموعتين الطلابتين تدل على مستوى ضعيف في وحدة قياس الكتابة من ضمنها معرفة محدودة للمتلازمات النقطية، بعد ذلك أُخضعت المجموعة التجريبية للتدرس الذي يعتمد على المتلازمات النقطية بشكل مفصل بمحاولة زيادة معرفة هذه المتلازمات النقطية لدى الطلاب لغرض التحسين عن كتاباتهم، بعد المعالجة الإحصائية لنتائج الاختبارات البدعي المماثل للإختبار الأولي لدى المجموعتين من خلال اختبار (تي) توضح أن المجموعة التي تلقى تعليمات خاصة بالمتلازمات النقطية تفوق على المجموعة الضابطة، حيث أن نتائج المجموعة التجريبية في مستوى وحدة قياس الكتابة كان أعلى بشكل ملحوظه من نتائج مستوى وحدة قياس الكتابة للمجموعة الضابطة، هذا النتائج وضح أن التدريس المفصل للمتلازمات النقطية ساعد الطلاب على استخدام المتلازمات النقطية بشكل مكث وسليم طبيعي في كتاباتهم، لذلك فإن النتائج النهائية للتجربة أكدت تأثير المتلازمات النقطية للغة الإنجليزية بشكل إيجابي على الإنتاج الكتابي لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية. وبذلك فإن النظرية المطرحه تم تأكيدها.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المتلازمات النقطية، المتلازمات النقطية الفاحية، الإنتاج الكتابي، اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية.