REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECT OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL LEARNERS' COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2019

REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECT OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL LEARNERS' COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Supervisor : Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ
Jury Member : Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ
Jury Member : Assist. Prof. Dr. Adnan BİÇER

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2019

To Çukurova University Institute of Social Sciences

We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ

Member of Examining Committee: Prof. Dr. Şehnaz ŞAHİNKARAKAŞ

Member of Examining Committee: Assist. Prof. Dr. Adnan BİÇER

I certify that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.

/ /2019

Prof. Dr. Serap ÇABUK

Director of Institute

Note: The uncited usage of reports, charts, figures and photographs in this thesis, whether or original quoted from other sources, is subject to the Laws of Works of Art and Thought NO:5846.

Not: Bu tezde kullanılan özgün ve başka kaynaktan yapılan bildirişlerin, çizelge, sekil ve fotoğrafların kaynak gösterilmeden kullanımı, 5846 Sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserler Kanunu'ndaki hükümlere tabidir.

ETİK BEYANI

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmasında;

- Tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi,
- Tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu,
- Tez çalışmasında yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi,
- Kullanılan verilerde ve ortaya çıkan sonuçlarda herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı,
- Bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu,

bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim. …. / …. / 2019

Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

ÖZET

AÇIK VE ÖRTÜK ÖĞRETİMİN ORTAOKUL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN EŞDİZİMLİLİK BİLGİSİ ÜZERİNE ETKİ FARKI

BURCU YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Dr. Öğrt. Üyesi Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ
Ağustos 2019, 141 sayfa

Bu çalışma, açık (explicit) ve örtük (implicit) öğretimin sekizinci sınıf öğrencilerinin hedef sözcük türü olan sıfatların eşdizimlilik bilgileri üzerindeki etki farkını araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Araştırma; ön test, son test ve gecikmeli son testi kapsayan yarı deneysel bir çalışma modeline göre yürütülmüştür. İlk olarak, öğrencilerin sözcük düzeylerini belirlemek amacıyla "Genel Yeterlilik Testi (*The Second Version of Quick Placement Test;* Syndicate, 2004) uygulanmıştır. Gruplar, karşılaştırma ve deney grubu olmak üzere iki gruba ayrılmıştır. Karşılaştırma grubu 11'i erkek, 10'u kız öğrenci olmak üzere toplamda 21 öğrencidir. Deney grubu ise 14'ü erkek, 7'si kız olmak üzere toplamda 21 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Çalışma, 2 üniteyi kapsamaktadır ve haftalık 4 saat olmak üzere toplamda 10 haftalık bir öğretim programı üzerine oluşturulmuştur. Bu 10 haftanın 6 haftası eğitim programına, 1 haftası ön teste, 1 haftası son test ve 2 hafta sonra uygulanmak üzere 1 haftası da gecikmeli son teste ayrılmıştır. Ünite başında her iki grup için ön test uygulanmıştır. Öğretim boyunca her iki gruba da sıfat + isim eşdizimlilikleri öğretilmiştir. Eşdizimlilik oluşturulurken, öğrencilerin ders kitaplarında geçen belirli bir ünite temel alınarak bu sıfatlar ve bu sıfatlarla eşdizim oluşturacak başlıca isimler hedef alınmıştır. Karşılaştırma grubundaki öğretim örtük (implicit) olarak gerçekleştirilirken deney grubunda ise açık (explicit) öğretim uygulanmıştır. Daha açıkça söylemek gerekirse, karşılaştırma grubundaki öğrencilerin sıfat + isim eşdizimliklerine sadece dikkatleri çekilirken deney grubundaki öğrencilerin aynı eşdizimliliğe dikkatleri doğrudan yönlendirilmiştir ki bu da çalışmanın amacı olan öğrencilerin farkındalıklarını artırma hedefini oluşturmaktadır. Öğretim boyunca her iki grupta da aynı etkinlikler uygulanmıştır. Öğretim tamamlandıktan sonra, son test uygulanarak her iki grupta da

öğrencilerin hedef sözcüklerin eşdizimliliklerini ne kadar hatırladıkları ölçülmüştür. İki hafta sonra ise gecikmeli son test uygulanarak her iki grubun da edindikleri bilgiyi ne dereceye kadar korudukları ölçülerek çalışmanın uygulama kısmı son bulmuştur. Bu çalışmada; açık (explicit) ve örtük (implicit) öğretimin grup içerisinde fark yaratıp yaratmadığını bulmak için parametrik olmayan *Friedman Test,* gruplar arasında fark yaratıp yaratmadığını bulmak için ise parametrik olmayan *Mann-Whitney U Test* kullanılmıştır. *Friedman Test* sonuçlarından toplanan bulgulara göre, karşılaştırma grubunda istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmamışken, deney grubundaki öğrenci kazanımlarında ön test ile son test ve ön test ile gecikmeli son test arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular son test ile gecikmeli son test arasında yapılan karşılaştırma ile de doğrulanmıştır. Son test ile gecikmeli son test arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark olmaması öğrencilerin yeni kazandıkları bilgileri akılda tuttuklarını göstermektedir. Fakat *Mann-Whitney U Test* sonucundaki gruplar arası kıyaslamaya bakıldığında ise karşılaştırma ve deney grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığı gözlemlenmiştir. Çalışma, ortaokul öğrencilerinin kelime bilgisinin gelişimi ile ilgili çıkarımlar, ortaokullarda kelime öğretiminin geliştirilmesine dair öneriler, ve elde edilen bulguların ileriki çalışmalar içim genellenebilirliği ile sonuçlandırılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Açık öğretim, Örtük öğretim, Eşdizimli sözcük öbekleri, Kelimeyi hafızada tutma

ABSTRACT

THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECT OF EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT INSTRUCTION ON SECONDARY SCHOOL LEARNERS' COLLOCATIONAL KNOWLEDGE

Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Master Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching
Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ
August 2019, 141 pages

The aim of this thesis is to investigate the effect of two types of instruction on the adjective + noun collocational knowledge of secondary school learners. The study employs a quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test research design. Initially, *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was used in order to determine the level of English of the students. Two groups were formed as experimental and comparison. The experimental group comprised 7 girls and 14 boys, totalling 21 participants. In the same way, the comparison group was composed of 10 girls and 11 boys, totalling 21 participants. Later, two groups of secondary school learners, a comparison and a experimental group were provided instruction of adjective + noun collocations. In this collocational relation, the adjectives in the specified units in the students' course book were taken as basis and their collocation with head nouns were targeted at. The first group (comparison) was given implicit instruction while the latter (experimental) was administered explicit instruction regarding the use of the said construction. More specifically, the attention of the learners in the first group was attracted to adjective + noun collocations, whereas the attention of the learners in the second group was directed to the same collocational patterns, which the study aimed to raise the learners' awareness of. The study was based on a 10-week program comprising six weeks instructional period with four hours a week + comprising one week pre-test, one week post-test, and a delayed post-test two weeks later. Prior to the instruction, the learner group were administered a pre-test. Immediately after the instructional intervention terminated, both groups were given a

post-test to measure the learning gains of the lexical collocations under focus. Two weeks later, the same groups were administered a delayed post-test to measure to what extent they had retained the new knowledge that they had been exposed to. In this research study, the non-parametric alternative *Friedman Test* was applied in order to find out if there was a significant difference within groups and *Mann-Whitney U* test was utilised to find out whether there was a difference between groups regarding the intervention. Based on the results of the non-parametric alternative *Friedman Test*, no statistically significant difference was found in the comparison group while student gains were statistically significantly different between pre to post-test and pre- to delayed post-test in the experimental group. It can be said that the students in the experimental group benefited from the explicit collocational instruction. This is also confirmed by the finding obtained from the comparison between the post and the delayed post-test. The fact that there was no statistically significant difference between post and delayed post test indicates that students mostly retained the newly gained knowledge. However, according to the comparison of the obtained findings from *Mann-Whitney U Test*, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference in collocational knowledge score between the comparison and the experimental group. The study was concluded with implications as to the enhancement of the secondary school learners' vocabulary knowledge, and suggestions to improve the vocabulary instruction at secondary schools, and further research for the generalizability of the findings presented in the study.

Key words: Explicit instruction, Implicit instruction, Collocations, Vocabulary retention

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I owe deepest gratitude to those who had helped me complete this thesis;

First and foremost, I would like to express my most sincere gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor *Assist. Prof. Dr. Abdurrahman KİLİMCİ* for all his continuous support, motivation invaluable mentorship. He will always have my gratitude for his extensive support and almost endless patience for me.

I would also like to express my greatest gratitude to *Assist. Prof. Dr. S. Barbaros YALÇIN* for his supportive assistance, encouragement and insightful suggestions throughout my studies. He will, forever, have my deepest gratitude for being a master in my whole life.

I am sincerely grateful to my dearest friends *Research Assistant Burcu TURHAN* and *Instructor Yaşar Üstün KAPLAN* for their invaluable support and comments to keep me in line.

The last but not the least, during all the vigorous and painful process of this thesis there is only but one person that shared the load and perhaps is the person to be cherished for every single moment I have stolen from him; my dear and beloved husband, *Ergin DURMUŞ*. His encouragement and support means the world to me.

Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Adana / 2019

TABLE OF CONTENTS

page

ÖZET ..... **iv**

ABSTRACT ..... **vi**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... **viii**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ..... **xii**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **xiii**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **xiv**

LIST OF APPENDICES ..... **xv**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study 1

1.2. Statement of the Problem 3

1.3. Aim and scope of the study 5

1.4. Research Questions 6

1.5. Significance of the Study 6

1.6. Operational Definitions 7

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction 9

2.2. Approaches to Vocabulary Teaching 9

2.2.1. Lexical Approach 12

2.3. What is a collocation? 13

2.3.1. Classification of Collocation 14

2.3.2. The Importance of Collocation in L2 Learning 17

2.4. Approaches to Teaching Collocations 20

2.4.1. Introduction 20

2.4.2. Explicit/ Deductive Instruction 22

2.4.3. Implicit/ Inductive Instruction 24

2.4.4. New Trends in Teaching and Learning for Collocations..... 26

CHAPTER III
METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction..... 29
3.2. Design of the Study..... 29
3.3. Participants..... 30
3.4. Data Collection Instruments..... 32
3.4.1. Placement Test..... 33
3.4.2. The Pre-test / Post-test & Delayed Post-test..... 33
3.4.2.1. Part 1..... 35
3.4.2.2. Part 2..... 35
3.4.2.3. Part 3..... 36
3.4.2.4. Part 4..... 36
3.5. Instructional Materials..... 36
3.6. Pilot Study..... 37
3.7. Procedure..... 39
3.7.1. Intervention Process..... 41

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction..... 47
4.2. Analysis of the General Proficiency Test..... 47
4.3. Two-Way Mixed ANOVA..... 51
4.4. Analysis Of The Differences Within Group - Friedman Test..... 54
4.4.1. Comparison Group..... 54
4.4.2. Experimental Group..... 55
4.5. Analysis Of The Group Differences- Mann Witney U Test..... 58
4.5.1. The Analysis of the Post Test Results..... 59
4.5.2. The Analysis of the Delayed Post-test Results..... 60

CHAPTER V
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction 63
5.2. Overview of the Study 63
5.3. Discussion and Conclusion 65
5.4. Implications 71
5.5. Limitation of the Study 72
5.6. Suggestions for Further Studies 73

REFERENCES 74
APPENDICES 88
CURRICULUM VITAE 140

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Adj	**:** Adjective
BNC	: British National Corpus
CALL	**:** Computer Assisted Language Learning
CALT	**:** Computer Assisted Language Teaching
DDL	**:** Data Driven Learning
DPost	**:** Delayed Post-test
EFL	**:** English as a Foreign Language
ESL	**:** English as a Second Language
Mdn	**:** Median
MI	: Mutual Information
N	**:** Number
SD	**:** Standard Deviation
SEM	**:** Standard Error of Mean

LIST OF TABLES

page

Table 1. Lexical Collocations Adopted from Benson et al.(1986a) 14
Table 2. Grammatical Collocations Adopted from Benson et al. (1986a) 15
Table 3. The Classification of Collocations Adopted from Lewis (2000) 16
Table 4. Implicit and Explicit Instruction (Housen & Pierrard, 2005;10). 22
Table 5. Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender and Group 31
Table 6. The Ultimate Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender and Group 32
Table 7. The Collocates of the Target Adjectives According to BNC* 34
Table 8. Weekly Flow of the Intervention 41
Table 9. The number of Participants (N), Mean, Standard deviation (SD) and Standard error of mean (SEM) for the Comparison and Experimental Group 48
Table 10 The Statistics for Shapiro-Wilk test of Normality 48
Table 11. Independent Samples Test 50
Table 12. Shapiro-Wilk's Normality Test Results 52
Table 13. The statistics for Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a] 53
Table 14. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for the Comparison Group 54
Table 15. Statistics for the Comparison Group 55
Table 16. Summary of Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental Group 56
Table 17. Statistics for the Experimental Group 56
Table 18 Pairwise Comparison 58
Table 19. Statistics for Mann-Whitney U Test 59

LIST OF FIGURES

page

Figure 1. Types of language instruction 21
Figure 2. Assessment of outliers in the data through a boxplot 51
Figure 3. Assumption of homogeneity of variances 53
Figure 4. Related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance by ranks for the comparison group 55
Figure 5. Related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance by ranks for the experimental group 57
Figure 6. Pairwise comparisons with the sample average ranks for each test 57
Figure 7. The post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison group 59
Figure 8. Independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test results for the post-test 60
Figure 9. The delayed post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison group 61
Figure 10. Independent-samples Mann-Whitney U Test results for the delayed post-test 62

LIST OF APPENDICES

page

Appendix 1. The Petition from Gazi Secondary School Management 88
Appendix 2. The Second Version of Quick Placement Test by Oxford University Press 89
Appendix 3. The Collocates of Target Adjectives 99
Appendix 4. The Pre-, Post, and Delayed Post-Test 113
Appendix 5. Worksheet About Target Adjectives 118
Appendix 6. The Paper Based Concordance Activities. 120
Appendix 7. A Sample from the Mind Map Activity 125
Appendix 8. Students' Sentences in the Writing Activity 127
Appendix 9. Samples from Students' Answers in the Pre-, Post- and Delayed post-test 130

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Early trend in the field of second language teaching has documented the dominance of methods which neglected the significance of vocabulary teaching. Hence, the negligence of vocabulary in teaching has been frequently emphasized in the literature (Richards, 1976; Nunan, 1991; Zimmerman, 1997, Schmitt, 2000; Decarrico, 2001; Carter, 2002). Learners have been directed to memorize a list of words which lack meaningful context. However, the interest in vocabulary has increased and nowadays vocabulary teaching has been at the forefront of English Language Teaching. In this sense, vocabulary knowledge has been seen as using a word in some combinatory possibilities rather than knowing the meaning of a word in mere isolation. As Bahns (1993) states, one specific aspect of vocabulary which deserves more attention than it has owned so far is the problem of word combinations, because one of the main difficulties of English as a foreign language learners (EFL) is not having enough information about what the collocational features of words are when they come across new items of vocabulary.

The significance of collocations in teaching vocabulary has been stated by numerous scholars (Judd, 1978; Carter & McCarthy, 1996; Gitsaki, 1999; Wei, 1999; Lewis, 2000; Decarrico, 2001; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2008). Thus, collocations have gained more popularity since they believe that collocations form an important part of native speaker competence and therefore should be included in foreign language education. However, it is believed that there is a distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary skills of foreign language learners. Hence, some scholars have pointed out that receptive knowledge enables students to understand word meanings properly while the productive knowledge requires using a wide variety of ways with which words collocate one another. Similarly, according to Columbus (2010) and Ellis et al. (2008), collocational competence is vital for language reception and production enabling both the L1 and L2 language users: 1) to make idiomatic choices and be seen as native-like; 2) to process language accurately and fluently under real-time conditions.

There have been a lot of published studies assessing the collocational proficiency of EFL learners from different levels, in order to examine the relation between English proficiency and knowledge of collocations. Biskup (1992), Bonk (2000), Woolard (2000), Huang (2001), Williams (2002) and Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2003) are among those who administered small-scale elicitation tests and attempted to show the learners' production problems of English collocations. Also, most of these studies have contributed to literature showing what kind of strategies are being applied by non-native English learners when they are not able to find the appropriate collocates of words.

Another field which has been vital for collocational researches is closely related to computer technology. As Kita & Ogata (1997) view, recent advances in computer technology have led to a change in natural language learning applications from a knowledge based approaches to a corpus-based or data driven approach. This new trend has extremely affected the field of computer assisted language learning and teaching (CALL & CALT). A great number of researchers have dealt with the collocations from various aspects. For instance, Nesselhauf & Tschichold (2002) suggest that usage of video games to practice collocations (common word combinations used in English) can be very helpful in vocabulary learning. Additionally, some researchers have begun to investigate possible benefits of video games in the context of education (Steinkuehler & Duncan, 2008; Nie, Roush, & Wheeler, 2010; Reinders, 2012). Nowadays, educators have tried to link relevant technology and employ it wherever possible in the ongoing need to keep students engaged and motivated (Arnold-Garza, 2014).

Additionally, for learners and teachers, dictionaries are the most significant sources of lexical information. Carter (1987) points out if dictionaries have the associative meaning of some examples of words, it will lead to the learners' greater competence in producing language and he states that almost every second or foreign language learner owns one, and it is one of the few books kept after following a language course. Due to the fact that many scholars have seen the collocations as one of the most vital parts of lexicon, some researchers have changed their direction to the need of improving more sophisticated phraseological dictionaries. *The LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations, The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations, and Longman Essential Activator* can be stated as some of the examples. Moreover, with the help of technology, a number of resources and tools have emerged for learning general collocations. Ackermann & Chen (2013) collected the Academic Collocations List (ACL), with 2469 cross-disciplinary collocations which are based on the 25-million-

word written constituent of the Pearson International Corpus of Academic English (PICAE) (Ackermann et al. 2011). Similarly, The Louvain EAP Dictionary (Granger & Paquot 2015) is also a corpus-based free resource. It was initially built up for the users of University of Louvain that has recently been accessed by the wider community.

In summary, collocations have been researched from various aspects. However, only a small number of researchers have attempted to explore the issues with regard to the needs of young learners. Hence, this study which focuses on the issue from the perspective of explicit and implicit instruction of adjective + noun collocations to secondary school learners aims to contribute to the literature where there is consensus among scholars (Firth, 1957; McCarthy, 1990; Carl, 1998; Jaén, 2007) on the fact that collocations are of important part of knowledge of learning a foreign language and they are essential for speaking or writing fluently.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Based on my experiences as a teacher, teaching English at secondary school for 8th graders for 6 years, I have observed that the traditional instructions utilized encourage students to memorize a list of words devoid of context. As a result, as the students learn these words by rote, they are unable to construct meaningful sentences. and the students are not able to transfer their knowledge of vocabulary to such skills as reading, writing and speaking. Moreover, students still make many errors due to their lack of collocational competence. They have difficulty in understanding spoken language or they cannot process the language both fluently and idiomatically. For example, the verb 'do' and 'make' have the same meaning in Turkish. Therefore; I have observed that students frequently confuse the usage of these two words and they tend to say 'make homework' not 'do homework'. The case is the same with the adjectives, they always memorize the meaning of the adjectives in their course book without paying attention to which nouns collocate with certain adjectives. One common example is between these two adjectives 'strong' and 'powerful'. These adjectives have the same meaning and the students know the meaning of both but they do not know that "powerful coffee" cannot be used instead of "strong coffee" as an adjective + noun collocation. They need to know which words work together to make word combinations that sound correct.

In the same manner, related studies on collocational knowledge report that learners have difficulties regarding the collocational tendencies of the words that they learn. For instance, Nesselhauf (2005) notes that the written outputs of advanced German learners of English suffer from collocational deviations. Another study, conducted by Laufer and Waldman (2011), reports that young adult learners of three different proficiency levels failed to produce as many verb-noun collocations as native speakers did.

There have been many studies about collocations. For example, some other fresh studies such as Bıçkı (2012) focused on acquisition of English collocations in his PhD dissertation. His purpose was to show common errors with a focus on verb-noun collocations of adult Turkish learners. Similarly; Mutlu (2015) conducted a study about teaching of collocations. Her purpose was to explore productive and receptive knowledge about verb + noun collocations of the senior students from high schools. However, they draw attention to verb-noun collocations while, in our study, adj+ noun collocations are in the centre. For this reason, the present study is different from the studies mentioned in terms of the types of collocations. Moreover, the level of participants in both studies are also different.

Moreover, a collocational study was conducted by Kayıran (2012) to investigate whether teaching vocabulary through noun + noun collocations increased vocabulary gain of the young learner's at the elementary level. Hatami (2015) also investigated the correlation between language proficiency and collocational knowledge of adult learners . However, their purpose was to focus on teaching collocations explicitly. They did not focus on whether the use of explicit or implicit teaching technique had any effect on learning collocations, which is one of the main concerns of our study.

Sonbul & Schmitt (2013) investigated the relationship between implicit and explicit lexical knowledge of collocations. In their study, collocational knowledge were used to assess gains after two traditional explicit tests (form recall and form recognition) and an innovative implicit test (priming). By the same token, Asei & Rezvani (2015) studied to measure up the effects of two methods of teaching collocations (explicit and implicit) on use of collocations in writing. However, their participants were advance EFL learners while the participants in our study are eight-grader beginners.

Correlatively, Gitsaki (1999) has a research about the development of English collocational knowledge in learners of English as a foreign language. The study does

not specifically focus on a certain collocation type unlike the present study. Also, the participants in this research are high school learners with three different levels of English proficiency as post- beginners, intermediate and post-intermediate. Hence, this research's main objective is different from our research in terms of collocational type and level of participants.

As can be seen, many studies have been conducted about teaching collocations; however, to the best knowledge of the researcher, the present study is novel in that it assesses the effect of implicit and explicit instruction of the adjective + noun collocation in the context of Turkish secondary school students learning English as a foreign language. Our study is not a repetitive one in terms of the types of collocations, particularly level of the participants and teaching techniques.

To sum up, when the level and age of the participants along with the collocational pattern and the teaching technique are taken into account, the present study is considered to diverge from the previous studies and thus bridge a gap in literature.

1.3. Aim and scope of the study

In this thesis, the effect of two types of instruction, explicit and implicit, on the development and retention of adjective + noun collocational knowledge by secondary school learners was investigated with the aim of raising learners' awareness towards these collocational patterns. As for these instructions, explicit instruction was adopted in the experimental group and deductive approach was employed throughout the intervention process in order to promote the participants to have knowledge of collocation whereas implicit instruction was used in the comparison group and inductive approach was utilised throughout the intervention process in order to make the participants to recognize these collocational patterns. In this collocational relation, the adjectives in the specified units in the students' course book were taken as basis and their collocation with head nouns were targeted at. Regarding the selection of the collocation type, adjective + noun collocations, the curriculum requires to teach descriptive adjectives in certain units since descriptive adjectives are among the largest classes of vocabulary teaching. Moreover, in this study, present participle adjectives were chosen as adjective types because the participants were not familiar with those types of adjectives based on the curriculum.

The reason why the participants were selected from among the 8 graders was that the researcher works as an English teacher in the secondary school. Also, 8 graders' level of English was assumed to be better than 7th, 6th and 5th grade students. Additionally, this group of students were to have an exam called LGS (Liselere Giriş Sınavı "High School Entrance Exam") at the end of the 2017-2018 academic year. In this exam, 8 graders were supposed to answer the multiple choice questions about Turkish, Maths, Science, English, History and Religious Culture & Moral knowledge. While aiming at raising learners' awareness towards collocational patterns, the researcher also aimed to assess the differential effect of explicit and implicit instruction on learners' collocational knowledge as most studies conducted on teaching collocational patterns were mainly geared to either one only. For example; Tomoko (2009) investigates the second language learners' use of collocations and the effect of explicit instruction which directs learners' attention to input. Finally, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, few studies have attempted to determine the impact of both explicit and implicit instruction on teaching collocations with the participants of the same level of English, the present study attempts to fill a research gap in this field of study.

1.4. Research Questions

The study will specifically seek answers to the following research questions;

a. Of the two types of instructions, explicit and implicit, which will be more effective in terms of learning gains regarding the target collocational patterns as assessed by pre-test and post-test measures?
b. Of the explicit and implicit instructional methods which will help the learners retain more knowledge of the collocational patterns as assessed by post-test and delayed post-test measures?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Foreign language learners need to memorize thousand of words so as to understand and use the target language accurately. Therefore, one of the most vital responsibilities of language teachers is to deal with vocabulary building problems of learners efficiently by using the most appropriate and effective techniques to teach vocabularies in their classes. Many teachers being aware of this fact devote a great deal

of their instructional time to teaching vocabulary; nevertheless, as they develop techniques just to teach vocabulary in isolation, they naturally experience their students' written or oral tasks full of inappropriate usages of words and then they may feel discouraged and disappointed. The problem may derive from the fact that knowing a word involves more than knowing just its definition. According to Howarth (1998), if the learners can be aware of the important role of collocations and concentrate on collocation competence, they can become native-like speakers or writers. As a result, keeping this in mind, and also regarding the limited instructional period, teachers should use more effective techniques which facilitate students to acquire productive vocabulary and retain more words. Teaching vocabulary in collocations is one of the ways to support vocabulary acquisition and retention. According to McCarthy (1990), in vocabulary teaching there is a high significance of collocations. Similarly, Lewis (2000) stresses that a language learner should be exposed to a large number of words and chunks in order to make generalizations about lexis and its collocational restrictions.

It can also be clearly understood that a great number of studies have been carried out to stress how vital collocations are for teaching and developing vocabulary knowledge; however, in our study collocations are instructed both explicitly and implicitly, which differs from other collocation studies whose focuses are mainly on either type of instruction with groups of learners of different age and level of English. Moreover, the participants in the present study are secondary school learners, 8 graders, rather than being advance learners. In this respect, this study may inspire and motivate teachers who might be having difficulty in teaching collocations and whose students are in the beginner level.

Consequently, this study aims to investigate the effect of two types of instruction, explicit and implicit, on the collocational competence of secondary school learners and intend, in accordance with the findings obtained, to encourage the teachers to develop or use vocabulary teaching techniques at least more disposed to build an awareness of appropriate collocational use in their students and enhance knowledge of the collocational patterns at the recognition and production level helping them get a "feel" of the English language.

1.6. Operational Definitions

The following terms are used repeatedly throughout this study:

Collocations: Collocations are words that statistically or conventionally are more likely

to appear together rather than random chance and have some degree of semantic unpredictability (Gitsaki, 1999; Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2001).

Vocabulary Retention: Vocabulary retention means storing newly learned vocabulary items in the long term memory, remembering those vocabularies later on and using them in other contexts.

Explicit instruction: According to Berliner & Rosenshine (1987), explicit instruction is "a systematic method of teaching with emphasis on proceeding in small steps, checking for student understanding and achieving active an successful participation by all students (p.34).

Implicit instruction: According to Doughty & Williams (1998), implicit instruction aims "to interact learner's attention and to avoid metalinguistic discussion, always minimizing any interruption to the communication of meaning" (p.232).

Deductive Approach: Deductive approach is defined as a process which starts with a presentation of the target rule by a teacher who then procures examples where the target structure is applied. The next step is that students participate in language practices by applying a general rule to a specific examples (Thornbury, 1999; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Inductive Approach: Inductive approach is a process in which learners examine examples in a context (e.g. text or audios) to explore the grammar rules on their own. At the end of this process, they create their own exemplary sentences after students have discovered the grammar patterns; thus practicing the language (Nunan, 1999; Thornbury, 1999; Shrum & Glisan, 2016).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In the field of second language acquisition, a good deal of research has been conducted to shed light on the process of vocabulary acquisition. One of the ways to promote vocabulary acquisition might be with the help of explicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, this study explores to what extent explicit or implicit instruction of vocabulary in collocations raises students' awareness towards collocations, and to what degree such instructions affect retention of vocabulary at the recognition and production level.

The first part of this literature review presents briefly how vocabulary and an aspect of it, collocation, gained importance over the years in ESL / EFL settings. It also reviews approaches to vocabulary teaching. The second part deals with definition, categorization of collocation and the significance of collocations in vocabulary teaching. The last section presents approaches to teaching collocations including the usage of explicit and implicit instruction.

2.2. Approaches to Vocabulary Teaching

It is known that the vocabulary of a language especially like English comprises of several thousand words; hence, the main question about this is "How can language teachers and learners approach this enormous store?" Surely, there is not only one simple answer to this question.

As Schmitt (2008) views that one thing learners, practitioners, material writers, and researchers all agree on is that learning vocabulary is the main aspect of mastering a second/foreign language, vocabulary is the essential tool for language learners to use the language especially at the early stages of foreign/ second language learning. Similarly, Lewis (2000) views that vocabulary is the centre of a language and grammar is built around it. As Sinclair (1996) points out "*A lexical mistake often causes misunderstanding, while a grammar mistake rarely does*" (pp.179-196). Thus, vocabulary is the key for comprehension and production for the target language.

However; Ogden (1930) views that 850 words can be adequate to speak Basic English in daily life. He also claimed that the words provided by him would help the learners express even their complex ideas and facilitate their communicative competence basically. After Ogden's explanation about vocabulary, West (1953) published a book called "General Service List" which dwelt on 2000 words with semantic and frequency information obtained from a corpus of two to five million words. Nevertheless, this list too was criticized by Richards (1974) who claimed that some important words were not included in the list. On the other hand, vocabulary teaching has started developing in those years.

Traditionally, vocabulary teaching has focused on teaching word meaning, synonyms, antonyms, which has been thought that words have been taught well in doing so (Oxford & Crookall, 1990). The first noticeable method to be implemented in Turkish school and in the world was Grammar-Translation Method. This method aimed at mastery of structure and vocabulary learning played a secondary role. As Schmitt (2000) states, in the Grammar Translation Method, English was taught the way Latin was taught, and the emphasis was on the skill of analyzing the language rather than the ability to use it. Hodne (2009) says that in this method, vocabulary was introduced chiefly as a way of demonstrating a grammar point and when vocabulary difficulties happened, they were usually addressed by means of etymology. However; with the emergence of Direct Method, increased attention was devoted to vocabulary knowledge. The supporters of this method suggested that vocabulary should be acquired naturally through interaction, as the fundamental aim of the method was the use of the second language (Celce Murcia & Rosensweigh, 1979; Bos & Anders, 1990; Schmitt, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001). On the other hand, Rivers (1983) suggests that, one of the drawback of this method was that vocabulary was studied in context without much explanation as it adopted the idea that if vocabulary was extremely included in teaching, students could consider the target language an accumulation of words. In addition to this, another defect of this method was that it underlined how to read in a foreign language, which highlighted receptive vocabulary skills rather than productive vocabulary skills.

From 1945 to 1970, vocabulary teaching was under the influence of structuralism, thus teaching syntactic patterns with small vocabulary, the idea of which led to Audio-lingual method that focused on memorization of sentences and repetition drills (Carter & McCarthy, 1996). Vocabulary instruction was restricted,

that's to say, only simple words that were suitable for the topic were selected to be taught and the learners mastered on the sound system of the target language. One of the drawbacks of this approach was that students could not improve well enough to take in naturally occurring language and they had poor writing ability, which resulted from restricted vocabulary instruction. (Celce-Murcia & Rosensweigh, 1979; Schmitt, 2000; Decarrico, 2001; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Nunan (1991) states that there was not much concentration on vocabulary teaching before 1970s, and vocabulary was regarded and treated as a part of grammar or the other skills. However, vocabulary teaching has changed due to the effect of the communicative approach and the natural approach in teaching since 1970s. As Zimmerman (1997) notes that Hymes advanced the concept of *communicative competence,* emphasizing the relevance of social interaction to language learning in 1972. Hymes (1972) stresses that in addition to teaching grammar, communicative competence also involves knowledge about "when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (p. 277). Hence, a new approach known as Communicative Language Teaching was developed from this notion. Besides, latest curricula in Turkey, elements of this approach, such as cultural knowledge and especially communication, are clearly emphasized. According to Moss and Ross-Feldman (2003), any activity which calls for the learner to speak and listen to others comprise the use of communication. Activities which have communicative purposes are necessary to break down barriers, find information, express ideas about oneself and learn about culture. (Toro, Camacho-Minuche, Pinza-Tapia & Paredes, 2019).

In the late 1970s, Natural Approach emerged and Krashen & Terrell (1983) stressed the importance of vocabulary supported by comprehensible input from the teacher or textbooks. Zimmerman (1997) suggests that, it is based on five hypotheses, and its methodology highlights meaningful and comprehensible input rather than grammatically correct production. Similarly, Krashen (1989) states that reading is the best way to develop wider vocabulary knowledge for more advanced learners.

Vocabulary teaching improved further by means of the advanced changes in computer technology and computer assisted corpus research. Particularly; collocation, one aspect of vocabulary, was given far more importance after the 1980s when lexicographical research started. Kita & Ogata (1997) and Decarrico (2001) claim that computer assisted research procured much information which had not previously been

presented such as the role of vocabulary in language use, differences between spoken and written communication, which was a critical change for communicative syllabus design. Meanwhile, three significant UK-based corpora which are known as *the COBUILD Bank of English Corpus, the Cambridge International Corpus and the British National Corpus* emerged in this period. Consequently, a new vocabulary teaching method known as Lexical Approach was introduced.

2.2.1. Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach was introduced by Lewis (1993) in the early 1990s. It has received great interest in the recent times as an alternative to grammar-based approaches. According to Nattinger & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992), Lewis (1993), vocabulary and lexical units are central to language learning and teaching; thus, grammar plays a secondary role. In other words, Lewis (1993) points out that "Language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar" (p. 34). He suggests that traditional grammar structures should be less emphasized and lexis should be centered in the language.

In the same manner, Richards & Rodges (2001) support that it is not the grammar that builds up language learning and communication but lexis, that is, words and word combinations. Lewis (2000) also views that native speakers carry thousands of, and maybe millions of, lexical chunks in their minds ready to produce accurate, fluent and meaningful language. Thus, second language learners can take advantage of this method.

Boers & Lindsromberg (2009) stress that even advance learners who have stored a great number of words and 'grammar rules' do not often succeed to combine words as the way native speakers do. Pawley & Syder (1983) have the same idea with others. They believe what distinguishes a native speaker or a highly proficient language learner from a less proficient language learner is being the mastery of a large stock of semi-fixed lexical phrases, also known as 'chunks'.

According to Harwood (2002), Lexical Approach is related to lexis which meant "strings of words which go together" (p.140). Strings of words contain collocations, prefabricated items, and institutionalized expressions. Sinclair & Renouf (1988) stress that focusing on lexis in classrooms has many advantages. Firstly, teachers can underline common uses and important meanings and patterns for common words. Secondly, teacher can encourage their students to use of the words which they have already known, despite their level (Sinclair &Renouf, 1988).

On the other hand, according to Lee (2004), linguistics do not mean that teachers should merely teach lexis and should not included grammar in their classroom instruction. Rather, Sinclair (1991) believes that it is vital that lexis and grammar are taken into consideration undetachable in nature and completely interdependent. Willis (1993) also supports this idea claiming that grammar and lexis are two ways of depicting the same linguistic goal. He views that language learners should study simultaneously with the lexicon and grammar.

To summarize so far, as the lexical approach give more importance to vocabulary than grammar, lexis should be presented before grammar in teaching English, and classroom teachers and course book writers need to emphasize the importance of lexical elements. It is vital to focus on phrases and patterns as the content of lexis teaching. Nonetheless, this does not mean that teachers, we, should pay no attention on grammar. One of the ways for applying the lexical approach in the classroom is focusing on collocations.

2.3. What is a collocation?

Collocation requires special attention for decades due to its role in language learning. According to Wray (2000), collocations involve most of the natural language, so the learners who have the acquisition of a large number of collocations can communicate successfully and comprehend ideas accurately. Similarly, Farrokh (2012) states that "English is full of collocations of words that co-occur more often than expected by chance. Why do we say 'last year' and not 'last hour' And why do we go somewhere 'by car' or 'by bicycle' but 'on foot'? The reason is collocation", (p.56).

Different researchers define collocation in different ways. However, the notion of 'collocation' was introduced by Palmer (1938) but its technical use was first introduced by Firth (1957) and according to him collocation is "the company that the words keep" (p.183). Moreover; Sinclair (1991), a student of Firth's at London University, sees collocation as an occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text. Based on Lewis' idea, “collocations are those combinations of words which occur naturally with greater than random frequency. Collocations co-occur, but not all words which co-occur, are collocations”, (Lewis, 1997, p.44). Richards *et al.* (1992) also define collocations "as a group of words which occur repeatedly in a language", (p.62).

In the same line, as a linguist, Hoey (2000) defines collocation as "words which occur within a few (six) words on either side of the headword in naturally occurring spoken or written text" (p. 228). Also, according to Gitsaki (1999) Aghbar (2000), Nesselhauf (2003), collocations are the ways in which two or more words link together in the memory of a native speaker and they co-occur with some frequency in a particular domain.

A collocation in English is described as a formulaic, prefabricated, and conventionalized combination of two or more words (Zhang, 1993). A simpler and clearer pedagogic definition made by two teachers who try to look at collocations from the point of view of their students comes from Woolard (2000) and Conzett (2000). According to them, collocations are combinations of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs which students are not expected to think of or produce, as seen in the example of *heavy smoker* as opposed to *heavy table*.

2.3.1. Classification of Collocation

According to Benson et al. (1986a), collocation can be divided systematically into two major groups: lexical collocations and grammatical collocations. There are seven types of lexical collocations, labelled from **a** to **g**, whose structures and examples are given in Table 1 as below:

Table 1.

Lexical Collocations Adopted from Benson et al.(1986a)

TYPE	EXAMPLE
L1. verb (donating creation or activation) + noun (pronoun or prep. phrase)	*compose music; make an impression;*
L2. verb (meaning eradication or nullification) + noun	*revoke a license; demolish a house*
L3. adjective + noun	*strong tea; a rough estimate*
L4. noun + verb	*bees buzz; bombs explode*
L5. noun1 of noun2	*a pack of dogs; a herd of buffalo; a herd of buffalo*
L6. adjective + adverb/ adverb + adjective	*sound asleep; hopelessly addicted*
L7. verb + adverb	*anchor firmly; argue heatedly*

However, a grammatical collocation comprises of a dominant word such as a verb, an adjective, a noun and a preposition or grammatical structure such as a clause or an infinitive. Benson et al. (1986a) further classified the grammatical collocations into eight small groups, and he marked as **G1** to **G8**. In the other hand, **G8** collocations involved nineteen English verb patterns. To make the types more clear, the researcher of the present study has listed the structures and examples of grammatical collocations as shown in Table 2 as below:

Table 2.

Grammatical Collocations Adopted from Benson et al. (1986a)

TYPE	PATTERN	EXAMPLE
G1	noun + preposition;	*Apathy toward*
G2	noun + to inf.	*He was a fool to do it.*
G3	noun + that clause	*He took an oath that he would do his duty.*
G4	preposition + noun;	*in advance, at anchor*
G5	adjective + preposition	*They are afraid of him.*
G6	predicate adjective +to inf	*It was stupid for them to go.*
G7	adjective + that clause	*She was afraid that she would fail the exam.*
G8	**There are 19 patterns in G8**	
	svo to o (or) svoo	*He sent a book to his brother.* *He sent his brother a book.*
	svo to o	*They described the book to her.*
	svo for o (or) svoo	*She bought a shirt for her husband.* *She bought her husband a shirt.*
	sv prep. o (or) svo prep. o	*He came by train.* *We invited them to the meeting.*
	Sv to inf.	*They began to speak*
	sv inf.	*He had better go.*
	svv-ing	*They enjoy watching television.*
	svo to inf.	*She asks me to come.*
	svo inf.	*She heard them leave.*
	svov-ing	*I caught them stealing apples*
	sv possessive v-ing	*Please excuse my waking you so early*
	sv(o) that-clause	*They admitted that they were wrong*
	svo to be c	*We consider her to be very capable*
	Svoc	*She dyed her hair red.*
	Svoo	*We bet her ten pounds.*
	sv(o) adverbial	*He carried himself well.*
	sv(o) wh-word	*He wants what I want.*
	s(it) vo to inf. (or) s(it) vo that-clause	*It surprised me to learn of her decision.* *It surprised me that our offer was rejected.*
	svc (adjective or noun	*She was enthusiastic. The flowers smell nice*

Similar to Benson et al. (1986a), Lewis (2000) listed different types of collocations. More types beyond Benson et al.'s classification are seen in this list as shown in Table 3 as below:

Table 3.

The Classification of Collocations Adopted from Lewis (2000)

Type	***Example***
1. adjective + noun:	*a difficult decision*
2. verb + noun:	*submit a report*
3. noun + noun:	*radio station*
4. verb + adjective + noun:	*revise the original plan*
5. compound noun:	*fire escape*
6. binomial:	*backwards and forwards*
7. trinomial:	*hook, line and sinker*
8. noun + verb:	*the fog closed in*
9. verb + adverb:	*examine thoroughly*
10. adverb + adjective:	*extremely inconvenient*
11. discourse marker:	*To put it another way*
12. multi-word prepositional phrase:	*a few years ago*
13. phrasal verb:	*turn in*
14. adjective + preposition:	*aware of....*
15. fixed phrase:	*On the other hand....*
16. incomplete fixed phrase:	*A sort of....*
17. fixed expression:	*Not half!*
18. semi-fixed expression:	*See you later/tomorrow/on Monday.*
19. part of a proverb:	*Too many cooks....*
20. part of a quotation:	*To be or not to be....*
	(Lewis, 2000, pp. 133-134).

Moreover, Lewis (1997) views that generally, collocations can be categorized into four groups: strong, weak, frequent and infrequent. He says:

> "We recognize strong collocations as partnership which are so tightly linked they behave almost as single words. Strong collocations may be frequent or comparatively rare; it is far from true that those words which co-occur most frequently are the strongest collocations. Weak collocations (a nice day, a good chance) occur between two common words, each of which may co-occur with many other words. Collocations may be any combination of strong and frequent,

strong and infrequent, weak and frequent, or weak and infrequent, though last category is of little interest" (p.30).

Similarly, Howarth (1998) classified collocations into four categories as free combinations, restricted combinations, figurative idioms and pure idioms by consulting such criteria as restricted collocability, semantic specialization and idiomaticity. He stresses that these categories can be further classified into lexical and grammatical categories based on the word class of elements.

However, Sinclair (1991) divided collocation into two kinds-downward collocation and upward collocation stating that 'grammar' and 'lexis' are two independent aspects. Different from Benson et al. (1996a), Sinclair benefited from two terms to categorize collocations. One of them was the term "node," which was used to represent the word studied while the other was the term "collocate," employed to represent any word that occurs in the specified environment of a node. Based on Sinclair's view; when A is 'node' and B is 'collocate', collocation of A with a less frequent word B, it is called downward collocation and this contributes to a semantic analysis of a word. The examples of this type are "*advantage over*", "*afraid of*", "*attitude toward*", and etc. In contrast; it is called upward collocation when B is 'node' and A is 'collocate'. The examples of this type are "*on purpose*", "*by accident*", "*with caution*", etc. In this kind of collocation, "the words tend to be the elements of grammatical frames, or superordinates" (Sinclair,1991, p.116).

To sum up, collocations are categorized from different perspectives from different scholars as mentioned. Among those classifications, the categories created by Benson et al. (1986a) has been the most common classification for the researchers (Bahns, 1993; Liu, 2000a; Wang, 2001; Saudin, 2015).

The type of lexical collocations used in this paper is "adjective + noun". The selected combination is among those which give us a clearer picture of various behaviours of the feature combinations.

2.3.2. The Importance of Collocation in L2 Learning

The importance of collocations for the development of vocabulary knowledge in learning a foreign language has been emphasized by a number of researchers, linguists and language pedagogues. According to Lewis (2000), the most necessary reason that makes collocations vital is the way words combine with another, which is fundamental

fo all language use. Cowie (1992) views that English collocation is significant in receptive as well as productive language competence. Carter and McCarthy (1988) have similar assertion and according to their opinion, English collocations are helpful not only for English comprehension but also English production. They claim that students will have the idea about certain lexical restrictions if they memorize collocational groups. Most significantly, "collocations teach students expectations about which sorts of language can follow from what has preceded. Students will not have to go about reconstructing the language each time they want to say something but instead can use these collocations as pre-packaged building blocks" (Carter & McCarthy,1988, p. 75).

According to Hill (2000), there are many reasons why it is crucial to teach collocations. One reason is the fact that they develop thought processing and help learners have an effective communication. Native speakers do not have in difficulty in reading, talking and listening to quick-paced discourses as they have a huge repertoire of chunks of language in storage that is ready to be used and recognized, which makes it easier for native speakers to express complicated ideas and think faster. Another reason is the predictability of vocabulary use. If a speaker talks about drinking; automatically, the listener can make up a list of possible continuations such as *tea*, *water or coffee* but not *shampoo* or *oil*. Lastly, collocations enable the acquisition of correct pronunciation. Hill (2000) believes that collocations form nearly 70 percent of everything we read, write, talk or hear. Hence, the way words combine in collocations is essential to language use. Moreover, Hill (1999) says "Students with good ideas often lose marks because they do not know the four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they are writing about" (p.5), and he gives this example : "His disability will continue until he dies", rather than "He has a permanent disability" (Hill, 2000, p.49). He believes that there is no way to correct these kinds of mistakes but to increase mental lexicons of the learner by having them acquire collocations with the help of large amounts of qualified inputs.

It is essential to say that correct use of collocations is a sign of the development in the use of that foreign language. Howarth (1998) stated that native speaker linguistic competence has a large and significant phraseological component. Similarly, Nesselhauf (2003) stated that in native speakers' utterances, it is not possible to see many errors due to mismatching between the noun and the verb. However, even some prepositional errors are also fairly frequent among EFL learners. Based on these

ideas, it can be concluded that language learners can acquire the target language studying on the collocational patterns to have more native-like language speaking.

Smith (2005) also states:

> "Including collocation in the curriculum is important for several reasons. The first reason is the widespread difficulty faced by non-native speakers in the accurate combination of words. Even in cases where the learner knows the individual words, collocations are still likely to be problematic. Secondly, there is a need for learners to get beyond the "intermediate plateau" that Lewis (1993) describes. Such students can cope in most situations, but they tend to "avoid" or "talk around" the more challenging tasks of advanced language learning. A third reason is that having a knowledge of frequently occurring collocates deepens vocabulary knowledge, and increases fluency and aids stress and intonation (Williams, 2002). A final reason is that collocation errors are more disruptive to the communication than most grammatical errors. The result is unnatural sounding expressions or quaint or archaic phrasing (p.27).

There have been many researches done in the field of collocation in both Turkey and abroad for the last decades. Gitsaki (1999) studied in teaching English collocations to ESL students to show the importance of collocations for foreign language acquisition. Shehata (2008) who explored the effect of learning English in an EFL context versus an ESL context on collocational competence. Farrokh (2012) also studied in raising awareness of collocation in EFL/ ESL classrooms for learners in order to acquire accurate and native-like competence. In the same manner, Asei & Rezvani (2015) made a research to determine learners' use of collocations in writing. Zhang (1993) also had a significant collocational study on the correlation between English language learners' knowledge/use of collocations and their English language proficiency. Some other researches related to the difference in collocational competence between native and non-native speakers are carried out by notable researches such as Waller (1993), Durrant & Schmitt (2009). Antle (2013) also wrote an essay about the potential benefits of an increased focus on collocations by many sample activities and exercises. Hsu (2007) searched the use of English lexical collocations and their relation to the online writing. Similarly, Namvar & Ibrahim (2014) searches to explore the influence of first language and the cultural background of learners on the production of collocations. Kayıran (2012) had a master thesis about collocations to investigate whether teaching vocabulary through collocations increases the learners' vocabulary gain. Avcı (2012) also had a

study whose purpose is to see whether collocation instruction would help the students recognize collocations, result in better written work and assist in vocabulary gain. Szudarski (2017) has a research about learning and teaching L2 Collocations, as well.

Another vital study of collocation was carried out by Biskup (1992) who defined collocations as different from idioms. In this study, Biskup (1992) wanted to figure out whether lexical collations cause problems for L2 learners. Biskup (1992) also tried to detect the collocational errors and the role of L1 in performing these errors in another study in which Polish and German students who received 10 years of English language instruction and they were expected to provide the equivalents of lexical collacations. According to the results of the study, while German students interpret the meaning of the collocations, Polish students were not sure about giving answers. The results showed that the possibility of the errors increases when the semantic field of a given item is broad.

All these studies emphasizes that the literature on collocations shows an agreement among researchers and scholars as to significance of collocations for second and foreign language learning. However; there is no complete consensus among some scholars and linguists about the practicality of teaching collocations. Hilll (2000) states that learning collocations can be challenging owing to the huge size of mental lexicon. Bahns (1993) also believes that teaching lexical collocations is a challenging task due to the great number.

While there is some truth to both of these arguments, it is believed that it is important to teach collocations for second and foreign language learning and the potential benefits of teaching collocations outweigh the difficulties (Lewis, 1993; Williams, 2002; Jiang, 2009; Reppen, 2010).

2.4. Approaches to Teaching Collocations

2.4.1. Introduction

Several researchers have investigated the effect of using different approaches or techniques to facilitate the vocabulary teaching so far. In this sense, Ellis (2005) suggests a broaden approach about language instruction. He categorized language instruction in terms of "indirect" and "direct intervention. According to Ellis (2005), the aim of the indirect intervention is "to create conditions where learners can learn experientially through learning how to communicate in the L2 (p.713). However,

instruction as direct intervention requires the infinite specification of what is that learners are expected to learn. The relationship between direct/ indirect intervention and explicit/ implicit instruction are shown in Figure 1 according to Ellis.

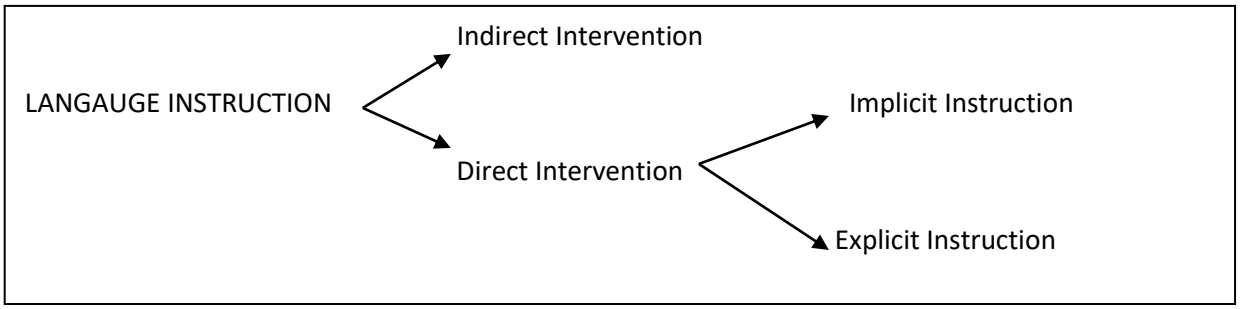


Figure 1. Types of language instruction

Hence**,** there seems to exist two opposite views regarding teaching collocations among researchers. Some of them have suggested that collocation learning can be incidental with the help of implicit instruction such as extensive reading (Nation, 2001). Other researchers views that collocations need to be taught explicitly through direct instruction (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Nesselhauf, 2003; Seesink, 2007). To comprehend the difference between explicit and implicit instruction, synonyms for both terms can be explained according to the literature developed by some notable linguistics (N. Ellis, 2005; DeKeyser, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Ellis, 2010). Systematic study, metacognitive, conscious, intentional, rational and deductive is interchangeably used for explicit instruction. Likewise, some synonyms for implicit learning are automatic, passive, subconscious acquisition, intuitive, induction and exposure to language in use.

Explicit processes are conscious and deliberate, hence it helps learners create explicit knowledge. Language teacher can improve explicit knowledge of the learners while teaching target components and rules of the language or language learners themselves can develop their explicit knowledge while making an effort to learn target components and rules of the language. Nevertheless, the purpose of implicit instruction is not to involve in the instruction. In this circumstance, the learners understand that they need to realize the implicit information so as to learn target components and rules of the language (Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus, 1996; Celce-Murcia, 2001).

In the same line, Housen & Pierrard (2005) present a more detailed definition of the two types of instruction as follows in Table 4.

Table 4.

Implicit and Explicit Instruction (Housen & Pierrard, 2005;10).

Implicit FFI	Explicit FFI
• attaracts attention to target form	• directs attention to target form
• is delivered spontaneously (e.g. in an otherwise communication-oriented actvivity)	• is predetermined and planned (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)
• is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning	• is obstrusive (interruption of communicative meaning
• presents target forms in context	• presents target forms in isolation
• makes no use of metalanguage	• use metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation)
• encourages free use of the target form	• involves controlled practice of target form

2.4.2. Explicit/ Deductive Instruction

The term, explicit instruction, was first suggested by Berliner & Rosenshine (1987) who saw it as "a systematic method of teaching with emphasis on proceeding in small steps, checking for student understanding, and achieving active and successful participation by all students" (p.34).

According to Richards & Schmidts (2002), explicit teaching is a method in which learners of a language take in information directly by the teacher or textbook. In other words, explicit instruction include "some sort of rule which are taught during the learning process" (DeKeyser, 1995). Moreover, DeKeyser (2008) stresses that explicit teaching can require deductive teaching which means that rules are given before an example is presented.

Similarly; according to Ellis (2008), in explicit instruction, "learners are encouraged to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. This can be achieved deductively, as when a rule is given to the learners or inductively as when the learners are asked to work out a rule for themselves from an array of data illustrating the rule" (p.17). In other words, explicit instruction drives learners' attention to the targeted form. In this perspective, instruction does not call for developing awareness or comprehending of rules which describe such language forms (Ellis, 2010).

Hulstjin (2007) suggests that learners- in explicit instruction- are aware of input processing and they have conscious intention to figure out whether the input

information contains regularities, if so, they tend to study on the concepts and rules which these regularities can be captured with.

In the same manner, Jenskin (2012) views:

> "By explicit instruction, we mean teaching where the instructor clearly outlines what the learning goals are for students, and offers clear, unambiguous explanations of the skills and information structures they are presenting" (p.1).

To the best knowledge of the researcher, it is seen that deductive teaching approach is benefited in explicit instruction as Ellis (2008) stated before. Deduction is defined as a process which moves from the general to the specific and, in language learning, a general rule is applied to particular instances of that language use (Erlam, 2003). Deductive approach is defined as a process which starts with a presentation of a target rule by a teacher who then procures examples where the target structure is applied. The next step is that students participate in language practices by applying a general rule to specific examples (Thornbury, 1999; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

There are conflicting ideas about deductive approach. According to Krashen (1982), teachers should provide a clear explanation and help students practice till the target rule is internalized. In the same line, Nunan (1991) also state that deductive reasoning takes places if the learners are taught rules consciously and provided specific information about a language. Eisenstein (1987), who shares the same attitudes with others, suggests that the comparison of the teacher over learners increase with the help of deductive approach and hence, learners might have less fear about producing incorrect structures with respect to how the target language functions. Brown (2007) also posits that deductive teaching can meet learners' expectations due to the fact that when learning a language, the presentation of the target rules at the beginning of the lesson is really helpful.

Nonetheless, some researches argue the opposite. According to Nesic & Hamidovic (2015), in the deductive approach, students' participation cannot be clearly detected in teaching process, which causes the lack of creativity and deterioration of the thinking process due to the fact that everything is clearly given and there is no opportunity for critical thinking. Likewise, Brown (2007) explains that the deductive approach is suitable for adult learners because the adult mentality can cope with abstract

item and the rules when target language is deductively presented. Conversely, young learners are not good at learning deductively.

The good news is that there has been a great deal of research about the effects of explicit instruction on language teaching. Spencer, Goldstein & Kaminski (2013) studied on explicitly teaching vocabulary for young children to help children exposure direct vocabulary world with the help of an intentionally designed plan. Similarly, Schmitt & Sonbul (2012) studied on the acquisition of collocations exploring not only the effect of explicit but also the implicit knowledge. Tsai (2018) also investigated the effectiveness of explicit instruction on acquisition of verb + noun collocations of L2 learners. In the same vein, Soolmaz (2014) conducted a study to explore the impact of explicit collocation instruction on ESL learners' writing ability and according to the results of the study it was indicated that explicit collocation instruction has an impact on writing ability of the learners. Likewise, Akıncı & Yıldız (2017) carried out a study about the effectiveness of explicit instruction and data-driven learning (DDL), and these two methods
combined in teaching verb + noun (V+N) collocations to advanced Turkish learners of English. In their study, results revealed that explicit instruction scored higher. Overall, Norris & Ortega (2000) also indicate that explicit instruction was more effective than implicit instruction according to the analysis of their study.

To sum up, previous studies have clearly shown that researchers, linguistics or educators have attempted to find out the best approach, method or techniques in language teaching which enrich the literature of teaching and learning a language.

2.4.3. Implicit/ Inductive Instruction

Implicit instruction is explained in different ways by different researchers. The term was clearly explained by Ellis (2008) as follow:

> "Implicit instruction is directed at enabling learners to infer rules without awareness. Thus, it contrasts with explicit in that there is no intention to develop any understanding of what is being learned (p.17).

Likewise, de Graaf and Housen (2009) point out whether the instruction 'directs' or 'attracts' attention to the form is the key difference between explicit and implicit instruction. Brown (2007) also believes that implicit learning occurs without intention to

learn and without awareness of what has been taught. In an implicit approach, students should be exposed to target structures in the meaningful contexts so as to acquire the target language as naturally as possible (Scott, 1990). Along the same line, Doughty & Williams (1998) suggests that implicit instruction aims to attract learners' attention and avoid metalinguistic discussion, always minimizing any interruption to the communication of meaning" (p.232). By the same token, implicit vocabulary learning occurs by repeated exposures to contexts, which lead to acquisition of words unconsciously according to Pujol (2008).

To the best knowledge of the researcher, it is seen that inductive approach is benefited in implicit instruction when the learners are asked to work out a rule for themselves from an array of data illustrating the rule (Ellis, 2008; p.17). Inductive approach is a process in which learners examine examples in a context (e.g. text or audios) to explore the grammar rules on their own. At the end of this process, they create their own exemplary sentences after students have discovered the grammar patterns; thus practicing the language. This is a very learner-centered process (Nunan, 1999; Thornbury, 1999; Shrum & Glisan, 2016).

There are conflicting ideas about inductive approach. Fischer (1979) and Hammerly (1975) believes that creative cognitive process is obtained with the help of inductive approach in language teaching environment. According to Scrivener (1994), students can engage in discovering a generalized rule or pattern by noticing. In the same vein, Chalipa (2013) points out that students more actively participate in the learning process instead of being passive recipient; hence, they are likely to be more attentive and more motivated. Ellis (2010) also states that the inductive approach is much more efficient and that grammatical structures thus acquired last longer due to the fact that learners have more responsibilities and more active. Similarly, Brown (2007) posits that young learners are better in learning inductively since their mental capacity cannot cope with abstract items and rules when deductively presented.

Nevertheless, some researches argue that inductive approach is not as efficient as deductive approach. For instance, Fischer (1979) states that deductive approach is more sensible in terms of leading to higher degree of definiteness of students' grammar knowledge. Likewise, Ausubel (1974) and Carroll & M. (1993) points out that inductive approach seems to be a difficult approach for slower learners and is appropriate for those who have higher mentality with the ability to discover rules on their own. In the same manner, Norris and Ortega (2000) published an article as to how effective explicit/

deductive instruction is L2 teaching across 49 studies. According to the results, explicit/ deductive instruction leads to more successful learning of target structures in comparison to implicit/ inductive instruction.

Previous studies mentioned about the efficiency of inductive and deductive approach have yielded contradictory results. One of the first studies as to how collocations are learnt in the classroom is the study of Sun &Wang (2003). They investigated the relative effectiveness of deductive and inductive approaches to learning grammatical collocations at two levels of difficulty by way of the use of online concordancers. The results of the study showed that an inductive approach resulted in significantly higher learning gains, especially in the case of the so-called easy collocations (collocations were classified into two categories: easy and difficult, by the authors although no classification criteria were outlined). In the same line, Herron and Tomasello (1992) presents an exhaustive advantage for inductive instruction.

Nonetheless, in a follow-up study, Chan and Liou (2005) also found that explicit online instruction was more effective in promoting knowledge of collocation for learners through an evaluation questionnaire which reveals that learners were content with the type of online instruction. Similarly; in a traditional classroom setting, Webb and Kagimoto (2009) stated that learning collocations in contexts was an effective approach that produced significant learning gains on both receptive and productive post-tests. According to the results from the limited number of classroom studies, they stressed that students may benefit from explicit classroom instruction and significant learning gains can be achieved. Similarly, Seliger (1975) and Robinson (1996) advocates many advantageous of deductive instruction.

Besides; Abraham (1985), Shaffer (1989) and Rosa & O'Neill (1999) uncovered no significant difference between the two approaches. Hence, based on the studies, it is natural to say that each of them carries both strengths and weaknesses.

2.4.4. New Trends in Teaching and Learning for Collocations

Learning collocations should have a central place in the study of vocabulary, thus knowledge of collocations is essential for appropriate and fluent use of language (McCarthy, 1990; Schmitt, 2000; Nation, 2001). Neverthless, exercises for learning collocations are rare in English language text books, and there is usually only one or no exercise for a given set of collocations without any practice of the use of target

collocations. Thus, this treatment does not improve students' collocational competence which is prerequisite for successful learning (Craik & Lockhart, 1972).

Recent rapid advances in computer technology have caused a shift in teaching and learning collocations. One of the approaches which has been very popular nowadays is data-driven learning (DDL). The term originally was developed and promoted by Johns and colleagues (Johns, 1991; Johns & King, 1991). Johns (1991) clearly states that the central premise of data-driven learning (DDL) is that language learning methodology should give priority to authentic materials, exploratory tasks, and activities in which learners are centered rather than the traditional teacher-led exercises and activities. Similarly, Boulton (2009) points out that learners expose to large amount of authentic data – the electronic corpus – so that they can play an active role in discovering the language and detecting patterns in it.

Generally, in DDL, computer-based and paper-based approaches are utilized. Gavioli (2001) points out that in a computer-based approach, the students directly interface with a computer, corpus, and concordancing tool. It is student-centered and student-controlled, so the data is limitless, and learning is inductive with the students as if they were researchers. In a paper-based approach, students look at printed concordance lines on paper, not on computer screens. Namely, the teacher has already completed the searches and is supplying the resulting concordance lines for students to analyze. The tasks are more readily comprehended and time-efficient, and do not call for student-accessed computers (Boulton, 2010).

There have been recent studies as to whether data-driven learning in corpus-based and paper-based approaches is beneficial for learning collocations. Boulton (2010) discusses the benefits of corpus-based materials and paper- based materials in acquiring collocational knowledge. He believed that a number of hugely innovative website have been developed which incorporate DDL in guided environment, but its success depends on the teachers' accessibility to the approach. Besides, the use of paper-based material can help DDL to reach a wider range of teacher or learners. Current practices of induction and the usage of authentic documents can result in immediate learning as well as better noticing. On the other hand, he suggest that it will be better for teachers, learners and researchers if corpus will be involved in course books.

Similarly, Smart (2014) studied the role of guided induction in paper-based data driven learning. Based on the findings of the study, there are measurably benefits of inductively using paper-based DDL on teaching second language. In the same line,

Chan & Liou (2005) searched the influence of using web-based practice units on English verb-noun collocations with the design of a web-based Chinese- English bilingual concordancer on collocation learning. The results of the study showed that collocational knowledge of the students significantly improved after the online practice.

Moreover; Chujo, Anthony, Oghigian and Uchibori (2012) examined the use of data-driven learning (DDL) in the beginner-level EFL classroom comparing the use of paper-based, computer-based and combined approaches. The study was a three-year comparative case study of computer-based, paper-based, and combined computer- and paper-based DDL using a parallel corpus for beginner-level university students. In the treatment, students followed guided tasks on a worksheet to inductively comprehend target grammar patterns, had an explicit correction of their hypotheses, and followed up practice. The DDL exercises were carried out on a bilingual concordancer using newspaper corpus. It was stated that each DDL approach can be useful for developing grammar basics such as understanding and producing noun phrases. Results showed that students made significant gains using all three approaches. However, it was concluded that there was not any significant difference in effectiveness among the three approaches. Consequently, based on the results of the studies, it can be said that computer- based data driven learning and paper- based data driven learning can be exploited by researchers, teachers and learners.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the information about the research design, the participants, the instruments to collect data, the procedure and the data analysis.

This study was designed to investigate the differential effect of the two types of instruction, explicit and implicit, on teaching adj + noun collocation patterns to the secondary school learners by employing a quasi-experimental with pre-, post-, and delayed post-test research design at a state school in Ceyhan, Adana.

3.2. Design of the Study

A quasi-experimental design, composed of three instruments, was formed to collect data. The reason why true experiment was not implemented was that the researcher could not intervene in the curriculum at the secondary school and had only two classes, which did not give any chance to apply random assignment because true experimental study differs from quasi-experimental design in that the former is carried out with random assignment (Nunan, 1992; Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Nunan (1992) and Campbell & Stanley (1963) allege that a quasi- experimental study can be conducted as it is not always possible to implement true experimental studies, and the impossibility of randomly assigning subject to experimental and comparison groups may occur.

In this study, pre-, post-, and delayed post-test quasi-experimental design with a comparison group was used. The instruction of adjective + noun collocations was applied to two groups, the experimental and the comparison group. In this collocational relation, the adjectives in the specified units in the students' course book were taken as basis and their collocation with head nouns were targeted at. Initially, *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was used in order to determine the level of English of the students prior to the instructional intervention. Before the instruction, each group was given a pre-test on the target items. The comparison group was taught the target patterns using an implicit instruction. More

specifically, target adjectives was instructed as they were presented in the textbook. That is, the students' attention was attracted to the collocates of these adjectives. On the other hand, the experimental group was taught the target patterns using an explicit instruction by directing their attention to the collocates of the adjectives with an aim to raise the learners' awareness.

3.3. Participants

This study was conducted at Gazi Secondary School in Ceyhan, Adana after the required permission (see Appendix 1) was obtained from the school administration. With regard to sampling of the participants, this study pursued to include all the Grade 8-students (two classes: 8/A & 8/B) so that using only one school where the researcher herself taught would support the feasibility of the design and the implementation of the study. This was due to the researcher's involvement at a school for a particular time would be required when the design of the current study was taken into consideration. Therefore, the researcher herself could not intervene in the selection of the participants because the classes were formed by the school principal and vice principal before the beginning of the academic year. So, a type of non-probability sampling method called as 'convenience sampling' was used in *the quantitative phase of this study*. "Convenience sampling" was also useful for the researcher in terms of the inclusion of the participants where the selection of the adjectives and nouns in the course book was relatively easy to access and carry out in the matter of cost and time.

The study was conducted in the second term of the academic year 2017-2018. The study was carried out with the participation of two classes of 64 students who were 8th grade students whose ages vary among 14 and 15. Two groups were formed as experimental and comparison. The experimental group comprised 11 girls and 21 boys, totalling 32 participants. In the same way, the comparison group was composed of 13 girls and 19 boys, totalling 32 participants. Prior to the instructional intervention, the participants were administered *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* created by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) and it was found that the participants were at the A1 level of language proficiency. Distribution of the participants according to their gender and group is given below in Table 5.

Table 5.

Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender and Group

GROUP	GENDER	N	TOTAL
Comparison	Male	19	
	Female	13	
Experimental	Male	21	
	Female	11	
			64

Based on the test results, of the 32 participants in the experimental group, 2 students were found that they did not take the exam since they were absent that day and of the 32 participants in the comparison group, 3 students were found that they did not take the exam for the same reason, thus those students who could not take the placement test were later excluded from the study. There were 30 students for experimental group and 29 students for comparison group left to be included in the study.

Before the instructional intervention started, the pre-test was applied to both groups. Based on the pre-test results, of the 30 participants in the experimental group, 2 students were found that they did not take the exam since they were absent on that day and of the 29 participants in the comparison group, 1 student was also absent due to their absence on the day which pre-test was applied. Hence, these absent students were excluded from the study. Finally, 28 participants both in the experimental and comparison group were included in the study.

After the instructional intervention terminated, the post-test was applied to both groups. Based on the post-test results, of the 28 participants in the experimental group, 1 student could not take the exam because she changed her school and of the 28 participants in the comparison group, 3 students could not, either, due to the same reason. After all, 27 participants in the experimental group and 25 participants in the comparison group were left due to the fact that absent students were excluded from the study.

After applying the delayed-post test, it was seen that of the 27 participants in the experimental group, 5 students and of the 25 participants in the comparison group 4 students did not take the test due to the fact that they were absent on that day or they changed their school. Those students who could not take even one of the tests were excluded from the study. There were 22 students left for the experimental group and 21 students left for the comparison group. One of the students from the experimental group

were also randomly excluded from the study in order to equalize the group numbers and the ultimate number of the participants declined to 21 for both groups as shown in the following Table.

Table 6.

The Ultimate Distribution of the Participants According to Their Gender and Group

GROUP	GENDER	N	TOTAL
Comparison	Male	11	
	Female	10	
Experimental	Male	14	
	Female	7	
			42

The students in these groups were thought to have very similar academic background and they followed the similar academic program; thus not much difference in the amount of language education or language exposure between these two groups was expected, which was also verified with the help of *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004). The researcher herself was the English teacher of the classes.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

The instruments were developed according to the research design and research questions of the study since quasi- experimental research design contains pre- and post-test as assessment tools for measuring the students' knowledge; nevertheless, in this study, the delayed post test was also used to determine to what extent the explicit instruction was effective for the students in the experimental group to retain the knowledge that they obtained, which was also thought to reveal the real impact of the instructional intervention, thereby reinforcing the validity and reliability of the study. *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was also used to determine the students' level of English prior to the study.

3.4.1. Placement Test

In order to determine the level of English of the experimental and comparison group, *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was used. This quick placement test is divided into two parts; Part 1 consists of 40 questions for all students and part 2 consists of 20 questions and this part is for ones who can finish part 1 without any problems. Part 2 was not used in this study as the participants were beginners and they had even some difficulty in understanding Part 1 and were not able to complete Part 2. This test is a multiple choice test which assesses vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. (see Appendix 2 for the placement test)

3.4.2. The Pre-test / Post-test & Delayed Post-test

For both the experimental and the comparison group, the tests were designed by the researcher and administered before and after the treatment both to determine the learners' initial knowledge of the collocation pattern in concern and measure the impact of the two types of collocation instruction and to assess the difference.

The adjectives in pre-test, which were also used as a post-test & delayed post-test, were taken from the course book. As the students were eight- graders and they were going to have an exam called LGS (Liselere Giriş Sınavı "High School Entrance Exam") at the end of the year, the curriculum had to be followed, so ten adjectives in the textbook were used in the tests. The collocates of the target adjectives were selected using the British National Corpus (BNC) online service based on the collocational strengths of the head nouns with the adjectives in question. The selection of the head nouns with the adjectives was determined through their MI (Mutual Information) score because it is an association measure commonly used in corpus studies and implemented in a huge number of corpus tools (Brezina, McEnery & Wattam, 2015). Besides, it was ensured that the collocates of the target adjectives were not only suitable for the participants' language level but also related to the units according to curriculum due to the fact that the researcher herself would also teach the target units during the study. (see Appendix 3 to see how target nouns were selected).

The following table shows the target adjectives and selected three nouns for each adjective.

Table 7.

*The Collocates of the Target Adjectives According to BNC**

ADJECTIVES	NOUNS	MI SCORE	FREQ.	THE ORDINAL NUMBER OF THE NOUN
1.AMUSING	Moments	5.39	2	18.
	Joke	5.92	2	16.
	Anectodes	10.85	7	2.
2.CHALLENGING	Enviroment	3.95	5	5.
	Activities	4.12	5	4.
	Task	5.47	10	2.
3. DISAPPOINTING	Campaign	4.74	5	10.
	Performance	6.04	17	2.
	Results	6.40	26	1.
4. EMBARRASING	Mistake	4.66	2	32.
	Defeat	5.73	4	9.
	Photos	5.90	1	109.
5. ENTERTAINING	Evening	4.73	7	4.
	Friends	5.11	10	2.
	Movie	6.44	3	11.
6. FASCINATING	Book	3.75	11	10.
	City	3.86	11	9.
	Story	5.88	26	2.
7. THRILLING	Experience	4.71	4	6.
	Game	4.87	3	12.
	Adventure	7.56	2	19.
8. EXCITING	Sport	3.34	3	62.
	News	4.11	16	7.
	Discoveries	7.30	7	24.
9. FRIGHTENING	Place	3.62	6	6.
	Story	3.89	2	42.
	Picture	4.21	2	40.
10. TIRING	Work	3.22	5	3.
	Day	5.28	14	1.
	Journey	7.95	7	2.

*Examples of usage taken from the British National Corpus (BNC) were obtained under the terms of the BNC End User Licence. Copyright in the individual texts cited resides with the original IPR holders. For information and licensing conditions relating to the BNC, please see the web site at http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/

As the students' level was A1, some sentences were really difficult for their proficiency level according to the sentences taken from the BNC online service. Therefore, some sentences in the tests (the post-test and delayed post-test) were originally written by the researcher, some were simplified by taking from the BNC online service or some were re-written using the examples from the Cambridge Dictionary. (see Appendix 4 for the pre-, post, and delayed post-test).

The pre-, post- and delayed post test had four parts as mentioned below: two sections were reserved for the assessment of receptive knowledge and two for the productive knowledge. The tests were designed in a way to incorporate these two types of knowledge since English collocation is important in receptive as well as productive language competence as is noted by Cowie (1992).

3.4.2.1. Part 1

Part 1 focused on adjective and it evaluated receptive knowledge. It was composed of ten sentences and each of which had one target adjective. The students were expected to read the sentences and write the Turkish meaning of each adjective which was underlined. The aim of this test is to see whether the participants knew the meaning of the adjectives or they were able to deduce their meaning from the collocates of the target adjectives in the sentences. An example from the pre-test is as follows;

TURKISH

1. The book is full of **amusing** jokes.

……

3.4.2.2. Part 2

Part 2 focused on adjective and it evaluated productive vocabulary knowledge. This subtest was a cued fill-in-the- blank test. It was composed of ten sentences, each of which had one target adjectives whose letters were missing except for their first three letters. The participants were expected to complete each adjective as soon as they read the whole sentence. The aim of this test is to see whether the participants knew the spelling of the adjectives. You can see one question from the pre-test as follows;

1. The book is full of **amu……..** anectodes.

3.4.2.3. Part 3

Part 3 focused on collocates and it evaluated receptive knowledge. It had a multiple choice format with ten questions and each question had six different options. Each question had one target adjective. Three options were correct in terms of the collocates of the target adjectives and three options were not correct since they had different nouns which were not used with those target adjectives. The participants were expected to choose 3 correct options for each question. The aim of this test is to see whether the participants could identify collocational patterns. You can see one question from the pre-test as follows;

1. The book is full of **amusing**…… about the writer's childhood.

a. anectodes b. tables c. jokes d. moments e. problems f. phones

3.4.2.4. Part 4

Part 4 focused on collocates and it evaluated productive vocabulary knowledge. It was composed of ten target adjectives. Each target adjective was written as a title and each adjective had four blanks. Three collocates of the adjective had only two letters and the participants were expected to complete these collocates and also wrote an extra collocate which was suitable for that adjective as the forth option. An exemplary question from the pre- test is given below;

c. amusing

1) an…….

2) mo……..

3) jo……

4)…….

3.5. Instructional Materials

During the instructional intervention, the same materials were used for both groups.

The first material was a video clip. The video clip was about some extreme sport activities covering target adjectives, which attracted the students' attention to the meaning of the adjectives.

The second material was a matching activity prepared by the teacher. It consisted of both target adjectives and other vocabularies in the textbook. The students in both groups were expected to match the pictures and the words. (see Appendix 5 to see the worksheet activity)

The third material was the course book because it also had some activities covering target adjectives such as matching the adjectives with their dictionary meaning, reading a passage and completing a table, writing a paragraph using target adjectives. As the same textbook was used in both groups, the same activities were conducted with them.

The fourth material was a paper based concordance activity prepared by the teacher. The paper based concordance activity, the sentences of which were taken from the BNC web concordancer, was utilised to expose the students more to the contexts that the target adjectives were used in. However, the use of the concordance activity for the groups differed. The attention of the comparison group was just drawn to the usage of the adjectives in different contexts and the students were expected to learn the collocates of the adjectives deductively. On the other hand, the attention of the experimental group was directed to the collocates of the adjectives in order for them to learn inductively. (see Appendix 6 to see the concordance activities)

3.6. Pilot Study

As mentioned before, participants of the study were 8 graders who were going to have an exam named TEOG (Temel Eğitimden Ortaöğretime Geçiş- Transition from Primary to Secondary Education) in the first term. Actually, the exam was going to cover first three units and it was supposed to be applied towards the end of the first term but it was cancelled just two months earlier than the exam. However, the participants in both groups had already studied first three units in summer before the school started, which means that they had already known all vocabularies of the first three units in the textbook. The fact was clarified with the help of a vocabulary quiz prepared by the teacher. In this vocabulary quiz, the students were supposed to write the Turkish meaning of the words including both adjectives and nouns in the first three units. Nearly

most of the students managed to complete the quiz successfully because of the fact that they memorize all the vocabularies before the school started. This means that the adjectives and nouns which were to be used as collocational patterns cannot be instructed either explicitly or implicitly since the students had already been familiar with them. Hence, the first three units were excluded from the study.

Prior to unit 4, a vocabulary quiz consisting of all nouns and adjectives in that unit was applied to assess the participants' vocabulary knowledge. The participants in both groups were expected to write the Turkish meaning of those vocabularies. Most of the students did not write the Turkish meaning of the vocabularies. The researchers could not decide whether the students had no idea about those vocabularies or they did not simply remember their meaning during the quiz. It was concluded that just a single recognition vocabulary quiz was not sufficient to detect the participants' vocabulary knowledge. Consequently, unit 4 was excluded from the study due to the fact that the participants' vocabulary knowledge from unit 4 could not be detected accurately.

Prior to unit 5, another vocabulary quiz consisting of all nouns and adjectives in that unit was applied to assess the participants' vocabulary knowledge, but the test was a simple recognition test in a multiple choice format. The sentences in the test were prepared with the help of the course book and Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary. The participants in both groups were expected to choose the correct nouns which could fit those adjectives to form correct adjective+ noun collocates. It was understood that it could not give us correct information about the participants' knowledge since it was a multiple choice test and some of the participants from both groups may have found the correct options by chance instead of choosing them consciously.

It was concluded from those quizzes that the test, which were to be used as a pre-, post- and delayed post-test in the study, should have assessed both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. Those quizzes also gave us a chance to prepare an accurate pre-test having four parts which reinforce the validity and reliability of the test, as well.

During the pilot study, the researcher followed the curriculum according to that academic year and the course book was used as an instructional material as it should be because five units were supposed to be finished for the first term. The activities about adjectives and nouns were carried out and it was also seen that activities in the textbook could be useful for participants in both groups during the treatment sessions.

Finally, it was decided that adjectives would be chosen from unit 6 and 7 and pre-test would be administered in the second term as there was a semester holiday upcoming. Briefly, the pilot study showed us how to prepare an accurate pre-test and what kind of materials could be used except for the course book in the instructional intervention according to proficiency level of the participants.

3.7. Procedure

At the beginning of the first term, prior to the instructional intervention, *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was used in order to determine the level of English of the experimental and comparison group,. According to the result, their language level was A1 and it was understood from the result that the participants were beginners. After determining the participants' English level, pilot study was followed out. The details about the pilot study were mentioned in the previous chapter.

The study was carried out in the second term of 2017-2018 academic year as the pilot study showed that the participants were familiar with certain descriptive adjectives and nouns which were planned to be included in the study. Hence, it was agreed on the fact that present participle adjectives with which the participant were not familiar were included in the study as these adjectives were in both unit 6 and unit 7 in accordance with their curriculum and course book in the school and therefore had to be taught. And the nouns which will be collocates with the target adjectives were selected not only using BNC web based on the collocational strengths of the head nouns with the adjectives both also checking the course book to see whether those nouns were included or not.

Prior to the pre-test, a vocabulary quiz consisting of all adjectives and nouns in unit 6 and unit 7 was administered for the participants in both groups to determine their vocabulary knowledge. The quiz was a simple recognition test that the participants in both groups were expected to write Turkish meaning of those vocabularies. Consequently, ten adjectives the meaning of which students couldn't know were chosen to be used in the instruction and the tests. Moreover, the collocates of the target adjectives were determined using BNC web based on the collocational strengths with

the adjectives in question. Three nouns were selected for each adjective to create the collocates..

The pre-test was administered one week prior to the treatment session in order to know the students' knowledge of the target vocabularies and the participants were not expected to answer the all questions because they didn't have an exact idea about the topic. The pre-test had four parts and each part assessed different aspect of target collocates, so all the parts could not be applied in a day as eight graders had a four-hour-English lesson a week but two-hour-lesson in a day. The first two parts were administered in the two-hour English lesson, the other two parts were administered in another two-hour English lesson. Some of the questions in one part which assessed the receptive knowledge could be cues for another part which evaluated the productive vocabulary knowledge. Hence, all the parts of the pre-test were administered in different English lessons on different days. Administration of the pre-test lasted nearly one week. All the parts of the pre-test instructions were written in English. To prevent misunderstanding, the instructions were also orally given in Turkish. The participants were assured that the result wouldn't be announced in the class and would not affect their grades. They were informed that the data was collected because of a research. 20 minutes for each part were allowed to the participants to complete the pre-test, and they were told that they should not leave any test items unanswered.

The post-test was administered after the treatment sessions were terminated and the participants were expected to answer more questions correctly than they did in the pre-test due to an increase in knowledge and understanding because of the instructional intervention. Two weeks later, the same test called delayed post-test was administered to see the retention of the collocational patterns which were instructed.

After applying pre-test, the intervention period started.

In the treatment sessions, implicit instruction for the comparison group and explicit instruction for the experimental group were adopted. In the implicit instruction, the participants' attention was attracted to target collocational patterns. The researcher used the collocational patterns spontaneously throughout the instruction. The students were expected to recognize the patterns on their own and to apply them. In terms of instructional methodology, inductive instruction was benefited throughout the intervention process in the comparison group. Inductive approach is a much more student-centered approach, so the centre of the instruction was mostly on the participants. The researcher anticipated that significantly higher learning gains would

result from the inductive instruction due to the fact that the participants had more responsibilities and they were more active in inductive instruction. Nevertheless, in the explicit instruction which was used for the experimental group, the participants' attention were directed to the target collocational patterns. The researcher presented the target adjective + noun collocations and she was involved in the controlled practice of the target collocational patterns. In terms of instructional methodology, deductive instruction was benefited throughout the intervention process in the experimental group. In deductive approach, the instruction was a more teacher-centred approach as compared to inductive approach. Hence, the researcher clearly promoted the participants to have knowledge of collocation and the participants were expected to understand the patterns and produced significant learning gains on both receptive and productive post-test due to the fact that any misleading was prevented by the teacher.

3.7.1. Intervention Process

Table 8 illustrates a detailed frame of the intervention period in the study.

Table 8.

Weekly Flow of the Intervention

		COMPARISON (implicit inst.)	**EXPERIMENTAL (explicit ins.)**	
WEEK	**TARGET ITEMS**	**ACTIVITIES**		**DURATION**
Week 1	All of the adjectives	✓ *Video clip* Speaking activity (question-answer) ✓ *worksheet* (matching activity)	✓ *Video clip* Speaking activity (question-answer) ✓ *worksheet* (matching activity)	*80 min. (40+40)*
Week 2	Adj 1 Adj 2	✓ *coursebook* activity (matching activity) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **Brainstorming (orally)** ✓ writing activity	✓ *coursebook* activity (matching activity) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **creating a mind map** ✓ writing activity	*80 min.*
Week 3	Adj 3 Adj 4	✓ *coursebook* activity	✓ *coursebook* activity	*80 min. (40+40)*

		(reading act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **Brainstorming (orally)** ✓ writing activity	(reading act) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **creating a mind map** ✓ writing activity	
Week 4	Adj 5 Adj 6	✓ *coursebook* activity (listening act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **Brainstorming (orally)** ✓ writing activity	✓ *coursebook* activity (listening act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **creating a mind map** ✓ writing activity	*80 min. (40+40)*
Week 5	Adj 7 Adj 8	✓ *coursebook* activity (reading act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **Brainstorming (orally)** ✓ writing activity	✓ *coursebook* activity (reading act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **creating a mind map** ✓ writing activity	*80 min. (40+40)*
Week 6	Adj 9 Adj 10	✓ coursebook activity (speaking act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **Brainstorming (orally)** ✓ writing activity	✓ coursebook activity (speaking act.) ✓ **concordance activity** ✓ **creating a mind map** ✓ writing activity	*80 min. (40+40)*

The treatment sessions were explained in a detailed way as follows;

In the first instructional intervention, the first material -video clip- was used in both groups. The video clip was about some extreme sports activities covering target adjectives, which attracted to the students' attention on meaning of the adjectives. Those adjectives were also in the course book according to the curriculum. After watching the video, some questions were asked to the participants such as;

What do you think about the video?

What do you think about extreme sports?

Is the climbing mountain exciting or boring?

Do you prefer a fascinating balloon ride or a thrilling bungee jumping activity?

Which one do prefer; an entertaining rafting or a challenging sky diving?

Which one is your favourite; an exciting motor racing or fascinating paragliding?

Which one is worse; a tiring rafting or a boring caving?

The aim of the video was to teach the meaning of those present participle adjectives and to use them in a sentence consisting of some adjective + noun collocates. Thus, the participants were expected to answer those questions using target adjectives.

Following this, in the comparison group, the questions containing the adjective + noun collocates were asked without drawing their attention to the patterns. Similarly, the students were expected to make some sentences including the target adjectives without explicitly directing them to collocational patterns. In this implicit instruction, the teacher used inductive teaching model. The teacher provided students many questions and answers including adjective + noun collocates to show how the collocations work. The aim of this instruction is for the participants to "notice" with the help of those questions and answers.

On the other hand, in the experimental group, the students were expected to answer the questions paying attention on the adjective + noun collocates as they were explicitly directed to the same collocational patterns. In this explicit instruction, the teacher used deductive teaching model. The teacher firstly introduced the students adjective + noun collocations and explained how the collocations work and then the students answered the questions including adjective + noun collocates.

In the same lesson, a worksheet, about those adjectives was handed out in both groups and the participants were expected to match the pictures with suitable vocabularies including target adjectives, nouns and sportive activities mentioned in the textbook. The aim of the worksheet was to see to what extent the participants could remember the meaning of the adjectives. (see the appendix 4 to examine the worksheet.)

In the second instructional intervention, the activities in the textbook were supposed to be done in accordance with the curriculum for both groups. First activity in the course book was a matching activity covering target adjectives. Students in both groups matched the adjectives with their dictionary meaning. This is the phase that the researcher had to follow up the curriculum.

In the same lesson, two adjectives and their collocates which were determined using BNC web online service based on their collocational strengths were introduced in both comparison and experimental group. The first group (comparison) was given implicit instruction while the latter (experimental) was administered explicit instruction regarding the use of the said construction. That is to say; the students in the comparison group were expected to learn the target adjective + noun collocates unintentionally, which means they were not aware of that those specific collocates were taught. However; in the experimental group, the students acquired the same collocational patterns consciously because the teacher taught those target patterns intentionally. In this way of instruction, the teacher's purpose was clear and the students focused on the given information.

After that, a paper based concordance activity was handed out for both groups. In this concordancer, there were a lot of sentences including target adjectives and their mostly used head nous which could be collocates taken from BNC web online service. In the comparison group, the adjective + noun collocations were implicitly presented in a contextual way and the participants were expected to deduce that adjectives could be collocates with certain nouns. Nevertheless, in the experimental group, the teacher introduced the students the adjective + noun collocates, explained them and the students paid attention on the same collocational patterns.

Later on, in the experimental group, the students were expected to write many nouns which could be collocates with target adjectives with the help of a mind map. (see Appendix 7 to see a mind map sample). The teacher directly drew their attention to collocational patterns and controlled the process. Namely, the teacher wrote one target adjective in the middle of the board and she expected the students to tell a lot of nouns which could be collocates with it and she wrote the nouns around the targeted adjective. Similarly, the students drew a mind map on their notebooks. The same activity was carried out in the comparison group and they were expected to tell a lot of nouns which could be collocates with target adjectives. The teacher was not active and the instruction was not teacher-centered. Hence, the teacher did not draw a mind map in the middle of the board and she did not expect them to draw a mind map on their notebooks, either. The teacher attracted the participants' attention on the target patterns. Finally, the participants in both groups were told to write some sentences including target adjectives and nouns around them. In the comparison group, the participants were able to write a few sentences including target adjectives but without the noun collocates. (see

Appendix 8 to see the students' sentences). However, in the experimental group, the participants were able to write many sentences including nouns which could be collocates with the target adjectives.

In the third instructional intervention, a reading activity including target adjectives in the course book was carried out. This is the phase that the teacher had to follow up the curriculum. After finishing this activity, two adjectives and their collocates were introduced implicitly in the comparison group but explicitly in the experimental group as it was carried out in the previous week. The same procedure was followed until ten adjectives and their collocates were presented while following the activities in the course book according to the curriculum.

The instructional period lasted for six weeks due to the fact that two adjective + noun pattern with three head nouns each were presented each week, the curriculum had to be followed and the activities in the textbook had to be finished in the meanwhile. Although it was observed that both the comparison and the experimental group were enthusiastic about the activities at the beginning, they showed reluctance and began to disengage in the last sessions because they complained about doing the same activities for each adjective + noun pattern such as examining the concordancer, creating more noun collacates for the target adjectives, drawing mind map or brainstorming orally and writing sentences including collocations. While introducing two targeted adjective and their head nouns which could be collates with them, the students had to finish the activities in the course book, too. Hence, the last treatment sessions were completed with difficulty. Due to this reason, the teacher understood that last sessions were not as effective as the first sessions.

After the treatment sessions were terminated, the post- test was applied in both groups. The administration of the post-test lasted nearly one week. As it was mentioned before, some of the questions in one part could be cues for another part, so all the parts of the post-test were administered in different English lessons.

Two weeks later, both the comparison and experimental group were administered a delayed post-test to measure to what extent they had retained the new knowledge they had been exposed to. Similarly the delayed post- test lasted for one week like pre-test and post-test for the same reasons.

3.8. Data Analysis

In this study, the data were gathered and analyzed quantitatively.

Before the instructional intervention began, *The Second Version of Quick Placement Test* developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (Syndicate, 2004) was applied in order to determine the level of English of the experimental and comparison group. This quick placement test was analyzed through an *independent-samples t-test.*

The data collected by pre-, post- and delayed post-test were analyzed through *a non-parametric test*. In order to find out if there was a significant difference within groups, the non-parametric alternative *Friedman Test* was applied. Moreover, *Mann-Whitney U test* was applied to examine and compare the effectiveness of implicit and explicit instruction on the collocational development in the groups.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, we will provide both the summary and interpretations of the results obtained from the data collection tools implemented on the participants. This quasi- experimental study was guided by two research questions which will be addressed through the analysis of the data. Namely;

a. Of the two types of instructions, explicit and implicit, which will be more effective in terms of learning gains regarding the target collocational patterns as assessed by pre-test and post-test measures?
b. Of the explicit and implicit instructional methods which will help the learners retain more knowledge of the collocational patterns as assessed by post-test and delayed post-test measures?

4.2. Analysis of the General Proficiency Test

Before the instructional intervention began, an independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there was a difference between the placement test scores of the comparison and the experimental group.

The following table presents the number of participants (N), mean, standard deviation (SD) and standard error of mean (SEM) for the comparison and experimental group. 21 students participated in the study and the mean scores of the students from both the comparison and the experimental group are respectively 13.05 and 13.02. Relatively small standard deviation indicates that student scores are clustered close to the mean.

Table 9.

The number of Participants (N), Mean, Standard deviation (SD) and Standard error of mean (SEM) for the Comparison and Experimental Group

GROUPS	N	Mean	SD	SEM
Comparison	21	13.05	3.04	.65
Experimental	21	13.04	2.80	.61

The test of normality was run to determine if the score distributions for both groups were normal. The following table presents the normality test result. The p-values are .271 and .308 from Shapiro-Wilk test of normality being greater than .05 indicated that the assumption of normality was met. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10.

The Statistics for Shapiro-Wilk test of Normality

Tests of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	GROUPS	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
	Comparison	.208	21	.018	.945	21	.271
	Experimental	.173	21	.099	.948	21	.308

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The following table presents the statistics for The Levene's Test for Equal variances. The p-value of .915 indicates that the difference between the variances is statistically insignificant which enabled the researcher to reject the null hypothesis that variances were equal. Having determined that there is a difference between the variances in the population, an independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences between the experimental and comparison group before the intervention began.

Table 11 below presents statistics obtained from the independent samples t-test analysis. There were 21 participants in each group. The data revealed that there were no outliers, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Placement test scores for each group

were normally distributed as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p>.05$). The significance value (.994) being greater than .05 indicates that the scores in the comparison group do not vary too much from those in the experimental group and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances. Similarly, the Sig (2-Tailed) value ($p=.915$) being greater than .05 confirm that there was no statistically significant difference between the comparison and the experimental groups in terms of language proficiency before the collocation instruction began.

In order to assess the effect of instructional intervention within and between the comparison and experimental groups, the mixed two-way repeated measures ANOVA test was applied to the pre-, post-, and delayed post-test results.

Table 11.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std.Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SCORES	Equal variances assumed	.000	.994	.107	40	.915	.09524	.89163	-1.70682	1.89730
	Equal variances not assumed			.107	39.857	.915	.09524	.89163	-1.70702	1.89750

4.3. Two-Way Mixed ANOVA

After the intervention was completed, a two-way mixed ANOVA was run to determine if there was a two-way interaction, that is, an interaction between the between-subjects and within-subjects factors. More specifically, the researcher wanted to find out whether one of two different treatments (i.e. the explicit and the implicit instruction of adjective + noun collocation) was more effective and durable at learning the adjectives concerned with their collocates. Therefore, the dependent variable was student gains, whilst the within-subjects factor was time and the between-subjects factor was the treatment techniques. More specifically, the two different treatments were the explicit instruction (experimental group) and the implicit instruction (comparison group). These two types of instructions are the two groups of the "between-subjects" factor.

Before carrying out the two-way mixed ANOVA, a series of assumptions had to be met to determine to what extent our data fitted the two-way mixed ANOVA model. Two of the assumptions – outliers and normality are presented below. There were seven outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a box plot for values greater than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box as seen in Figure 2.

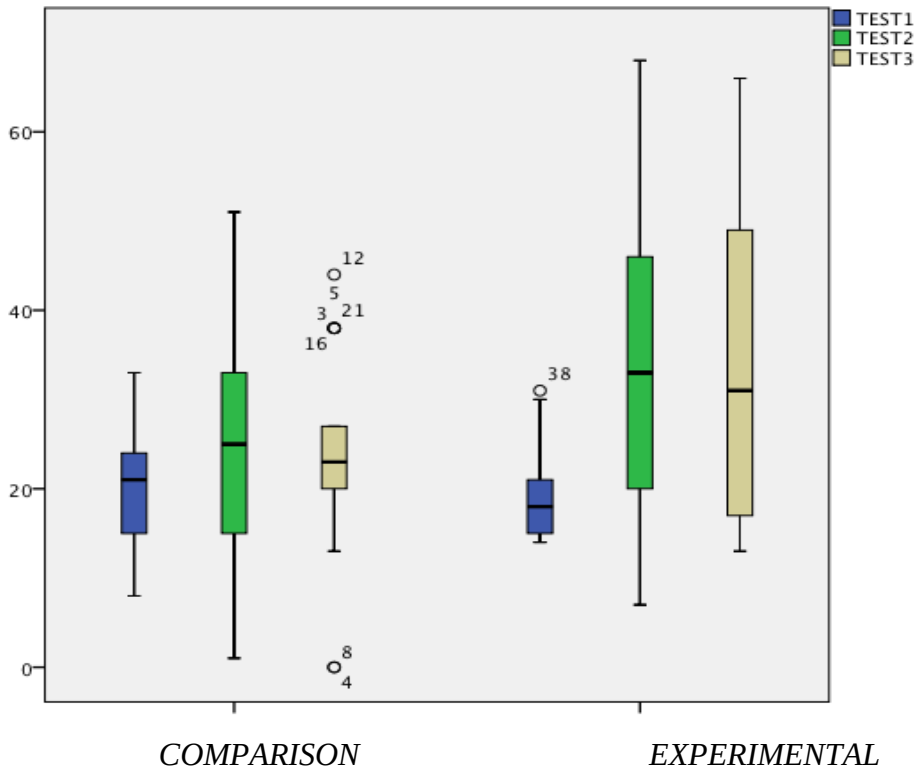


Figure 2. Assessment of outliers in the data through a boxplot

These outliers were kept and the analysis proceeded to Shapiro-Wilk's test to determine if data were normally distributed. However, it was found that data were not normally distributed as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test (p>.05). The values .011 and .011 for the pre-test and the delayed post-test for the experimental group respectively indicates that the data significantly deviate from a normal distribution as seen in Table 12. Furthermore, it can be seen in table 13 that there was no homogeneity of variances for groups based on post-tests and delayed post-tests, as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variance (p > .05)

Table 12.

Shapiro-Wilk's Normality Test Results

Tests of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	GROUP	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre	COMPARISON	.102	21	.200*	.967	21	.665
	EXPERIMENTAL	.161	21	.166	.873	21	.011
Post	COMPARISON	.101	21	.200*	.983	21	.961
	EXPERIMENTAL	.177	21	.086	.936	21	.181
DPost	COMPARISON	.163	21	.149	.921	21	.092
	EXPERIMENTAL	.179	21	.077	.873	21	.011

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

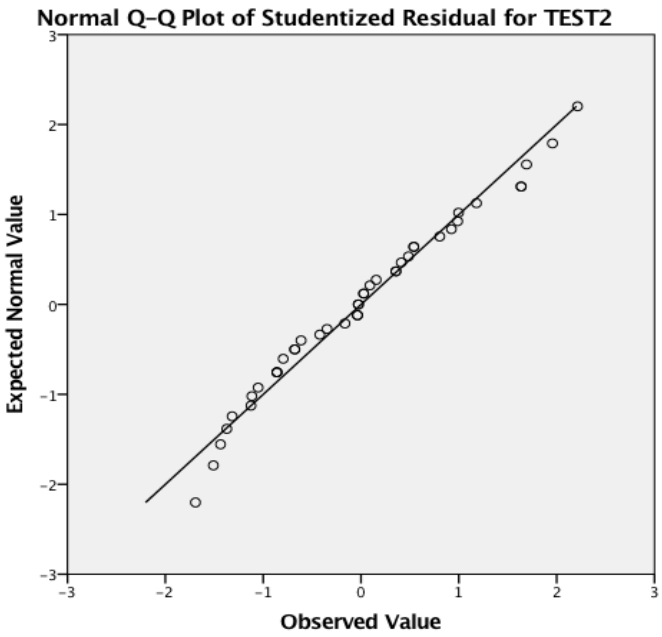


Figure 3. Assumption of homogeneity of variances

Table 13.

The statistics for Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]				
	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Pre-test	1.351	1	40	.252
Post-test	4.392	1	40	.042
DPost-test	5.825	1	40	.020

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + GROUP

Within Subjects Design: Time

Since the data obtained did not meet the assumptions required by two -way mixed ANOVA, the researcher had to resort to non-parametric tests to determine whether there were any changes in students knowledge of adjective + noun collocation over time and which instructional technique was more effective for those in the experimental or the comparison group if there occurred any changes in their knowledge of the said collocation relation. In order to find out if there was a significant difference within groups, the non-parametric alternative *Friedman Test* was applied. In order to

find out if there was a difference between the groups regarding the intervention, the *Mann-Whitney U* test was applied.

4.4. Analysis Of The Differences Within Group - Friedman Test

4.4.1. Comparison Group

In the comparison group, the researcher aimed to see the effect of implicit instruction on the adjective + noun collocates. Before the intervention, the pre-test was applied to see whether the participants had any knowledge about adjective + noun collocates. After the intervention period was terminated, the post-test and the delayed post-test were applied to analyze whether there occurred any changes in their knowledge of the target collocational patterns. The data obtained from the tests were analyzed with the help of the *non-parametric alternative Friedman Test* as the data gathered did not meet the assumptions of two-way mixed ANOVA. The following table presents the required statistics for the comparison group.

Table 14.

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for the Comparison Group

GROUP	N		Pre- test	Post-test	DPost-test
Comparison	21	Median	21.0	25.0	23.0
		Min.	8.0	1.00	0.00
		Max.	33.0	51.00	44.00
		Mean	20.43	24.57	23.52
		Std Dev.	6.55	12.90	11.47

A Friedman test was run to determine if there were differences between pre, post, and delayed-post test during a nine-week collocation instruction programme for the comparison group. The significance level was set at $p < .05$. It was observed that there was an increase in student scores from pre- (Mdn = 21.0), to post (Mdn = 25.0), to delayed-post test (Mdn = 23.0); however, the differences were not statistically significant, $\chi 2(2) = 4.554$, $p = .103$. Hence, this indicates that implicit instruction had no effect on students' gains of collocational knowledge. Multiple comparisons were not performed because the overall test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in the comparison group (Table 15 and Figure 4).

Table 15.

Statistics for the Comparison Group

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	**Test**	**Sig.**	**Decision**
1	The distributions of PRE, POST and DPOST are the same.	Related- Samples Friedman's Two-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks	.103	No statistically significant difference within group comparison

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

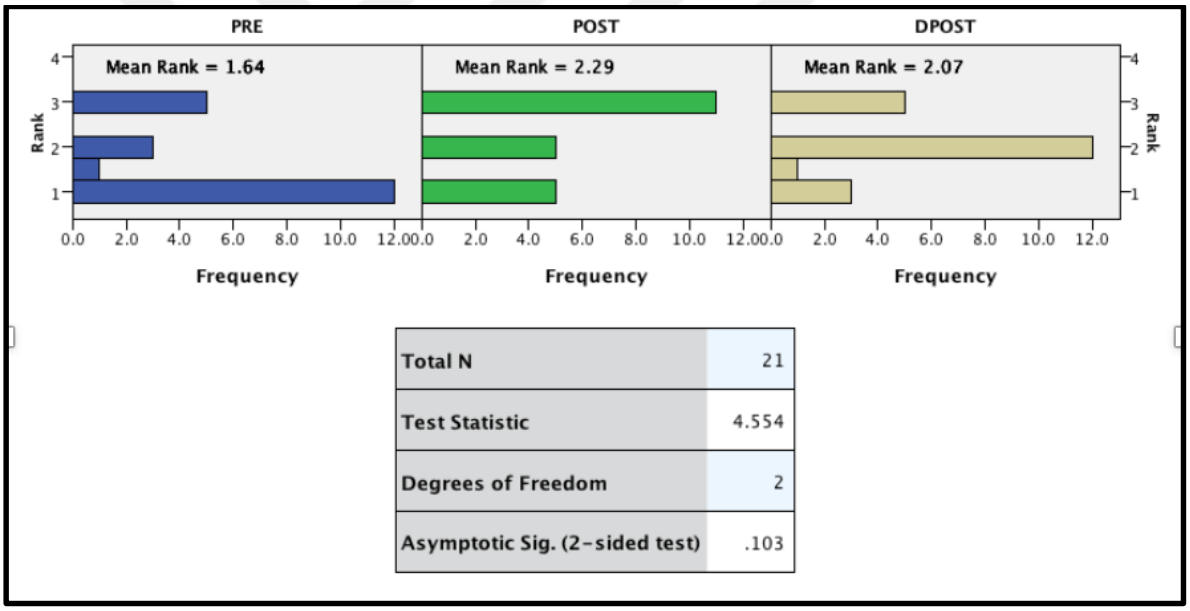


Figure 4. Related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance by ranks for the comparison group

4.4.2. Experimental Group

In the experimental group, the researcher aimed to see the effect of explicit instruction on the adjective + noun collocates. Before the intervention, the pre-test was applied to see whether the participants had any knowledge about adjective + noun collocates. After the intervention period was terminated, the post-test and the delayed post-test were applied to analyze whether there occurred any changes in their

knowledge of the target collocational patterns. The data obtained from the tests were analyzed with the help of the *non-parametric alternative Friedman Test* as the data gathered did not meet the assumptions of two-way mixed ANOVA. The following table presents the required statistics for the experimental group.

Table 16.

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental Group

GROUP	N		Pre- test	Post-test	DPost-test
Experimental	21	Median	18.00	33.00	31.00
		Min.	14.00	7.00	13.00
		Max.	31.00	68.00	66.00
		Mean	19.19	33.43	33.14
		Std Dev.	5.15	18.60	18.12

A Friedman test was run to determine if there were differences between pre, post, and delayed-post test during a nine-week collocation instruction programme for experimental group. Student gains were statistically significantly different at the different time points during the collocation instruction, $\chi 2(2) = 14.095$, $p = .001$. Table 17 and Figure 5 present the findings obtained from Friedman Test.

Table 17.

Statistics for the Experimental Group

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	**Test**	**Sig.**	**Decision**
1	The distributions of PRE, POST and DPOST are the same.	Related-Samples Friedman's Two-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks	.001	Statistically significant difference within group comparisons.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

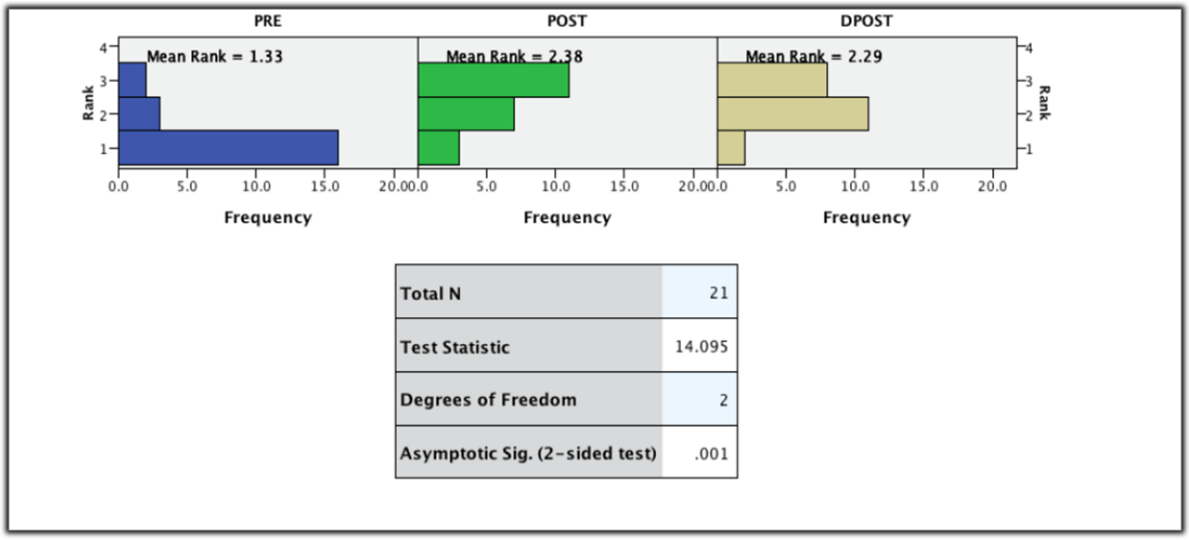


Figure 5. Related-samples Friedman's two-way analysis of variance by ranks for the experimental group

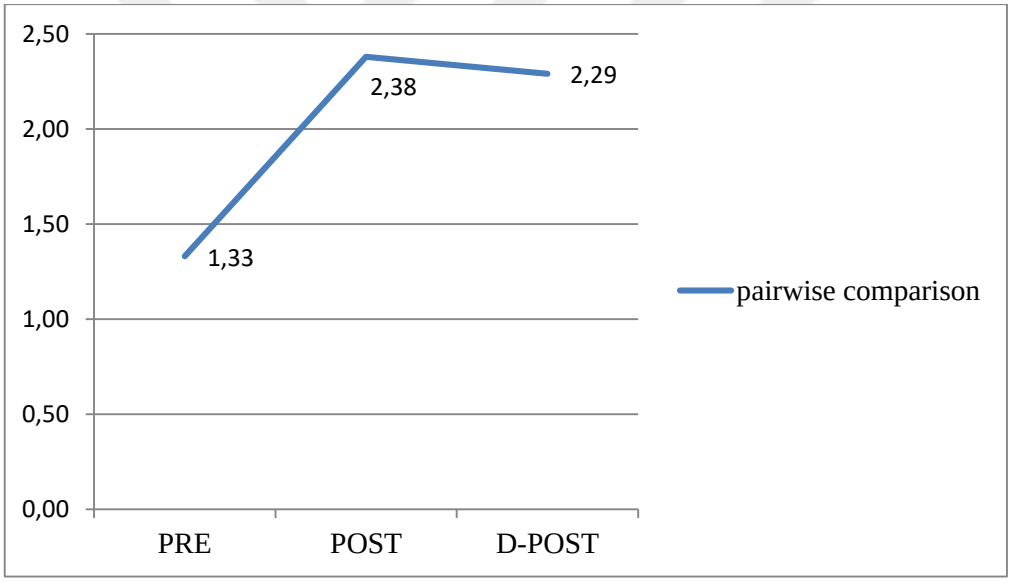


Figure 6. Pairwise comparisons with the sample average ranks for each test

Pairwise comparisons were performed using SPSS, with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Statistical significance was accepted at the $p < .0167$ level. Student gains were statistically significantly different between pre- and delayed post-test ($p = .006$) and pre to post-test ($p = .002$). However, there was no statistically significant difference between post and delayed post test ($p=1.00$), which indicates that students mostly retained the newly gained knowledge.

Table 18.

Pairwise Comparison

Comparison - Experimental	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig.	Adj. Sig.
PRE- DPOST	-.952	.309	-3.086	.002	.006
PRE- POST	-1.048	.309	-3.395	.001	.002
DPOST- POST	.095	.309	.309	.758	1.000

Each row tests the null hypothesis that the Sample 1 and Sample 2 distributions are the same. Asymptotic significances (2 sided tests) are displayed. The significance level is .05. Significance values have been adjusted by the Bonferri correction for multiples test.

4.5. Analysis Of The Group Differences- Mann Witney U Test

Since the data collected failed the assumptions of the two-way repeated measures ANOVA, two types of statistical tests had to be applied in order to measure the effect of the collocational instruction. *The Friedman test* was employed to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference regarding the knowledge gain and retention within groups based on the results from the pre, post and delayed post tests for each teaching technique (i.e. implicit or explicit). Later, again another a rank-based non parametric alternative, The *Mann-Whitney U Test* was utilized to determine whether there was statically significant difference between groups with respect to the implicit versus explicit instruction of adj+noun collocation. As is seen in the following table, no statistically significant difference was found between the experimental and the comparison group with respect to the use of explicit and implicit collocation instruction.

Table 19.

Statistics for Mann-Whitney U Test

	Hypothesis Test Summary			
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of Post Test is the same across categories of Group.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.190	Statistically significant difference between groups
2	The distribution of Delayed Post is the same across categories of Group.	Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test	.237	Statistically significant difference between groups

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

The following section presents the detailed analyses for the post- and the delayed post-test results of the experimental and the comparison group.

4.5.1. The Analysis of the Post Test Results

A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences in collocational instruction score between the comparison and the experimental group. Figure 7 displays the post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison Group.

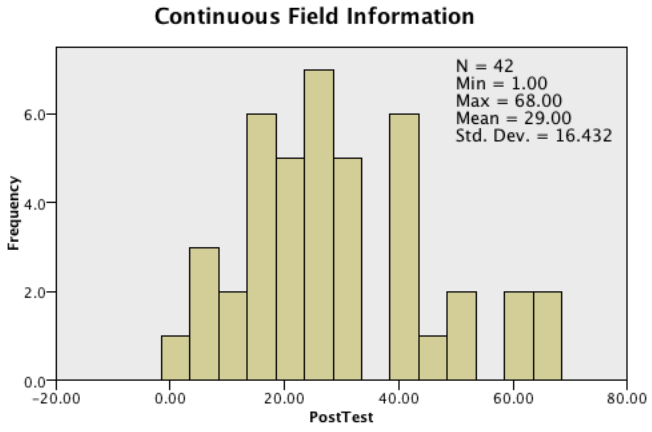
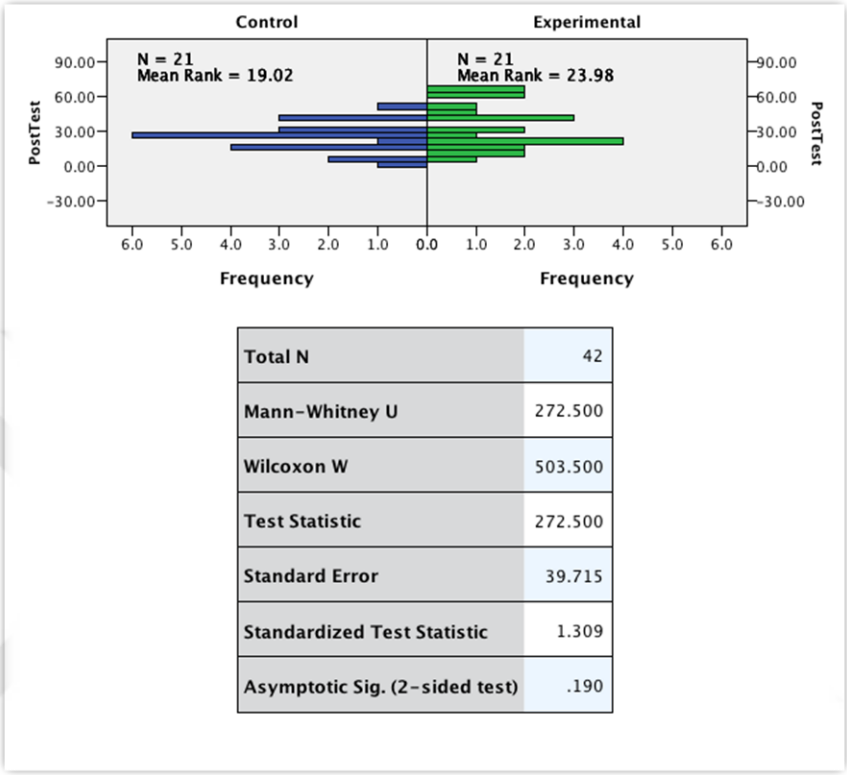


Figure 7. The post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison group

Distributions of the test scores for the comparison and the experimental group were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median collocation score was no statistically significant difference between both groups with respect to the post-test, U = 272.5, z = 1.309, p = .190, using an exact sampling distribution for U (Figure 8).



Total N	42
Mann-Whitney U	272.500
Wilcoxon W	503.500
Test Statistic	272.500
Standard Error	39.715
Standardized Test Statistic	1.309
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.190

Figure 8. Independent-samples Mann-Whitney U test results for the post-test

4.5.2. The Analysis of the Delayed Post-test Results

A Mann-Whitney U Test was run to determine if there were differences in collocational knowledge score between the comparison and the experimental group. Figure 9 displays the delayed post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison group.

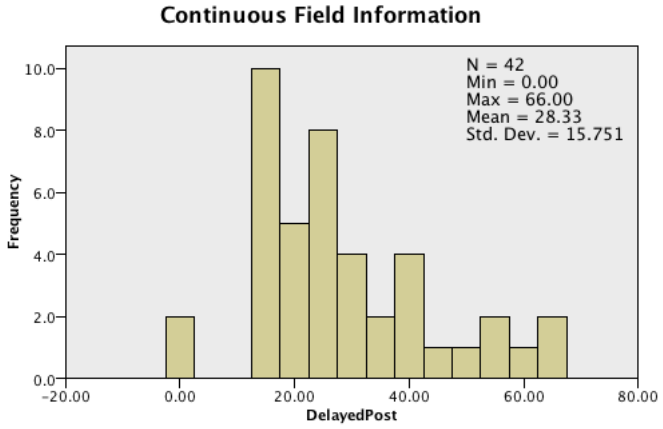
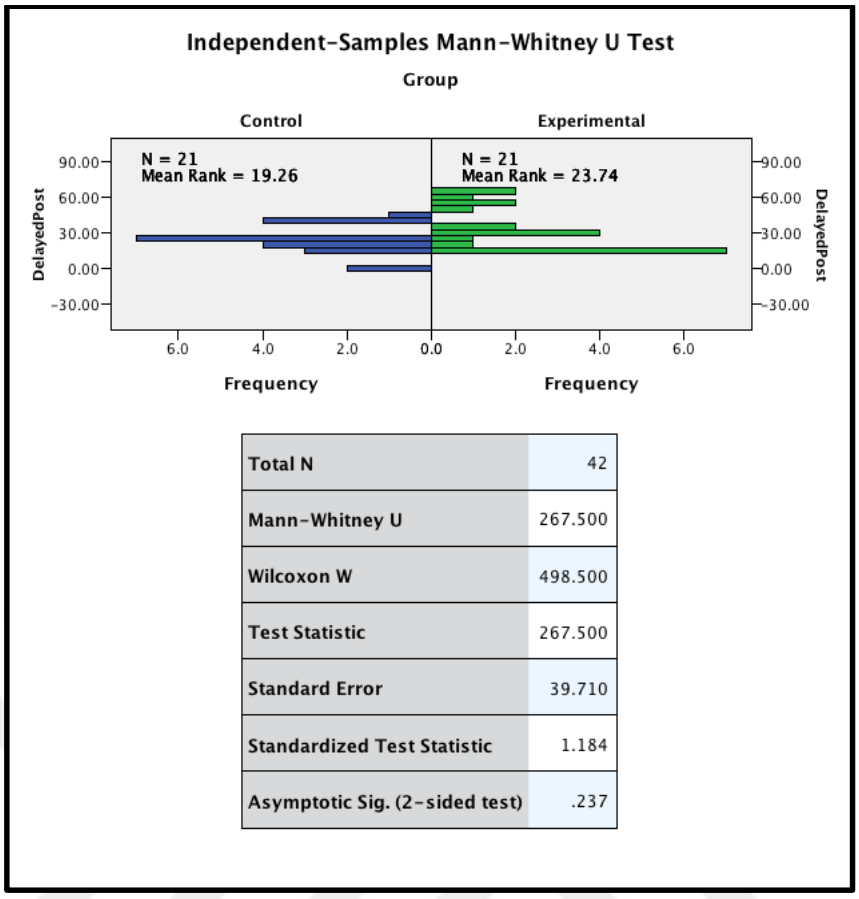


Figure 9. The delayed post-test summary of descriptive statistics for the experimental and comparison group

Distributions of the test scores for the comparison and the experimental group were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median collocation knowledge score was not statistically significantly different between both groups with respect to the delayed post-test, U = 267.5, z = 1.184, p = .237, using an exact sampling distribution for U (Figure 10).



Total N	42
Mann-Whitney U	267.500
Wilcoxon W	498.500
Test Statistic	267.500
Standard Error	39.710
Standardized Test Statistic	1.184
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	.237

Figure 10. Independent-samples Mann-Whitney U Test results for the delayed post-test

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results of this study will be discussed in detail with a view to the differential effect of the two types of instruction, explicit and implicit, on the gain and retention of adjective + noun collocation knowledge by secondary school learners. In the present study, quantitative research methods were conducted in order to obtain data as it was a quasi- experimental research design followed with pre-, post- and delayed post- test. This chapter provides a brief summary regarding the data analysis and results obtained through the study presented in chapter IV followed by a discussion of the findings. In addition, limitations and suggestions for further research are presented.

5.2. Overview of the Study

In recent years, the importance of collocations for the development of vocabulary knowledge in learning a foreign language has been emphasized by a number of researchers, linguists and language pedagogues (Carter & McCarthy,1988; Sinclair, 1991; Cowie, 1992; Lewis, 2000; Boulton, 2019). Hill (2000) also believes that collocations form nearly 70 percent of everything we read, write, talk or hear. Hence, the way words combine in collocations is essential to language use. Without collocational knowledge, people are unable to express themselves in a native-like way. Similarly, Howarth (1998) stresses that native speakers' linguistic competence has a huge and notable phraseological component. Hence, it is believed that correct use of collocations is a sign of the development in the use of that foreign language.

From this point of view; so far, several researchers have investigated the effect of using different approaches or techniques to facilitate teaching collocations, so there seems to exist two opposite views - explicit instruction and implicit instruction- regarding teaching collocations. Some of them suggest that collocation learning can be incidental with the help of implicit instruction (Nation, 2001; Brown, 2007; Ellis, 2010)

while other researchers view that collocations need to be taught explicitly through direct instruction (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Nesselhauf, 2003; Seesink, 2007).

In conclusion, in the present study, we aimed to comprehend the differential effect of explicit and implicit instruction on the collocational knowledge of secondary school learners. To achieve the objectives of the study, we collected the data from Gazi Secondary School students through pre-, post- and delayed post-test to evaluate these two instructions on adjective + noun collocations of secondary school learners.. The data obtained from the tests were analyzed with the help of the *non-parametric Friedman Test* to determine whether there occurred any changes in their knowledge of the target collocational patterns in each group. Later, again another a rank-based non parametric, *The Mann-Whitney U test* was utilized to determine whether there are differences between two groups regarding the collocation teaching intervention. By conducting these tests, we were able to obtain data to answer our research questions which were as follows:

a. Of the two types of instructions, explicit and implicit, which will be more effective in terms of learning gains regarding the target collocational patterns as assessed by pre-test and post-test measures?
b. Of the explicit and implicit instructional methods which will help the learners retain more knowledge of the collocational patterns as assessed by post-test and delayed post-test measures?

According to the quantitative data obtained from *the non-parametric Friedman Test,* it was observed that there was an increase in student scores from pre- to post and pre- to delayed-post test in the comparison group; however, the differences were not statistically significant. In the experimental group, student gains were statistically significantly different between pre- and delayed post-test and pre to post-test. It can be said that the students in the experimental group benefited from the explicit collocational instruction. This is also confirmed by the finding obtained from the comparison between the post and the delayed post-test. The fact that there was no statistically significant difference between post and delayed post test indicates that students mostly retained the newly gained knowledge.

The quantitative data obtained from *The Mann-Whitney U test* revealed that distributions of the test scores for the comparison and the experimental group were

similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median collocation score was not statistically significantly different between both groups.

The next chapter will provide a detailed discussion about the results and research questions, which helps us have a better understanding of the present study.

5.3. Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to investigate the effect of two types of instruction, explicit and implicit, on the development and retention of adjective + noun collocational knowledge by secondary school learners with the aim of raising learners' awareness towards these collocational patterns. As mentioned before, although there have been recent studies about collocations, they are mainly focused on acquisition of English collocations in a specific group and these studies focus on adult learners (Waldman, 2011; Bıçkı, 2012; Sonbul and Schmitt, 2013). Our major concern was to see whether explicit or implicit instruction would have any impact on the acquisition of the collocational patterns by the secondary school learners. In this section, the findings of this thesis will be discussed in respect to the research questions.

The first research question is as follows: *Of the two types of instructions, explicit and implicit, which will be more effective in terms of learning gains regarding the target collocational patterns as assessed by pre-test and post-test measures?* This research question shed light whether explicit or implicit instruction affects differently the collocational knowledge of the participants. Specifically, the participants in the experimental group were expected to answer more questions than the participants in the comparison group due to the fact that the target patterns was taught using an explicit instruction by directing their attention to the collocates of the adjectives with an aim to raise the learners' awareness. Hence, the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to determine whether there are differences between two groups regarding the collocation teaching intervention. The post test results of the analysis of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that U= 272.5, z = 1.309, p= .190, so median collocation score was not statistically significantly different between both groups, The delayed post-test results of the analysis of the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that median collocation score was not statistically significantly different between both groups due to the fact that the significance level is .05.

There may be several reasons why the test results of the study showed no statistically significant difference between groups. One of the factors may be the time span devoted to treatment sessions which was four-hour English class per week (totalling 6 weeks for treatment sessions except for the testing time span), half of which was for intervention process, other half of which was for following up the curriculum. The finding is compatible with the research study conducted by Gitsaki (1999) who concluded that it is not easy for learners to learn collocation in a short period of time. Hence it is concluded from the present study that learning collocations requires more time than devoted to it, which might have led to different results.

Another reason may be the materials used in the treatment sessions. Except for the paper-based concordance activity, the researcher could not use any kind of different technological resources due to the school circumstances. Chan & Liou (2005) researched the influence of using web-based practice units on English verb-noun collocations with the design of a web-based Chinese- English bilingual concordancer on collocation learning. The results of the study showed that collocational knowledge of the students significantly improved after the online practice. Similarly, Boultan (2009) believes that computer corpora have many potential applications in teaching and learning collocations. In the same line, Gavioli (2001) points out that in a computer-based approach, the students directly interface with a computer, corpus, and concordancing tool, which results in more gains in learning collocations.

The other reason might be that the participants might not have paid enough attention to the collocational patterns since the curriculum had to be followed meanwhile. Biskup (1992) mentions that it is difficult for learners to acquire the collocate of a word due to the fact that the participant in his study had difficulty in producing collocations. Thus, he believes that when learners encounter a new word, they do not pay enough attention to the collocate of that word.

However, when the pre- and post-test results of the explicit and implicit groups were compared, there are differences between the comparison and experimental groups. While the results of the descriptive analysis of the Friedman test revealed that student scores from pre- (Mdn = 18), to post (Mdn = 33) in the experimental group, student scores are pre- (Mdn = 21.0), to post (Mdn = 25.0) in the comparison group. This shows that student gains were statistically significantly different at the different time points during the collocation instruction, $\chi 2(2) = 14.095$, $p = .001$ in the experimental group. These findings are consistent with those Sun & Wang (2003) and Nazari (2012) that

explicit collocation instruction is effective in promoting learners' collocational knowledge. Additionally, Lewis (2000) supports the idea of teaching collocations explicitly by saying, "the more aware learners are of the chunks of which any text is made, the more likely that the input they notice will contribute to intake" (p.163). In the same line, Stone and Urquhart (2008) stressed the importance of explicit vocabulary instruction as they alleged that the success of the students increased 33 percentile points when students were instructed the target vocabulary directly. Similarly, Norris and Ortega (2000) claim that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit or indirect treatment.

However, these results are not compatible with the ideas of Nation (2001) suggesting that incidental vocabulary learning from context was the most significant source of vocabulary learning because of the fact that learners run into the target vocabulary in many contexts. Moreover, according to Scrivener (1994), students can engage in discovering a generalized rule or pattern by noticing with the help implicit/ inductive approach.

In conclusion; even though it was found from the test results that explicit instruction was more effective than implicit instruction in terms of learning gains, the comparison of the obtained findings showed that there was no statistically significant difference between two instructional methods since the test results are very close to each other. Hence, both implicit and explicit instructional methods can be interchangeably used to teach collocations based on the findings in this study. Similarly, Alanen (1991) and Leow (2001) found no difference between explicit and implicit instruction in terms of their effect on learners' achievement, which support the results of our study. Also, Shaffer (1989) and Rosa & O'Neill (1999) discovered no significant difference between the two approaches in their research. Based on the studies we can say that each method carry both strengths and weaknesses.

The second research question which will be discussed is as follows: *Of the explicit and implicit instructional methods which will help the learners retain more knowledge of the collocational patterns as assessed by post-test and delayed post-test measures?* This research question shed light whether there occurred any changes in collocational knowledge of the participants for both the comparison and the experimental group. Specifically, the participants in both groups were expected to answer more questions in the post- and delayed post-test than they did in the pre-test

because of becoming familiar with the target patterns after the instructional intervention that they received after the pre-test.

In the comparison group, implicit instruction was implemented throughout the treatment sessions and the results of the descriptive analysis of the Friedman test revealed that student scores from pre- (Mdn = 21.0), to post (Mdn = 25.0), to delayed-post test (Mdn = 23.0). This shows that there was an increase in students' scores. However, the differences were not statistically significant at $p < .05$, $\chi2(2) = 4.554$, $p = .103$. In the experimental group, explicit instruction was implemented throughout the treatment sessions and the results of the descriptive analysis of the Friedman test revealed that student scores rose from pre- (Mdn = 18), to post (Mdn = 33), to delayed post-test (Mdn = 31). (see Appendix 9 for a sample from the students' answers in the pre-, post- and dpost-test). This shows that student gains were statistically significantly different at the different time points during the collocation instruction, $\chi2(2) = 14.095$, $p = .001$.

It can be understand from the results that the participants in the experimental group receiving explicit instruction were able to answer more questions than the comparison group receiving implicit instruction. The findings of the study are consistent with the ideas of Mondria & Boer (1991) and Waring&Takaki (2000), who believed that implicit instruction does not necessarily result in long term retention. Similarly, Nesselhauf (2003) indicates that collocations cannot be acquired by mere exposure and they need explicit instruction. In the same line, Howarth (1998) and Lewis (2000) suggest that a learner should meet a word or a lexis at least seven times in order to store it in the long term memory. Moreover, Ausubel (1974) and Carroll & M. (1993) points out that implicit/inductive approach seems to be a difficult approach for slower learners and is appropriate for those who have higher mentality with the ability to discover rules on their own. This may explain the reason why the test results showed no statistically significant difference in the comparison group receiving implicit instruction during the treatment sessions.

Pairwise comparisons with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons revealed that student gains were statistically significantly different between pre- and delayed post-test ($p = .006$) and pre to post-test ($p = .002$). However, there was no statistically significantly difference between the post and delayed post test ($p=1.00$) based on the significance value set at the $p < .0167$ level. This means that students mostly retained the newly gained knowledge in the experimental group.

There may be several reasons why the participants could not retain the collocational knowledge. One of the most important factors is the English level of the participants. According to Gitsaki's (1999) study which compared collocation skill at three age levels- students are at their first year of studying English (11-12 years old), students are at their second- years of studying English (12-13) and students are at their third years of studying English (13-14 years old), three levels of students represent different proficiency levels (post-beginners, intermediate and post-intermediate) and students at any stage mastered collocations differently. Similarly, Sonbul and Schmitt (2013) investigated the relationship between implicit and explicit lexical knowledge of collocations on advanced adult language learners. Based on the result of their study, even non-native adult learners did not develop any durable implicit memory traces of collocations. Similarly, Nesselhauf (2005) notes that the written outputs of advanced German learners of English suffer from collocational deviations. Another study, conducted by Laufer and Waldman (2011), reports that young adult learners of three different proficiency levels failed to produce as many verb-noun collocations as native speakers did. Bonk (2000) also state that lower-level learners seem to have some limited knowledge of collocational relationships, and this can be tested accurately as long as they have access to the items. We can infer from these studies that even adult learners may have difficulty in learning collocations let one young learners. Hence, these studies support the results of our study indicating that young learners may not be better in learning collocations.

Another reason why the retention of the collocations could not be acquired may be attributed to the collocation type selected for the study. Our major concern was to teach adjective + noun collocations both explicitly and implicitly and determine whether there would be any difference between the two types of instructions with regard to the acquisition and retention of this collocation relation by secondary students learning English. Bonk (2000) stated that verb-preposition collocations were easier to learn. In the same vein, Channell (1981) concluded that learners had difficulty in producing acceptable adjective- noun collocations despite their familiarity with the target words included in the tests. Moreover, according to Alsakran's (2011) study, which focused on the differences between three categories of collocations: verb- noun, adjective-noun and verb- preposition, participants received far better scores on the verb- noun collocations test (M=9.1) than on the adjective- noun (3.39) and verb-preposition (M=3.67) collocation tests. Gitsaki (1999) also stated that grammatical collocations (noun-

preposition, preposition-noun, adjective- preposition) are early and easily acquired than lexical collocations (adjective-noun, noun-noun) since the more complex structures are acquired later; thus, lexical collocations can be said to be more difficult to acquire. These findings and views are compatible with the results of our study from the perspective that the test results of adjective- noun collocations in our study showed no statistically significant difference between groups.

In respect to the above findings, the data obtained from the test results showed that the participants were not successful to retain the new collocation knowledge they had been exposed due to short-term collocation instruction because the researcher had to follow up the curriculum and finish the textbook because the participants were to have an exam called (Liselere Giriş Sınavı "High School Entrance Exam") at the end of the year as mentioned in Chapter III. The researcher utilised paper-based concordance activities, the exercises in the textbook and mind map or brainstorming techniques during the treatment sessions rather than data-driven learning (DDL), the main concern of which is to direct students to interact with a computer, corpus, and concordancing tool. Gavioli (2001) states that DDL is student-centered and student-controlled approach and it can help students retain the new knowledge. Boulton (2010) also believes that a number of hugely innovative website have been developed which incorporate DDL in guided environment, which enhances the acquisition of the collocations. Thus, the results might have been different had the researcher opted for DDL during the treatment sessions.

As the final remark, the findings of the study imply that the participants in both groups took advantage of both of the instructional approaches, explicit and implicit. As for the RQ1 : *Of the two types of instructions, explicit and implicit, which will be more effective in terms of learning gains regarding the target collocational patterns as assessed by pre-test and post-test measures?,* we can infer that explicit instruction is more effective in terms of teaching collocations. However, the results of the study are not statistically significantly different between the comparison and experimental group. Thus, the results cannot be generalized due to the limitations imposed on by the school curriculum and the small sample size of the study.

As for the RQ2: *Of the explicit and implicit instructional methods which will help the learners retain more knowledge of the collocational patterns as assessed by post-test and delayed post-test measures?,* we can conclude that the participants in the experimental group receiving explicit treatment retained more knowledge than the

participants in the comparison group receiving implicit treatment when the results from pre- and delayed post-test and pre to post-test are taken into consideration. Moreover, in the experimental group, student gains were statistically significantly different between pre- and delayed post-test and pre to post-test. It can be concluded that the students in the experimental group benefited from the explicit collocational instruction. This is also confirmed by the finding obtained from the comparison between the post and the delayed post-test. The fact that there was no statistically significant difference between post and delayed post test indicates that students mostly retained the newly gained knowledge. However, according to the comparison of the obtained findings from *Mann-Whitney U Test*, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference in collocational knowledge score between the comparison and the experimental group

5.4. Implications

Several implications can be elicited for students, teachers, material creators and researchers from this study. Nowadays, it is widely accepted that vocabulary knowledge is essential for language learning. However, as Lewis (2000) states, knowing merely the meaning of the words and teaching vocabulary in an isolated way is not effective for acquiring the target language.

It is worth noting that language teachers can use collocations in order to facilitate vocabulary learning procedure. In this regard, teachers also should be aware of the fact that students cannot have native-like language competence without collocational knowledge. Hence, teachers should deal with collocations more frequently with the help of technological advances such as using corpus and concordances as resources. Also, teachers should emphasize not only the meaning of the words but also the word combinations in their teaching.

Similarly, while developing textbooks and materials, writers should know that recent rapid advances in computer technology have caused a shift in teaching and learning collocations. Hence, they present the vocabularies in collocational patterns with the help of different activities, which can help the learners acquire collocational knowledge. According to Williams (2002), learners need to be aware of the fact that all words have their own unique collocational fields. Hence, they could at least be given paper-based concordance activities at the end of the units so that they can focus on collocations and comprehend collocations properly.

Finally, researchers studying on vocabulary acquisitions should focus on collocations and research the ways how learners can learn collocations more effectively which teaching methods can facilitate learning such lexical relations as knowledge of collocations is crucial for fluent use of language.

5.5. Limitation of the Study

The present study explored the differential effect of explicit and implicit instruction on secondary school learners' collocational knowledge. However, there are a few limitations considering our study that we cannot ignore. One of the limitations is the sample size of our study. A total of 42 students participated in the present study, 21 participants for each comparison and experimental group. Although there were 32 participants at the beginning of the study, some did not attend the pre-test or the post-test, or even the delayed post-test for different reasons as mentioned and presented in Table 5 and Table 6 in Chapter III. Consequently, the number of the participants declined to 21 due to the exclusion of these students from the study. In order to generalize the results, a research study with a larger sample size is required.

Another limitation which the researcher faced with is the students' grade. As the students were eight- graders and they were going to have an exam called LGS (Liselere Giriş Sınavı "High School Entrance Exam") at the end of the year, they were really stressful and they were not interested in other activities which would not be asked in the entrance exam. Their reluctance and indifference affected the instructional intervention and they did not take the tests seriously since the tests did not affect their marks. Hence, the students did not properly answer all of the questions in pre-, post-, and delayed post-test, which negatively affected the findings of the study.

One last consideration in terms of the limitation of the study was the time limitation. The researcher herself is English teacher of both the comparison and experimental groups. Thus, the researcher not only had to follow the curriculum but also implemented the study in four-hour English lesson a week, which was really hard for the researcher as well as the participants. The extended exposure to the collocations regarding these two instructional methods might have yielded different results.

5.6. Suggestions for Further Studies

The present study sought to provide an insight on whether explicit and implicit instruction affect the collocational knowledge of secondary school learners. It is limited to only 8 graders at a state school in Turkey. As there were only 21 participants for each of groups, larger sample sizes can be recommended in order to generalize and attain different findings.

Moreover, the participants were beginner students in this study. This study can be applied to students at different proficiency levels and grades in order to make comparison between these two instructional methods. Studies show that students from different language proficiency levels may respond differently.

Last recommendation is about the time span. The treatment sessions can be longer as an extended exposure to the collocations explicitly or implicitly is an important factor which affects the whole study.

REFERENCES

Abraham, R. (1985). Field independence-dependence and the teaching of grammar. *TESOL Quarterly, 19, 689–702. DOI. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586671*

Ackermann, K., de Jong, J., Kilgarriff, A., and Tugwell, D. (2011). *The Pearson International Corpus of Academic English (PICAE).* Retrieved May 15, 2018, from https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/college-artslaw/corpus/ conferencearchives/2011/Paper-47.pdf

Ackermann, K. and Chen, Y. (2013) Developing the academic collocations list (ACL) – A corpus-driven and expert-judged approach. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *12*(4), 235-247.

Aghbar, A.A. (1990, October). *Fixed expressions in written texts: Implications for assessing writing sophistication.* Paper presented at a meeting of the English Association of Pennsylvania State System Universities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 352 808)

Akıncı, M. & Yıldız, S. (2017). Effectiveness of corpus consultation in teaching verb + noun collocations to advanced ELT students. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*(1), 93-111.

Alanen, R. (1995). Input enhancement and rule presentation in second language acquisition. In R. W. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning (pp. 259-302).* Honolulu: University of Hawaii press.

Alsakran, R. A. (2011). *The productive and receptive knowledge of collocations by advanced Arabic speaking ESL/EFL learners.* Published master's thesis, Colorado State University, Colorado.

Arnold-Garza, S. (2014). The flipped classroom teaching model and its use for information literacy instruction. *Communications in Information Literacy,8*(1), 7-22. *DOI. https://doi.org/10.15760/comminfolit.2014.8.1.161*

Antle, J. B. (2013). *Teaching collocations.* In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), JALT 2012 Conference Proceedings. Tokyo: JALT.

Asei, R. & Rezvani, E. (2015). The effect of explicit vs. implicit instruction on Iranian EFL learners' use of collocations in L2 writing. *Journal of Applied Linguistic and Language Research, 2*(3), 1-22.

Ausubel, D. P. (1974) Adults versus children in second-language learning. *The Modern Language Journal, 58,* 420-423.

Avcı, B. G. (2006). *Yazma çalışmaları ile örüntülenen eşörüntüleme (collocations) öğretiminin öğrencilerin kelime edinimine etkileri.* Unpublished master's thesis, Marmara University, Turkey.

Bahns, J. (1993). Lexical collocations: A contrastive view. *ELT Journal, 47,* 56-63. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.1.56

Bahns, J., & Eldaw, M. (1993). Should we teach EFL students collocations? *System, 21(1), 101-114.* Retrieved January, 29, 2019 from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/0346251X9390010E

Benson, M., Benson, E., & Ilson, R. (1986a). *The BBI combinatory dictionary of English: Aguide to word combinations*. (pp. i-v). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Berliner, D. & Rosenshine, B. (1987). *Talks to teachers.* New York. Random House.

Bıçkı, A. (2015). *Acquisitions of English Collocations by Adult Turkish L2 Learners.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Çukurova University the Institute of Social Sciences, Adana, Turkey.

Biskup, D. (1992). L1 influence on learners' renderings of English collocations: A Polish/ German study. In P.J.L. Armaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics*. (pp. 85-93). Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Boers, F. & Lindsromberg, S. (2009). *Optimizing a Lexical Approach to Instructed Second Language Acquisition.* London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bonk, W. J. (2000). *Testing ESL learners' knowledge of collocations.* Retrieved July 7, 2018, from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED442309

Bos, C.S., & Anders, P.L. (1990). Effects of interactive vocabulary instruction on the vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of junior-high learning disabled students. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 13* (1). *DOI. https://doi.org/10.2307/1510390*

Boulton, A. (2010). Data-driven learning: Taking the computer out of the equation. *Language Learning, 60*(3), 534-572. *DOI. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00566.x*

Boulton, A. (2010). Data-driven learning: on paper, in practice. In T. Harris & M. Moreno Jaén (Eds.), *Corpus Linguistics in Language Teaching* (pp.17-52). Bern: Peter Lang,

Brezina, V., McEnery, T. &Wattam, S. (2015). Collocations in context: A new perspective on collocation network. *International Journal of corpus Linguistic, 20(2), 139-173.* DOI: 10.1075/ijcl.20.2.01

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall Regents.

Campbell. D., & Stanley, J. (1963). *Experimental and quasi designs*. Chicago: Rand McNally.

Carl, J. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use*. London: Longman.

Carroll, S. and Swain, M. (1993) Explicit and implicit negative feedback: an empirical study of the learning of linguistic generalizations. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 15, 357-386. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100012158*

Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1988). *Vocabulary and language teaching*. (pp.68-75). NewYork: Longman.

Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1996). *Vocabulary and language teaching.* NewYork: Longman.

Carter, R. (2002). *Vocabulary applied linguistics perspectives.* London and NewYork: Routhledge.

Celce Murcia, M., & Rosensweigh, F. (1979). Teaching vocabulary in the ESL classroom. In M. Celce Murcia. &L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (241-257). Massachusetts: Newbury House.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, (3rd. Eds.).*Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Chalipa, S. (2013). The effect of inductive vs. deductive instructional approach in grammar learning of ESL learners. *Deccan International Journal of Advance Research Studies, 1369*(6), 76- 90.

Chan, T. P. and H. C. Liou. 2005. 'Effects of web-based concordancing instruction on EFL Students' learning of verb - noun collocations'. *Computer Assisted Language Learning 18*(3), 231–251. *DOI. https://doi.org.10.1080/09588220500185769.*

Channell, J. (1981). Applying semantic theory to vocabulary teaching. *ELT Journal, 35*(2), 115-122.

Chujo, K., Anthony, L., Oghigian, K., & Uchibori, A. (2012). Paper-based, computer-based, and combined data-driven learning using a web-based concordancer. *Language Education in Asia, 3*(2), 132-145.

Columbus, G. (2010). Processing MWUs: Are MWU subtypes psycho-linguistically real? In D. Wood (Ed.), *Perspectives on formulaic language: acquisition and communication* (pp. 194-212). London/New York: Continuum.

Conzett, J. (2000). Integrating Collocation Into a Reading and Writing Course. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching Collocation* (pp.70-87). London: Language Teaching Publications.

Cook, T., & Campbell, D. (1979). *Quasi- experimental designs*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Cowie, A. (1992). ultiword lexical units and communicative language teaching. In Arnaud & H. Bejoint (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 216-331). London: Macmillan Academic and Professional LTD.

Craik, F.I.M. & Lockhart, R. S. (1972). Levels of processing: a framework for memory research. *Journal of Verbal Language & Verbal Behaviour*, *11*(6), 671-684. *DOI. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371(72)80001-X*

de Graaff, R. & Housen, A. (2009). Investigating effects and effectiveness of L2 instruction. In M. Long and C. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching*, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, 726-55.

Decarrico, J.S. (2001). *Vocabulary learning and teaching.* In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (285-299). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

DeKeyser, R. (1995). Learning second language grammar rules: An experiment with a miniature linguistic system. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 17, 379-410.* DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310001425X

DeKeyser, R. (2008). Implicit and Explicit learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition.* Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp.197-262). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Durrant, P. & Schmitt, N.(2009). To what extent do native and non-native writers make use of collocations? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 47,* 157-177. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2009.007

Eisenstein, M. (1987). Grammatical explanations in ESL: Teach the student, not the method. In M. Long & J. Richards (Eds.), *Methodology in TESOL* (pp. 282-292). New Jersey: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Ellis, N. (2005). At the interface: dynamic interactions of explicit and implicit language knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27,* 305-352. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310505014X

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition.* Second Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). Implicit and Explicit learning, knowledge and instruction. In R. Ellis et al. (Eds.), *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching* (pp.03-25). Great Britain, Multilingual Matters.

Ellis, R. (2010). Does explicit grammar instruction help? *National institute for Japanese language and linguistics project review*, *2,* 3-22.

Ellis, N. C., Simpson-Vlach, R., & Maynard, C. (2008). Formulaic language in native and second-language speakers: Psycholinguistics, corpus linguistics, and TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(3), 375-396.

Erlam, R. (2003). The effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the acquisition of direct object pronouns in French as a second language. *The Modern Language Journal*, *87*(2), 242-260. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00188

Farrokh, P. (2012). Raising awareness of Collocation in ESL/EFL classrooms. *Journal of Studies in Education*, *2*(3), 55-74. DOI:10.5296/jse.v2i3.1615

Firth, J. R. (1957a). *Papers in Linguistics.* London: Oxford University Press.

Fischer, R. A. (1979). The Inductive-Deductive controversy revisited. *The Modern Language Journal, 63*(3), 98-105. DOI: 10.2307/325777

Gavioli, L. (2001). The learner as researcher: Introducing corpus concordancing in the classroom. In G. Aston (Ed.), *Learning with corpora* (pp. 109-137). Houston: Athelstan.

Gitsaki, C. (1999). *Second language lexical acquisition: A study of the development of collocational knowledge.* Bethesda, MD: International Scholars Publications.

Granger, S. and Paquot, M. (2015) Electronic Lexicography Goes Local: Designs and Structures of a Needs-driven Online Academic Writing Aid. *Lexicographica, 31*(1), 118-141. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1515/lexi-2015-0007

Hammerly, H. (1975). The deduction/induction controversy. *The Modern Language Journal*, *59*(1/2), 15-18

Harwood, N. (2002). Taking a LA to teaching: Principles and problems. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 12*(2), 139-155. https://doi.org/10.1111/1473-4192.00028

Hatami, S. (2015). *Collocations in Farsi L2 Learners of English.* Published master's thesis, The Arctic University of Norway Faculty of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education, Norway.

Hill, J. (1999). Collocational competence. *English Teaching Professional, 11*, 3-6.

Hill, J. (2000*). Revising priorities: from grammatical failure to collocational success.* In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching Collocations* (47-67). London: Language Teaching Publication.

Hulstijn, J. H., Hollander, M., & Greidanus, T. (1996). Incidental vocabulary learning by advanced foreign language students: The influence of marginal glosses, dictionary use, and reoccurrence of unknown words. *The Modern Language Journal, 80*(3), 327-339. Retrieved January, 29, from https://www.jstor.org/stable/329439?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents

Hulstijn, J. H. (2005). Theoretical and empirical issues in the study of implicit and explicit second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*(2), 129-140. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263105050084

Hsu, J. (2002). *Development of collocational proficiency in a workshop on English for general business purposes for Taiwanese college students.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania.

Hsu, J. (2007). Lexical collocations and their relation to the online writing of Taiwanese college English majors and non-English majors. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *4*(2), 192-209.

Hodne, L. C. S. (2009). *Collocations and teaching: Investigating word combinations in two English textbooks for Norwegian upper secondary school students.* Published master's thesis, University of Bergen Department of Foreign Languages, Bergen, Norway.

Hoey, M. (2000). A World Beyond Collocation: New Perspectives On Vocabulary Teaching. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching Collocation* (pp.224-243). London: Language Teaching Publications.

Herron, C., & Tomasello, M. (1992). Acquiring grammatical structures by guided induction, *The French Review, 65,* 708–718.

Housen, A. & Pierrard, M. (Eds.). (2005). *Investigations in instructed second language acquisition*. Berlin: Mouten de Greyter.

Howarth, P. (1998). Phraseology and second language proficiency. *Applied Linguistics, 19*(1), 24-44. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.1.24

Huang, L. (2001). Knowledge of English collocations: An analysis of Taiwanese EFL learners. In Luke, C. and B. Rubrecht, (Eds.), *Texas Papers in foreign language education: Selected proceedings from the Texas foreign language education conference*. Retrieved July 7, 2018, from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED465288

Hulstijn, J. H. (2007). Psycholinguistic perspectives on language and its acquisition. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), *The international handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 783–796). Norwell , MA : Springer

Hsu, J. (2007). Lexical collocations and their relation to the online writing of Taiwanese college English majors and non-English major. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 4*(2), 192-209.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, United Kingdom: Penguin.

Jean, M. & Harris, T. (Ed.). (2010). *Corpus Linguistics in Language Teaching.* Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.

Jenskin, B. (2012). *Implicit vs. explicit Instruction: Which is better for word learning?* Retrieved January, 29, 2018 from https://www.scilearn.com/blog/implicit-vs-explicit-instruction-word-learning

Jiang, J. (2009). Designing pedagogic materials to improve awareness and productive use of L2 collocations. In A. Barfield and H. Gyllstad (Eds.), *Researching collocations in another language: Multiple interpretations* (pp. 99-113). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Johns, T. (1991). From printout to handout. grammar and vocabulary teaching in the context of data driven-learning. In Johns, T. & King, P. (Eds.), Classroom concordancing. *English Language Research Journal, 4,* 27-45.

Johns, T. & King, P. (Eds.) (1991). Classroom concordancing, *English Language Research Journal, 4,* 27-45.

Judd, E. (1978). Vocabulary teaching and TESOL: A need for re-evaluation of existing assumptions. *TESOL Quarterly, 12*, 71-76.

Kayıran, T. (2012). *Vocabulary retention: A collocational study.* Unpublished master's thesis, Çağ University Institute of social sciences, Mersin, Turkey.

Kita, K., & Ogata, H. (1997). Collocations in language learning: Corpus-based automatic compilation of collocation and bilingual collocation concordancer.

Computer Assisted Language Learning, 10, 229-238. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/0958822970100303

Koç, G. (2006). *Developing collocational awareness*. Unpublished master's thesis, Bilkent University Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara, Turkey.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principals and practice in second language acquisition* (pp. 65-78). Pergamon: Oxford.

Krashen, S., & Terrell T. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal 73*(4), 440-464. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05325.x

Laufer, B., & Waldman, T. (2011). Verb-noun collocations in second language writing: A corpus analysis of learners' English. *Language Learning, 61*(2), 647-672. *DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00621.x*

Lee, S. (2004). *Teaching Lexis to EFL Students: A review of current perspectives and methods.* Annual Review of Education, Communication and Language Sciences, Volume I. Retrieved January 26, 2019, from https://research.ncl.ac.uk/media/sites/researchwebsites/arecls/Seowon.htm

Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach.* Hove: Language Teaching Publication. Retrieved July 22, 2018, from http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume1/ej02/ej02r3/

Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the lexical approach*: *Putting theories into Practice* (pp.30-44). London: Language Teaching Publication.

Lewis, M. (Ed.). (2000). *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach.* London: Language Teaching Publications.

Leow, R. (2001). Do learners notice enhanced forms while interacting with L2? an online and offline study role of written input enhancement in L2 reading. *Hispania, 84*(3), 496-509.

Liu, C. P. (2000). A study of strategy use in producing lexical collocations. *Selected papers from the tenth International Symposium on English Teaching*. (pp. 481-492). Taipei. Crane.

McCarthy, M. (1990). *Vocabulary*. Oxford University Press.

Mondria, J., & Boer, W. D. (1991). The effects of contextual richness on the guessability and the retention of words in a foreign language. *Applied Linguistics, 12*(3), 249-267. *DOI:10.1093/applin/12.3.249*

Moss, D., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2003). *Second language acquisition in adults: From research to practice.* Retrieved June 22, 2018, from http://www.cal.org/CAELA/esl_resources/digests/SLA.html

Mutlu, G. (2015). *Knowledge and perceptions of collocations: The cases of Turkish EFL students and teachers.* Unpublished master's thesis, Marmara University institute of Educational Sciences, Istanbul, Turkey.

Mutlu, G. & Kaşlıoğlu Ö. (2016). Vocabulary size and collocational knowledge of Turkish EFL learners. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education. 12*(6), 1231-1252.

Namvar, F & Ibrahim, N. (2014). Construction of collocations in the writing of postgraduate students. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences, 7*(2), 487-497.

Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nattinger, J. R. & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Nesic, I. D. & Hamidovic, K. C. (2015). Teaching English grammar: Efficiency of inductive and deductive approaches – students' perceptions. *Collection of papers of the faculty of Philosophy, XLV*, 3, 189-205.

Nesselhauf, N. & Tschichold, C. (2002). Collocation in CALL: An investigation of vocabulary-building software for EFL. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 15*(3), 251-279. *DOI:* https://doi.org/10.1076/call.15.3.251.8190

Nesselhauf, N. (2003). The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching, *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(2), 223-242. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/24.2.223

Nesselhauf, N. (2005). *Collocations in a Learner Corpus.* Amsterdam; Philadelphia: J.Benjamins.

Nie, M., Roush, P., & Wheeler, M. (2010). Second Life for digital photography: An exploratory study. *Contemporary Educational Technology*, *1*(3), 267–280.

Norris, J. M. & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, *50*(3), 417-528. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00136

Nunan, D.(1991). *Language teaching methodology.* London: Prentice Hall.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research Methods in Language Learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching & learning.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Ogden, C. K. (1930). *Basic English: A general introduction,* London: Kegan Paul.

Oxford, R. & Crookall, D. (1990). Vocabulary learning: A critical analysis of techniques. *TESL Canada Journal*, 7(2), 9-30. Retrieved July 20, 2018, from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ407134.pdf

Palmer, H. (1938). *A grammar of English words*. London: Longman.

Pawley, A. & Syder, F. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native-like selection and native-like fluency. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 191-226). London: Longman.

Pujol, I. M. (2008). *The influence of age on vocabulary acquisition in English as a foreign language*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Barcelona, Spain.

Reinders, H. (2012). *Digital Games in Language Learning and Teaching*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Reppen, R. (2010). *Using corpora in the language classroom*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. (1974). Word lists: Problems and prospects. *RELC Journal*, *5*(2), 69-84. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/003368827400500207

Richards, J. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *10*(1), 77-89

Richards, J.C., Platt, J. & Platt, H., (1992). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* Harlow: Longman.

Richards, J.C.& Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C.& Schmidts, R. (2002). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics* (3rd ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Press.

Robinson, P. (1996). Learning simple and complex rules under implicit, incidental, rule-search conditions, and instructed conditions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18,* 27–67. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100014674

Rosa, R., & O'Neill, M. D. (1999). Explicitness, intake, and the issue of awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 21*(4), 511–556. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263199004015

Saudin, H. (2015). *Collocation: Theoretical Considerations, Methods and Techniques for Teaching It*, Paper presented at The Second International Language and Language Teaching Conference, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schmitt, N. (2008). Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research, 12*, 329–363. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168808089921

Schmitt, N. and Sonbul, S. (2012). Explicit and implicit lexical knowledge: Acquisition of collocations under different input conditions. *Language Learning*, *63*(1), 121-159. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00730.x

Scott, V. M. (1990). Explicit and implicit grammar teaching strategies: New empirical data. *The French Review*, *63*(5), 779-789.

Scrivener, J. (1994). *Learning teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Seesink, M. T. (2007). *Using blended instruction to teach academic vocabulary Collocations: A case study.* Unpublished doctoral thesis, West Virginia University, USA.

Seliger, H. W. (1975). Inductive method and deductive method in language teaching: A re-examination. *IRAL—International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 13*, 1–18. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1975.13.1-4.1

Shaffer, C. (1989). A comparison of inductive and deductive approaches to teaching foreign languages. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 395–403. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/326874

Shehata, A. (2008). *L1 Influence on the reception and production of collocations by advanced ESL/EFL Arabic learners of English*. Published master's thesis, The College of Arts and Sciences of Ohio University, Ohio.

Shrum, J. L. & Glisan E. W. (2016). *Teacher's handbook contextualized language instruction.* Boston: Cengage Learning.

Sinclair, J. M. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sinclair, J. M. (1996). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sinclair, J. M. (1996). Multilingual databases. An international project in multilingual lexicography. *International Journal of Lexicography, 9*(3), 179-196. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1093/ijl/9.3.179

Sinclair, J. M. & Renouf, A. (1988). A lexical syllabus for language learning. In Ronald Carter & Michael McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and language teaching* (pp. 140-160). London: Longman.

Smart, J. (2014). The role of guided induction in paper-based data driven learning, *ReCALL, 26 (2), 184-201*. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344014000081

Smith, C. (2005). *The lexical approach: Collocation in high school English language learners.* George Fox University.

Sonbul, S. and Schmitt, N. (2013). Explicit and implicit lexical knowledge: Acquisition of collocations under different input conditions. *Language Learning 63*(1), 121-159. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00730.x

Soolmaz, A. (2014). *Investigating the impact of explicit collocation instruction on ESL learners' writing ability.* University of North Carolina at Charlotte, U.S.A.

Spencer, E. J., Goldstein, H., & Kaminski, R. (2012). Teaching vocabulary in storybooks. Embedding Explicit vocabulary instruction for young children. *Young Exceptional Children, 15* (1), 18-32. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/1096250611435367

Steinkuehler, C., & Duncan, S. (2008). Scientific habits of mind in virtual worlds. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, *17,* 530–543.

Stone, B. J., & Urquhart, V. (2008). *Remove Limits to Learning with Systematic Vocabulary Instruction.* Denver, CO: McREL.

Sun, Y. -C. and L. –Y. Wang. (2003). Concordancers in the EFL classroom: Cognitive approaches and collocation difficulty. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 16,* 83–94. *DOI: https://doi.org/10.1076/call.16.1.83.15528*

Szudarski, P. (2017). Learning and Teaching L2 Collocations: Insights from Research. *TESL Canada Journal, 34*(3), 205-216.

Şimşek, G. (2008). *An effective way of teaching vocabulary: Collocations.* Unpublished master's thesis, Seljuk University Institute of Social Sciences, Konya, Turkey.

The British National Corpus, Version 3 (BNC XML Edition). (2007). *Distributed by Bodleian Libraries,* University of Oxford, on behalf of the BNC Consortium.

URL: http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/

Thornbury, S. (1999). *How to Teach Grammar*. England: Pearson Education Limited.

Tomoko, M. (2009). *Investigating ESL learners' lexical collocations: The acquisition of verb + noun collocations by Japanese learners of English*. Published doctoral dissertation, University of Hawai'i at Manoa, Hawaii, United States.

Toro, V., Camacho-Minuche, G., Pinza-Tapia, E. & Paredes, F. (2019). The use of the communicative language teaching approach to improve students' oral skills. *English Language Teaching, 12*(1), 110-118.

Tsai, M. (2018). The effects of explicit instruction on L2 learners' acquisition of verb–noun collocations. *Language Teaching Research,* 1-25.
DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818795188

University of Cambridge: Local Examinations Syndicate, (2004). *Quick placement test: Paper and pen test*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Waller, T. (1993). Characteristics of near-native proficiency in writing. In H. Ringbom, H. (Eds.), *Near-native proficiency in English* (pp.183-293). Abo, Finland*:* English Department, Abo Academy University

Wang, C. S. (2001). *A study of the English collocational competence of English majors in Taiwan* (p.98). Unpublished master's thesis, Fu Jen Catholic University, Taipei.

Waring, R. & Takaki, M. (2003). At what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader? *Reading in a foreign language, 15*(2), 130-163.

West, M.P. (1953). *A general service list of English words*. London: Longman.

Webb, S. and E. Kagimoto. 2009. 'The effects of vocabulary learning on collocation and meaning'. *TESOL Quarterly 43,* 55–77.

Wei, Y. (1999). *Teaching collocations for productive vocabulary.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the teachers of English to speakers of other languages. New York. Retrived July 7, 2018, from https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED457690

Willis, D. (1993). Grammar and Lexis: some pedagogical implications. In J.M. Sinclair, G. Fox & M. Hoey (Eds.), *Techniques of description: spoken and written discourse.* London: Routhledge.

Williams, B. (2002). *Collocation with advanced levels*. Retrieved January, 28, 2019, from http://esol.britishcouncil.org/content/teachers/staff-room/teaching-articles/collocation-advanced-levels-1

Woolard, G. (2000). Collocation-Encouraging Learner Independence. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching Collocation* (pp. 10-27). London: Language Teaching Publications.

Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic language in second language teaching: principle and practice, *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(4), 463-489. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.4.463

Zhang, X. (1993). *English collocations and their effect on the writing of native and non- native college freshmen.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Pennsylvania.

Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary acquisition. In J. Coady and T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Zughoul, M. R., & Abdul- Fattah, H. (2003). Translational collocational strategies of Arab learners of English: A study in lexical semantics. *Babel*, *49*(1), 59-81. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.49.1.05zug

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. The Petition from Gazi Secondary School Management

T.C.

GAZİ ORTAOKULU MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

Ceyhan/ADANA

Sayın: Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı kapsamında "Açık ve Örtük Öğretimin Ortaokul Öğrencilerinin Eşdizimlilik Bilgisi Üzerine Etki Farkı" adlı tezinizin uygulamasını, 2017-2018 eğitim öğretim yılının 8/A ve 8/B sınıflarıyla yürütmeniz uygun bulunmuştur.

Hüzeyfe AKARKEN
Okul Müdürü

Sayı No : 4348876
Kayıt Tarihi : 19-10-2017

Appendix 2**. The Second Version of Quick Placement Test by Oxford University Press**



University *of* Cambridge
Local Examination Syndicate

OXFORD
University Press

Name: **Date:**

Adress:

eMail: **Phone:**

quick placement test

Version 2

The test is divided into two parts:
Part 1 (Questions 1- 40) – All students
Part 2 (Questions 41 – 60) – start this part only if you finished part 1 without problems

Time: 30 - 45 minutes

Quick Placement Test

Part 1

Question 1 – 5

- Where can you see these notices?
- For questions **1** to **5**, mark one letter **A**,**B** or **C** on your **Answer Sheet**.

			A	B	C
1. YOU CAN LOOK, BUT DON'T TOUCH THE PICTURES					
A► in an office	**B►** in a cinema	**C►** in a museum	☐	☐	☐
2. PLEASE GIVE THE RIGHT MONEY TO THE DRIVER			A	B	C
A► in a bank	**B►** on a bus	**C►** in a cinema	☐	☐	☐
3. NO PARKING PLEASE			A	B	C
A► in a street	**B►** on a book	**C►** on a table	☐	☐	☐
4. CROSS BRIDGE FOR TRAINS TO EDINBURGH			A	B	C
A► in a bank	**B►** in a garage	**C►** in a station	☐	☐	☐
5. KEEP IN A COLD PLACE			A	B	C
A► on clothes	**B►** on furniture	**C►** on food	☐	☐	☐

Question 6 –10

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the text below.
- For questions **6** to **10**, mark **one** letter **A**, **B**, or **C** on your Answer Sheet

THE STARS

There are millions of stars in the sky. If you look **(6)**.....the sky on a clear night, it is possible to se about 3000 stars. They look small, but they are really **(7)**.....big hot balls of burning gas. Some of them are huge, but others are much smaller, like our planet Earth. The biggest stars are very bright, but they only live for a short time. Every day new stars **(8)**.....born and old stars die. All the stars are very far away. The light from the nearest star takes more **(9)**.....four years to reach Earth. Hundreds of years ago, people **(10)**.....stars, like the North Star, to know which direction to travel in. Today you can still see that star.

			A	B	C
6.					
A► at	**B►** up	**C►** on	☐	☐	☐
7.					
A► very	**B►** too	**C►** much	☐	☐	☐
8.					
A► is	**B►** be	**C►** are	☐	☐	☐
9.					
A► that	**B►** of	**C►** than	☐	☐	☐
10.					
A► use	**B►** used	**C►** using	☐	☐	☐

Question 11 - 15

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **11** to **20**, mark one letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

Good smilies ahead for young teeth

Older Britons are the worst in Europe when it comes to keeping their teeth. But British youngsters **(11)**.....more to smile about because **(12)**.....teeth are among the best. Almost 80% of Britons over 65 have lost all ore some **(13)**.....their teeth according to a World Health Organisation survey. Eating too **(14)**.....sugar is part of the problem. Among **(15)**....., 12-year-olds have on average only three missing, decayed or filled teeth.

				A	B	C	D
11.							
A► getting	**B►** got	**C►** have	D► having	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.				A	B	C	D
A► their	**B►** his	**C►** them	**D►** theirs	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.				A	B	C	D
A► from	**B►** of	**C►** among	**D►**between	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.				A	B	C	D
A► much	**B►** lot	**C►** many	**D►**deal	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.				A	B	C	D
A► person	**B►** people	**C►** children	**D►**family	☐	☐	☐	☐

Question 16 - 20

Christopher Columbus and the New World

On August 3, 1492, Christopher Columbus set sail from Spain to find a new route to India, China and Japan. At this time most people thought you would fall off the edge of the world if you sailed too far. Yet sailors such as Columbus had seen how a ship appeared to get lower and lower on the horizon as it sailed away. For Columbus this **(16)**.....that the world was round. He **(17)**.....to his men about the distance travelled each day. He did not want them to think that he did not **(18)**.....exactly where they were going. **(19)**....., on October 12, 1492, Columbus and his men landed on a small island he named San Salvador.
Columbus believed he was in Asia, **(20)**.....he was actually in the Caribbean.

				A	B	C	D
16.							
A► made	**B►** pointed	**C►** was	**D►** proved	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► lied	**B►** told	**C►** cheated	**D►** asked	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► find	**B►** know	**C►** think	**D►**expect	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► Next	**B►** Secoundly	**C►** Finally	**D►**Once	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► as	**B►** but	**C►** because	**D►**if	☐	☐	☐	☐

Question 21 - 30

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **21** to **40**, mark one letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

				A	B	C	D
21. The children won´t go to sleep.....we leave a light on outside their bedroom.							
A► except	**B►** otherwise	**C►** unless	**D►** but	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. I´ll give you my spare keys in case you.....home before me.				A	B	C	D
A► would get	**B►** got	**C►** will get	**D►** get	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. My holiday in Paris gave me a great.....to improve my French accent.				A	B	C	D
A► occasion	**B►** chance	**C►** hope	**D►** possibility	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. The singer ended the concert.....her most popular song.				A	B	C	D
A► by	**B►** with	**C►** in	**D►** as	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Because it had not rained for several months, there was a.....of water.				A	B	C	D
A► shortage	**B►** drop	**C►** scare	**D►** waste	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. I´ve always.....you as my best friend.				A	B	C	D
A► regarded	**B►** thought	**C►** meant	**D►** supposed	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. She came to live her.....a month ago.				A	B	C	D
A► quite	**B►** beyond	**C►** already	**D►** almost	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Don´t make such a.....! The dentist is only going to look at your teeth.				A	B	C	D
A► fuss	**B►** trouble	**C►** worry	**D►** reaction	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. He spent a long time looking for a tie which.....with his new shirt.				A	B	C	D
A► fixed	**B►** made	**C►** went	**D►** wore	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Fortunately,.....from a bump on the head, she suffered no serious injuries from her fall.				A	B	C	D
A► other	**B►** except	**C►** besides	**D►** apart	☐	☐	☐	☐

Question 31 – 40

				A	B	C	D
31. She had changed so much that.....anyone recognised her.							
A► almost	**B►** hardly	**C►** not	**D►** nearly	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. .....teaching English, she also writes children´s books.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► Moreover	**B►** As well as	**C►** In addition	**D►** Apart	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. It was clear that the young couple were.....of taking charge of the restaurant.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► responsible	**B►** reliable	**C►** capable	**D►**able	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. The book.....of ten chapters, each one covering a different topic.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► comprises	**B►** includes	**C►** consists	**D►**contains	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Mary was disappointed with her new shirt as the colour.....very quickly.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► bleached	**B►** died	**C►** vanished	**D►**faded	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. National leaders from all over the world are expected o attend the.....meeting.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► peak	**B►** summit	**C►** top	**D►** apex	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Jane remained calm when she won the lottery and.....about her business as if nothing had happened.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► came	**B►** brought	**C►** went	**D►**moved	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. I suggest we.....outside the stadium tomorrow at 8.30.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► meeting	**B►** meet	**C►** met	**D►**will meet	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. My remarks were.....as a joke, but she was offended by them.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► pretended	**B►** thought	**C►** meant	**D►**supposed	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. You ought to take up swimming for the.....of your health.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► concern	**B►** relief	**C►** sake	**D►**cause	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part 2

Do not start this part unless told to do so by your test supervisor

Questions 41 – 45

- In this section you must choose the word which best fits each space in the texts.
- For questions **41** to **45**, mark one letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

CLOCKS

The clock was the first complex mechanical machinery to enter the home, **(41)**.....it was too expensive for the **(42)**.....person until the 19th century, when **(43)**.....production techniques lowered the price. Watches were also developed, but they **(44)**.....luxury items until 1868, When the first cheap pocket watch was designed in Switzerland. Watches later became **(45)**.....available, and Switzerland became the world´ s leading watch manufacturing centre for the next 100 years.

				A	B	C	D
41.							
A► despite	**B►** although	**C►** otherwise	**D►** average	☐	☐	☐	☐
42.				A	B	C	D
A► average	**B►** medium	**C►** general	**D►** common	☐	☐	☐	☐
43.				A	B	C	D
A► vast	**B►** large	**C►** wide	**D►** mass	☐	☐	☐	☐
44.				A	B	C	D
A► lasted	**B►** endured	**C►** kept	**D►** remained	☐	☐	☐	☐
45.				A	B	C	D
A► mostly	**B►** chiefly	**C►** greatly	**D►** widely	☐	☐	☐	☐

Questions 46 - 50

Dublin City Walks

What better way of getting to know a new city than by walking around it? Whether you choose the Medieval Walk, which will **(46)**.....you to the 1000 years ago, find out about the more **(47)**.....history of the city on the Eighteenth Century Walk, or meet the ghosts of Dublin´s many writers on The Literary Walk, we know you will enjoy the experience.

Dublin City Walks **(48)**.....twice daily. Meet your guide at 10.30 a.m. or 2.30 p.m. at the Tourist Information Office. No advance **(49)**.....is necessary. Special **(50)**.....are available for families, children and parties of more than ten people.

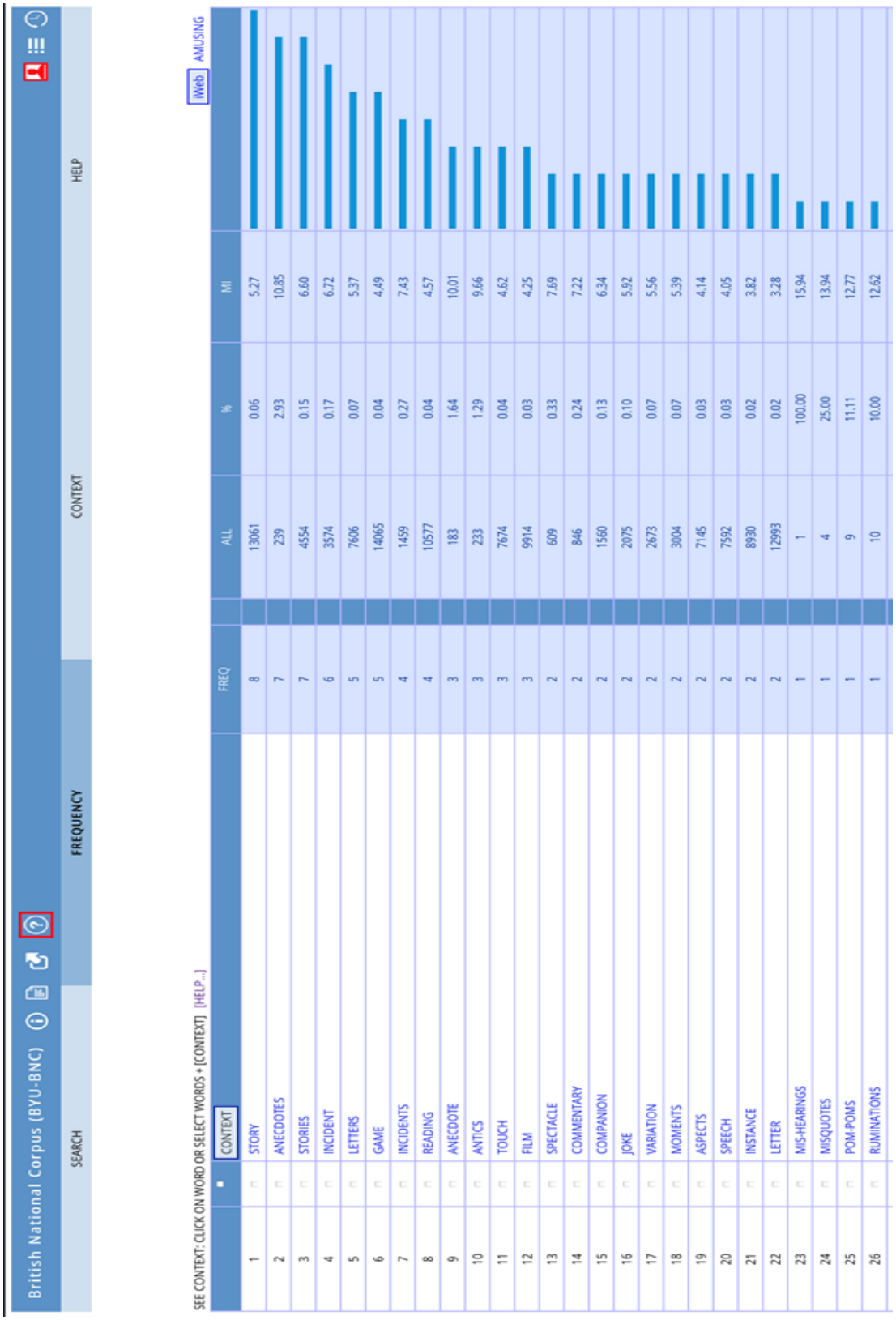
				A	B	C	D
46.							
A► introduce	**B►** present	**C►** move	D► show	☐	☐	☐	☐
47.				A	B	C	D
A► near	**B►** late	**C►** recent	**D►** close	☐	☐	☐	☐
48.				A	B	C	D
A► take place	**B►** occur	**C►** work	**D►** function	☐	☐	☐	☐
49.				A	B	C	D
A► paying	**B►** reserving	**C►** warning	**D►** booking	☐	☐	☐	☐
50.				A	B	C	D
A► funds	**B►** costs	**C►** fees	**D►** rates	☐	☐	☐	☐

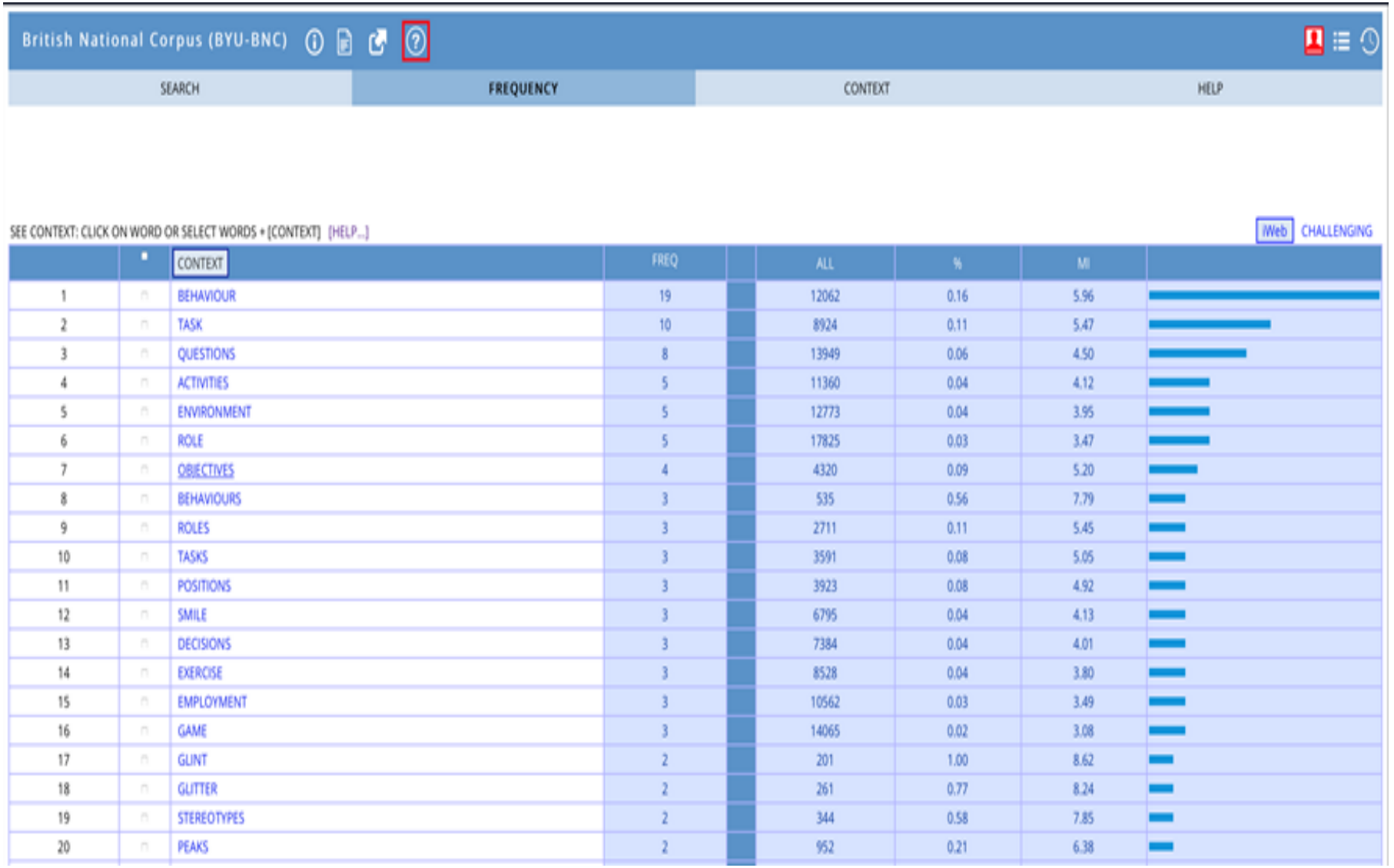
Question 51– 60

- In this section you must choose the word or phrase which best completes each sentence.
- For questions **51** to **60**, mark one letter **A**, **B**, **C** or **D** on your Answer Sheet.

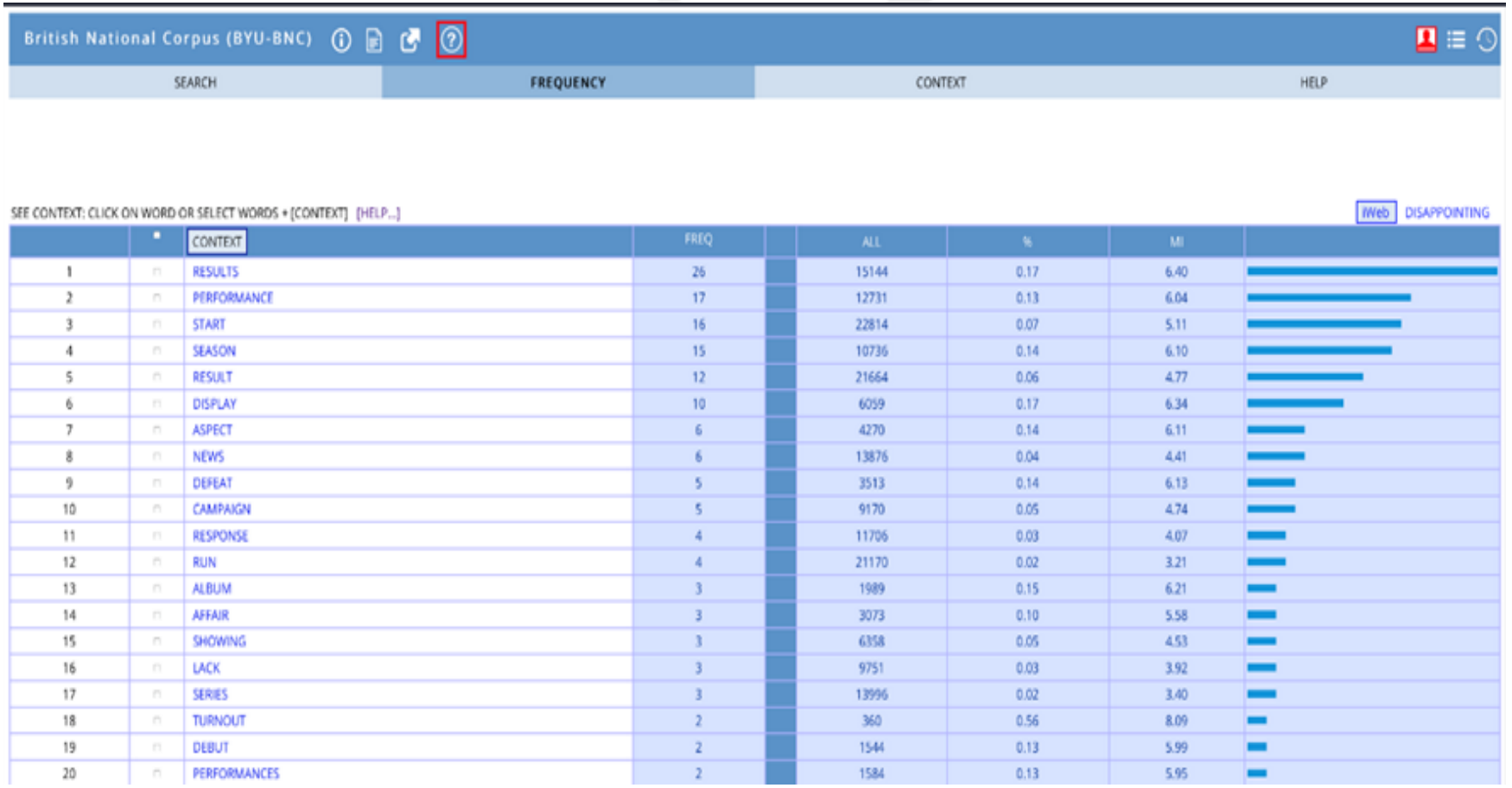
				A	B	C	D
51. If you´re not too tired we could have a……..of tennis after lunch.							
A► match	**B►** play	**C►** game	**D►** party	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. Don´t you get tired……watching TV every nigh?				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► with	**B►** by	**C►** of	**D►** at	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. Go on, finish the dessert. It needs……up because it won´t stay fresh until.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► eat	**B►** eating	**C►** to eat	**D►** eaten	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. We´re not used to…….invited to very formal occasions.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► be	**B►** have	**C►** being	**D►** having	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. I´d rather we…….meet this evening, because I´m very tired.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► wouldn´t	**B►** shouldn´t	**C►** hadn´t	**D►**didn´t	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. She obviously didn´t want to discuss the matter so I didn´t……..the point.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► maintain	**B►** chase	**C►** follow	**D►** pursue	☐	☐	☐	☐
57. Anyone……after the start of the play is not allowed in until the interval.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► arrives	**B►** has arrived	**C►** arriving	**D►** arrived	☐	☐	☐	☐
58. This new magazine is ……..with interesting stories and useful information.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► full	**B►** packed	**C►** thick	**D►** compiled	☐	☐	☐	☐
59. The restaurant was far too noisy to be……to relaxed conversation.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► conducive	**B►** suitable	**C►** practical	**D►** fruitful	☐	☐	☐	☐
60. In this branch of medicine, it is vital to ……..open to new ideas.				**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
A► stand	**B►** continue	**C►** hold	**D►** remain	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 3. The Collocates of Target Adjectives

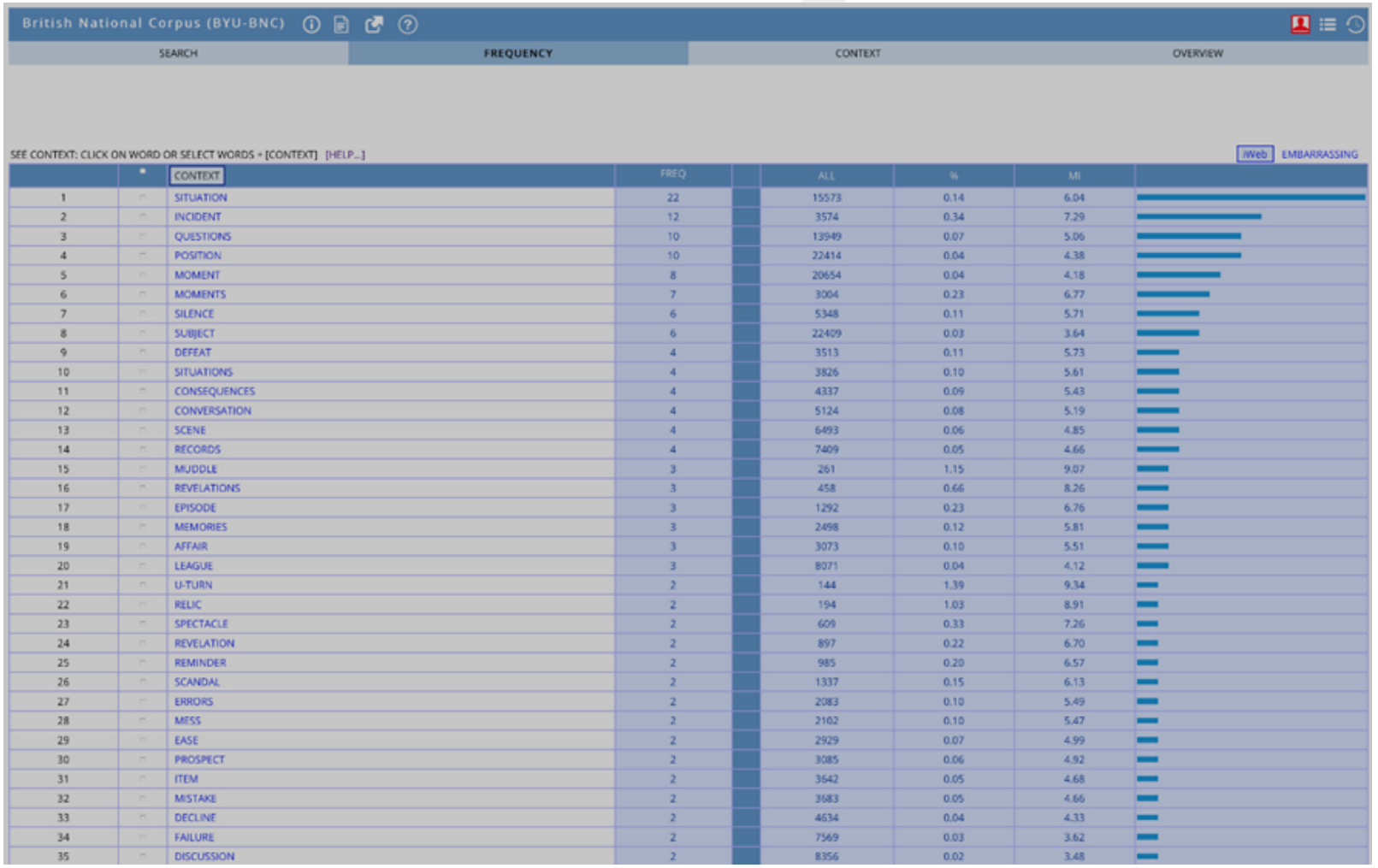




		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		BEHAVIOUR	19		12062	0.16	5.96	
2		TASK	10		8924	0.11	5.47	
3		QUESTIONS	8		13949	0.06	4.50	
4		ACTIVITIES	5		11360	0.04	4.12	
5		ENVIRONMENT	5		12773	0.04	3.95	
6		ROLE	5		17825	0.03	3.47	
7		OBJECTIVES	4		4320	0.09	5.20	
8		BEHAVIOURS	3		535	0.56	7.79	
9		ROLES	3		2711	0.11	5.45	
10		TASKS	3		3591	0.08	5.05	
11		POSITIONS	3		3923	0.08	4.92	
12		SMILE	3		6795	0.04	4.13	
13		DECISIONS	3		7384	0.04	4.01	
14		EXERCISE	3		8528	0.04	3.80	
15		EMPLOYMENT	3		10562	0.03	3.49	
16		GAME	3		14065	0.02	3.08	
17		GLINT	2		201	1.00	8.62	
18		GLITTER	2		261	0.77	8.24	
19		STEREOTYPES	2		344	0.58	7.85	
20		PEAKS	2		952	0.21	6.38	



		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		RESULTS	26		15144	0.17	6.40	
2		PERFORMANCE	17		12731	0.13	6.04	
3		START	16		22814	0.07	5.11	
4		SEASON	15		10736	0.14	6.10	
5		RESULT	12		21664	0.06	4.77	
6		DISPLAY	10		6059	0.17	6.34	
7		ASPECT	6		4270	0.14	6.11	
8		NEWS	6		13876	0.04	4.41	
9		DEFEAT	5		3513	0.14	6.13	
10		CAMPAIGN	5		9170	0.05	4.74	
11		RESPONSE	4		11706	0.03	4.07	
12		RUN	4		21170	0.02	3.21	
13		ALBUM	3		1989	0.15	6.21	
14		AFFAIR	3		3073	0.10	5.58	
15		SHOWING	3		6358	0.05	4.53	
16		LACK	3		9751	0.03	3.92	
17		SERIES	3		13996	0.02	3.40	
18		TURNOUT	2		360	0.56	8.09	
19		DEBUT	2		1544	0.13	5.99	
20		PERFORMANCES	2		1584	0.13	5.95	



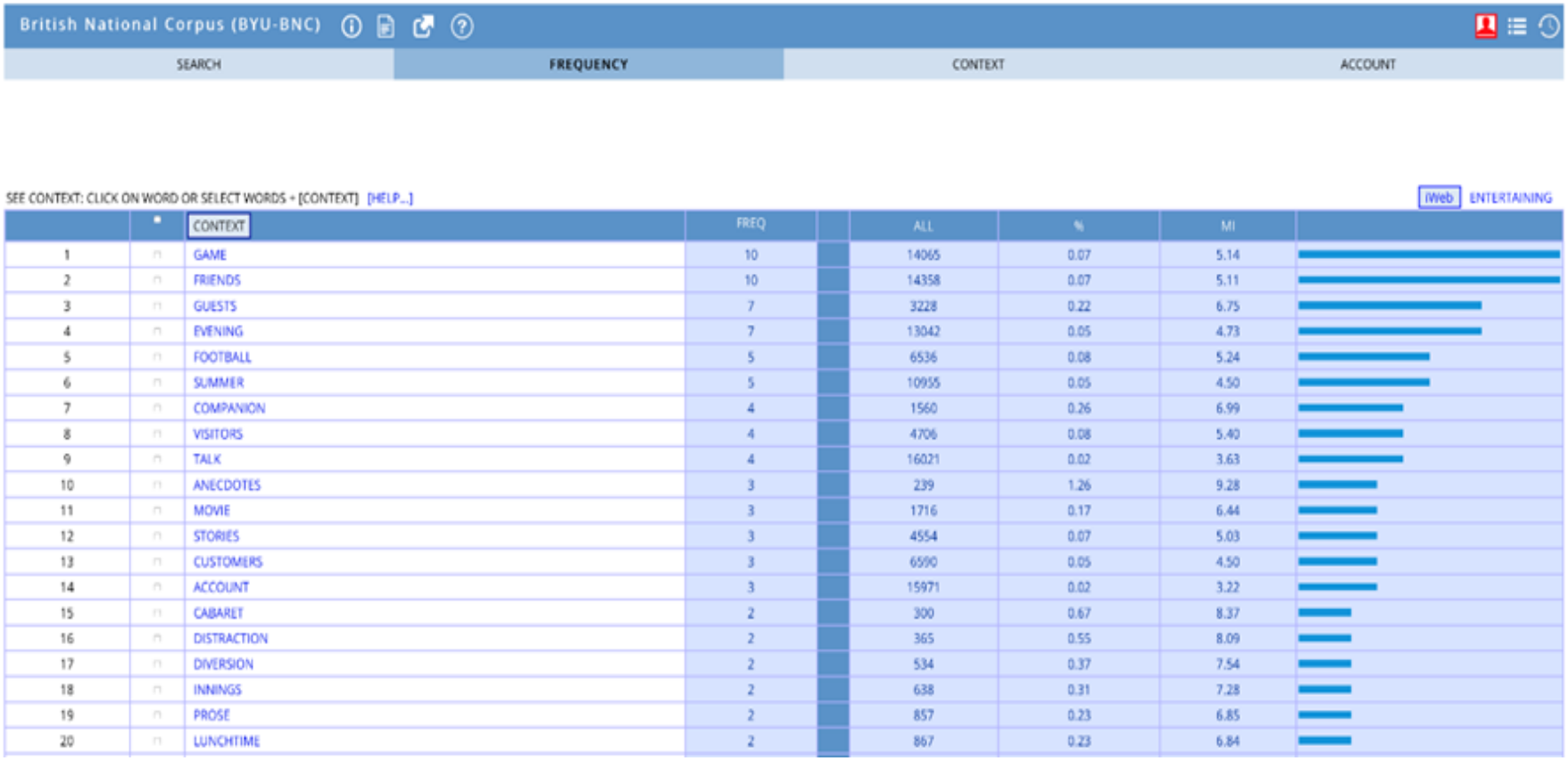
		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI
1		SITUATION	22		15573	0.14	6.04
2		INCIDENT	12		3574	0.34	7.29
3		QUESTIONS	10		13949	0.07	5.06
4		POSITION	10		22414	0.04	4.38
5		MOMENT	8		20654	0.04	4.18
6		MOMENTS	7		3004	0.23	6.77
7		SILENCE	6		5348	0.11	5.71
8		SUBJECT	6		22409	0.03	3.64
9		DEFEAT	4		3513	0.11	5.73
10		SITUATIONS	4		3826	0.10	5.61
11		CONSEQUENCES	4		4337	0.09	5.43
12		CONVERSATION	4		5124	0.08	5.19
13		SCENE	4		6493	0.06	4.85
14		RECORDS	4		7409	0.05	4.66
15		MUDDLE	3		261	1.15	9.07
16		REVELATIONS	3		458	0.66	8.26
17		EPISODE	3		1292	0.23	6.76
18		MEMORIES	3		2498	0.12	5.81
19		AFFAIR	3		3073	0.10	5.51
20		LEAGUE	3		8071	0.04	4.12
21		U-TURN	2		144	1.39	9.34
22		RELIC	2		194	1.03	8.91
23		SPECTACLE	2		609	0.33	7.26
24		REVELATION	2		897	0.22	6.70
25		REMINDER	2		985	0.20	6.57
26		SCANDAL	2		1337	0.15	6.13
27		ERRORS	2		2083	0.10	5.49
28		MESS	2		2102	0.10	5.47
29		EASE	2		2929	0.07	4.99
30		PROSPECT	2		3085	0.06	4.92
31		ITEM	2		3642	0.05	4.68
32		MISTAKE	2		3683	0.05	4.66
33		DECLINE	2		4634	0.04	4.33
34		FAILURE	2		7569	0.03	3.62
35		DISCUSSION	2		8356	0.02	3.48

36		TASK	2		8924	0.02	3.39	
37		UNREADINESS	1		5	20.00	13.19	
38		WOMAN'AND	1		5	20.00	13.19	
39		CLIMB-DOWN	1		13	7.69	11.81	
40		CORDIALITY	1		16	6.25	11.51	
41		BATHOS	1		19	5.26	11.26	
42		BYELECTION	1		19	5.26	11.26	
43		STRIDENCY	1		19	5.26	11.26	
44		INFINITIES	1		21	4.76	11.12	
45		IRRITANTS	1		22	4.55	11.05	
46		ERECTIONS	1		27	3.70	10.76	
47		LOWER-MIDDLE	1		28	3.57	10.70	
48		HOLD-UPS	1		32	3.13	10.51	
49		STIGMATA	1		32	3.13	10.51	
50		ABOUT-TURN	1		33	3.03	10.47	
51		ENSLAVEMENT	1		37	2.70	10.30	
52		CRUSHES	1		38	2.63	10.26	
53		DBCLE	1		40	2.50	10.19	
54		FAUX	1		43	2.33	10.08	
55		STABS	1		51	1.96	9.84	
56		INDISCRETION	1		62	1.61	9.56	
57		BANALITY	1		66	1.52	9.47	
58		ALBATROSS	1		68	1.47	9.42	
59		NOOK	1		75	1.33	9.28	
60		REBUFF	1		77	1.30	9.24	
61		FRACAS	1		78	1.28	9.23	
62		BLUNDERS	1		89	1.12	9.03	
63		PICKERAGE	1		100	1.00	8.87	
64		SQUABBLING	1		105	0.95	8.80	
65		REMINISCENCE	1		115	0.87	8.67	
66		ERRANDS	1		118	0.85	8.63	
67		DEBACLE	1		125	0.80	8.54	
68		GIGGLES	1		146	0.68	8.32	
69		LAPSES	1		147	0.68	8.31	
70		HUMP	1		151	0.66	8.27	

73		TATTOO	1		172	0.58	8.08	
74		LIMBO	1		177	0.56	8.04	
75		ZEST	1		180	0.56	8.02	
76		STALEMATE	1		186	0.54	7.97	
77		RUMBLE	1		194	0.52	7.91	
78		THUD	1		195	0.51	7.90	
79		BOARDROOM	1		228	0.44	7.68	
80		INCONTINENCE	1		261	0.38	7.48	
81		TRIFLE	1		278	0.36	7.39	
82		HITCH	1		329	0.30	7.15	
83		RICHES	1		334	0.30	7.13	
84		IMPOSSIBILITY	1		335	0.30	7.12	
85		WAITS	1		353	0.28	7.05	
86		DISAGREEMENTS	1		361	0.28	7.01	
87		DISTRACTION	1		365	0.27	7.00	
88		PREDICAMENT	1		369	0.27	6.98	
89		PARALLELS	1		411	0.24	6.83	
90		RESIDUE	1		413	0.24	6.82	
91		AISLE	1		417	0.24	6.81	
92		DEFEATS	1		434	0.23	6.75	
93		SUBURB	1		455	0.22	6.68	
94		RESURRECTION	1		459	0.22	6.67	
95		TEE	1		492	0.20	6.57	
96		REVERSAL	1		528	0.19	6.47	
97		PUZZLE	1		568	0.18	6.36	
98		JOURNALISM	1		586	0.17	6.32	
99		ADMISSIONS	1		611	0.16	6.26	
100		CONFESSION	1		613	0.16	6.25	
101		CONSTRAINT	1		639	0.16	6.19	
102		PARADOX	1		651	0.15	6.16	
103		DEMISE	1		678	0.15	6.11	
104		HONESTY	1		678	0.15	6.11	
105		DIARRHOEA	1		736	0.14	5.99	
106		EPISODES	1		751	0.13	5.96	
107		CRAP	1		755	0.13	5.95	
108		ANTICIPATION	1		778	0.13	5.91	
109		PHOTOS	1		782	0.13	5.90	

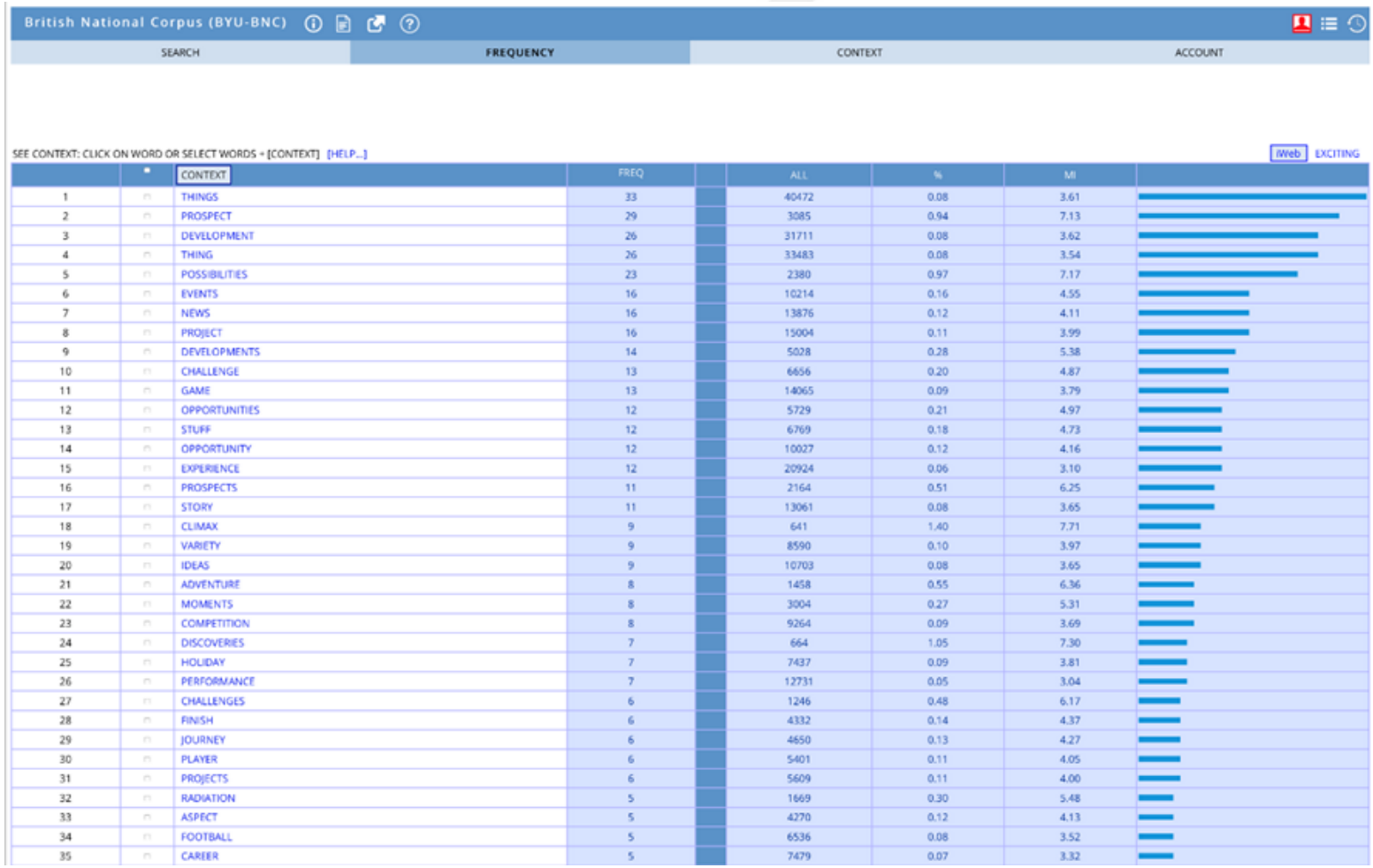


		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		INSIGHT	26		1397	1.86	9.10	
2		STORY	26		13061	0.20	5.88	
3		READING	24		10577	0.23	6.07	
4		SUBJECT	17		22409	0.08	4.48	
5		COLLECTION	14		7670	0.18	5.75	
6		GLIMPSE	12		975	1.23	8.50	
7		HISTORY	11		18846	0.06	4.11	
8		EXPERIENCE	11		20924	0.05	3.96	
9		CITY	11		22393	0.05	3.86	
10		BOOK	11		24142	0.05	3.75	
11		ASPECTS	9		7145	0.13	5.22	
12		INSIGHTS	7		761	0.92	8.08	
13		MIXTURE	7		3172	0.22	6.03	
14		FACTS	7		5143	0.14	5.33	
15		STUFF	7		6769	0.10	4.93	
16		WALK	7		9962	0.07	4.37	
17		QUESTIONS	7		13949	0.05	3.89	
18		ACCOUNT	7		15971	0.04	3.69	
19		STUDY	7		21763	0.03	3.25	
20		ARRAY	6		1101	0.54	7.33	


British National Corpus (BYU-BNC)
SEARCH
FREQUENCY
CONTEXT
ACCOUNT
SEE CONTEXT: CLICK ON WORD OR SELECT WORDS » [CONTEXT] [HELP...]
iWeb
ENTERTAINING
CONTEXT
FREQ
ALL
%
MI
1 GAME 10 14065 0.07 5.14
2 FRIENDS 10 14358 0.07 5.11
3 GUESTS 7 3228 0.22 6.75
4 EVENING 7 13042 0.05 4.73
5 FOOTBALL 5 6536 0.08 5.24
6 SUMMER 5 10955 0.05 4.50
7 COMPANION 4 1560 0.26 6.99
8 VISITORS 4 4706 0.08 5.40
9 TALK 4 16021 0.02 3.63
10 ANECDOTES 3 239 1.26 9.28
11 MOVIE 3 1716 0.17 6.44
12 STORIES 3 4554 0.07 5.03
13 CUSTOMERS 3 6590 0.05 4.50
14 ACCOUNT 3 15971 0.02 3.22
15 CABARET 2 300 0.67 8.37
16 DISTRACTION 2 365 0.55 8.09
17 DIVERSION 2 534 0.37 7.54
18 INNINGS 2 638 0.31 7.28
19 PROSE 2 857 0.23 6.85
20 LUNCHTIME 2 867 0.23 6.84

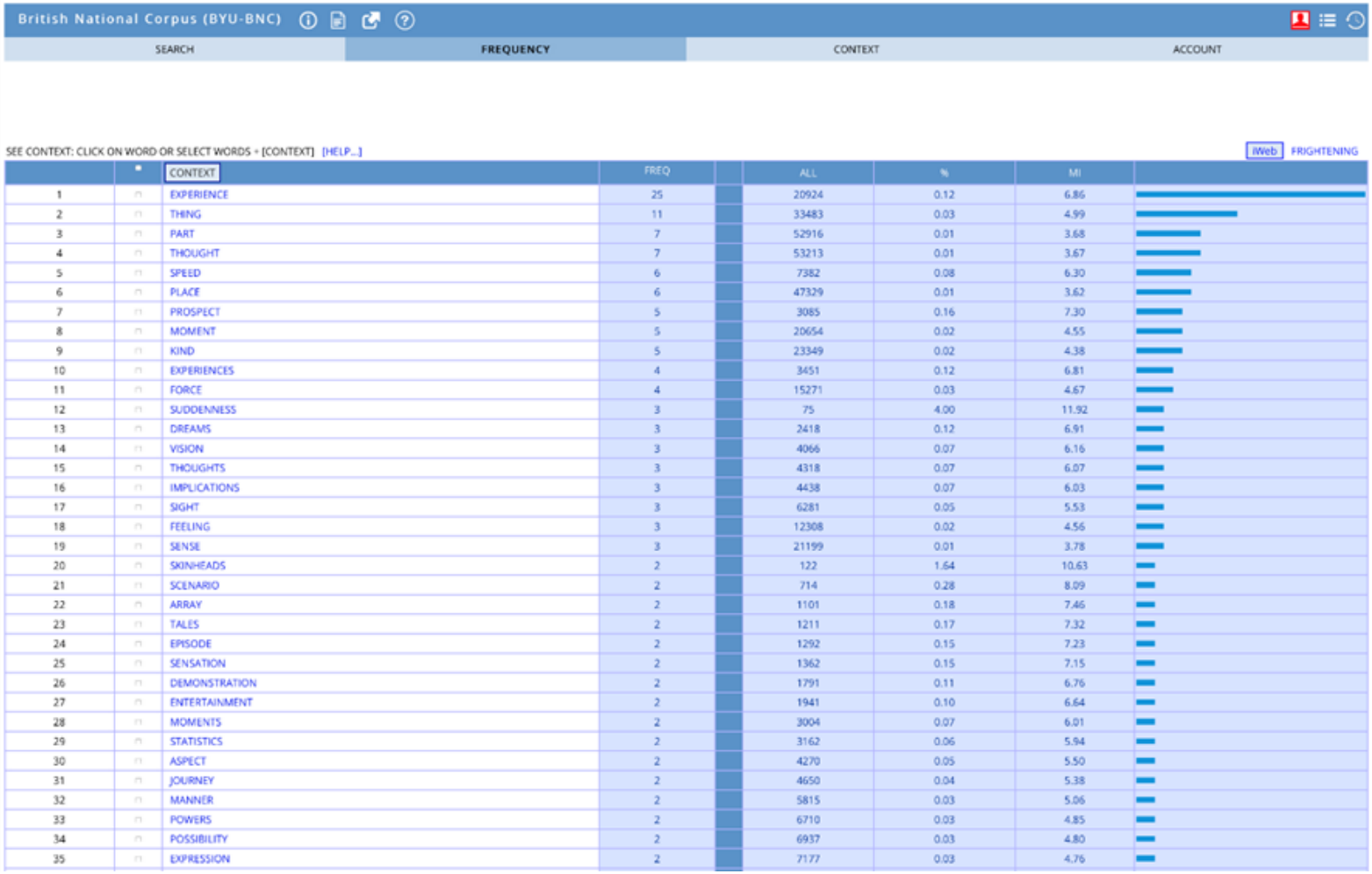


		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		VICTORY	8		5404	0.15	7.67	
2		CLIMAX	6		641	0.94	10.33	
3		CONTEST	4		1624	0.25	8.40	
4		MATCH	4		9112	0.04	5.91	
5		WIN	4		10206	0.04	5.75	
6		EXPERIENCE	4		20924	0.02	4.71	
7		DUEL	3		210	1.43	10.94	
8		FINALE	3		340	0.88	10.24	
9		ENCOUNTER	3		1648	0.18	7.96	
10		FINISH	3		4332	0.07	6.57	
11		RACE	3		7752	0.04	5.73	
12		GAME	3		14065	0.02	4.87	
13		MOMENT	3		20654	0.01	4.32	
14		REPLAY	2		536	0.37	9.00	
15		FINISHES	2		543	0.37	8.98	
16		SPECTACLE	2		609	0.33	8.81	
17		ENCOUNTERS	2		630	0.32	8.77	
18		TONES	2		866	0.23	8.31	
19		ADVENTURE	2		1458	0.14	7.56	
20		TRIES	2		1940	0.10	7.14	



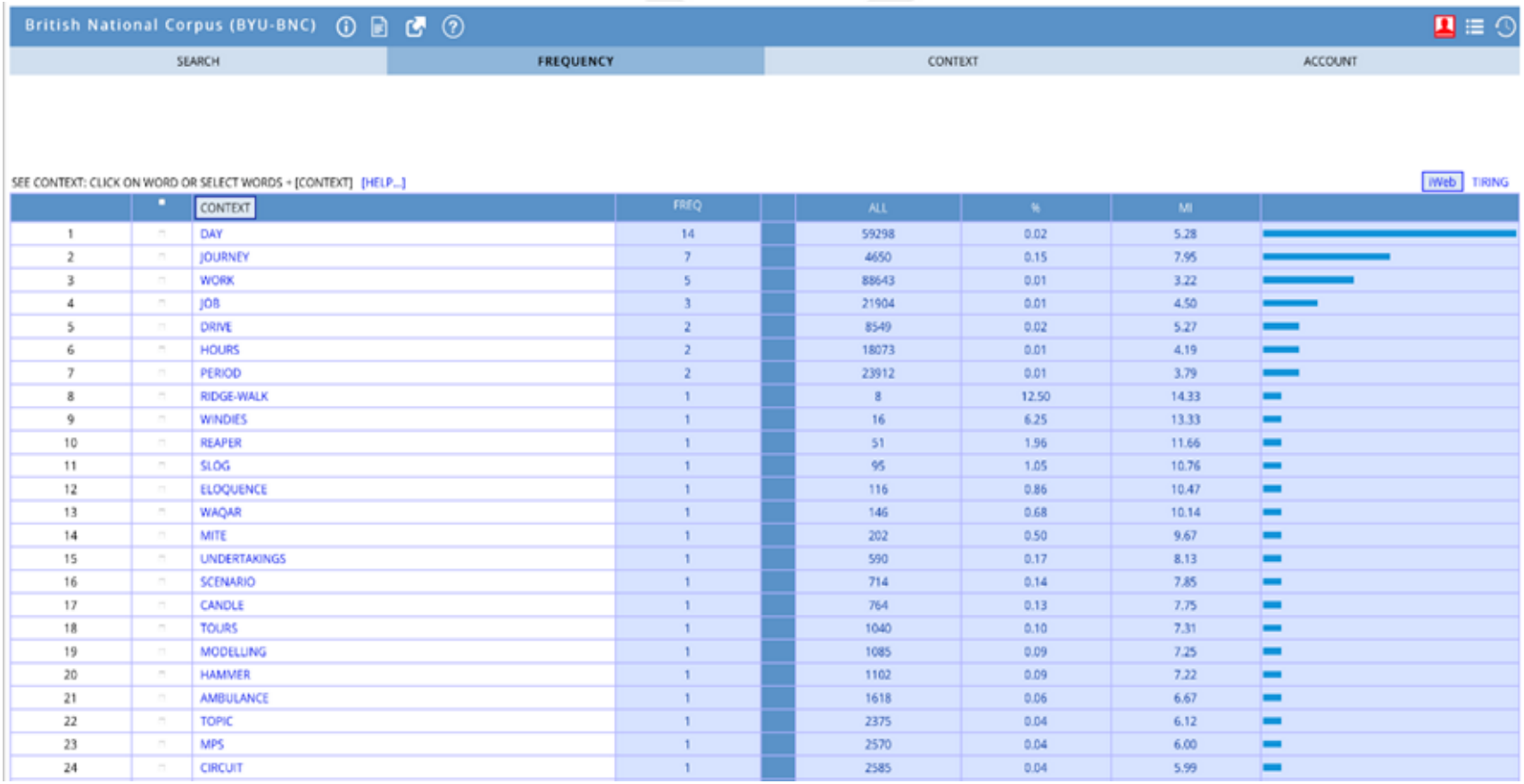
		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		THINGS	33		40472	0.08	3.61	
2		PROSPECT	29		3085	0.94	7.13	
3		DEVELOPMENT	26		31711	0.08	3.62	
4		THING	26		33483	0.08	3.54	
5		POSSIBILITIES	23		2380	0.97	7.17	
6		EVENTS	16		10214	0.16	4.55	
7		NEWS	16		13876	0.12	4.11	
8		PROJECT	16		15004	0.11	3.99	
9		DEVELOPMENTS	14		5028	0.28	5.38	
10		CHALLENGE	13		6656	0.20	4.87	
11		GAME	13		14065	0.09	3.79	
12		OPPORTUNITIES	12		5729	0.21	4.97	
13		STUFF	12		6769	0.18	4.73	
14		OPPORTUNITY	12		10027	0.12	4.16	
15		EXPERIENCE	12		20924	0.06	3.10	
16		PROSPECTS	11		2164	0.51	6.25	
17		STORY	11		13061	0.08	3.65	
18		CLIMAX	9		641	1.40	7.71	
19		VARIETY	9		8590	0.10	3.97	
20		IDEAS	9		10703	0.08	3.65	
21		ADVENTURE	8		1458	0.55	6.36	
22		MOMENTS	8		3004	0.27	5.31	
23		COMPETITION	8		9264	0.09	3.69	
24		DISCOVERIES	7		664	1.05	7.30	
25		HOLIDAY	7		7437	0.09	3.81	
26		PERFORMANCE	7		12731	0.05	3.04	
27		CHALLENGES	6		1246	0.48	6.17	
28		FINISH	6		4332	0.14	4.37	
29		JOURNEY	6		4650	0.13	4.27	
30		PLAYER	6		5401	0.11	4.05	
31		PROJECTS	6		5609	0.11	4.00	
32		RADIATION	5		1669	0.30	5.48	
33		ASPECT	5		4270	0.12	4.13	
34		FOOTBALL	5		6536	0.08	3.52	
35		CAREER	5		7479	0.07	3.32	

36		MATCH	5		9112	0.05	3.04	
37		NIGHTLIFE	4		133	3.01	8.81	
38		STYLING	4		391	1.02	7.26	
39		PRIZES	4		1120	0.36	5.74	
40		POP	4		3371	0.12	4.15	
41		THEME	4		3665	0.11	4.03	
42		CITIES	4		4249	0.09	3.81	
43		STORIES	4		4554	0.09	3.71	
44		BIRDS	4		5849	0.07	3.35	
45		SELECTION	4		5916	0.07	3.34	
46		POSSIBILITY	4		6937	0.06	3.11	
47		CONTESTS	3		309	0.97	7.18	
48		EXCURSIONS	3		410	0.73	6.77	
49		BREAKTHROUGH	3		686	0.44	6.03	
50		SCENERY	3		744	0.40	5.91	
51		EPISODES	3		751	0.40	5.90	
52		STIMULI	3		885	0.34	5.66	
53		EXPLORATION	3		1520	0.20	4.88	
54		CULTURES	3		1616	0.19	4.79	
55		INNOVATION	3		1683	0.18	4.74	
56		SAILING	3		1889	0.16	4.57	
57		TALENT	3		2003	0.15	4.48	
58		VENTURE	3		2331	0.13	4.27	
59		DISCOVERY	3		2751	0.11	4.03	
60		INITIATIVE	3		3569	0.08	3.65	
61		TRIP	3		4405	0.07	3.35	
62		SPORT	3		4427	0.07	3.34	
63		CONVERSATION	3		5124	0.06	3.13	
64		EXHIBITION	3		5357	0.06	3.07	



	*	CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		EXPERIENCE	25		20924	0.12	6.86	
2		THING	11		33483	0.03	4.99	
3		PART	7		52916	0.01	3.68	
4		THOUGHT	7		53213	0.01	3.67	
5		SPEED	6		7382	0.08	6.30	
6		PLACE	6		47329	0.01	3.62	
7		PROSPECT	5		3085	0.16	7.30	
8		MOMENT	5		20654	0.02	4.55	
9		KIND	5		23349	0.02	4.38	
10		EXPERIENCES	4		3451	0.12	6.81	
11		FORCE	4		15271	0.03	4.67	
12		SUDDENNESS	3		75	4.00	11.92	
13		DREAMS	3		2418	0.12	6.91	
14		VISION	3		4066	0.07	6.16	
15		THOUGHTS	3		4318	0.07	6.07	
16		IMPLICATIONS	3		4438	0.07	6.03	
17		SIGHT	3		6281	0.05	5.53	
18		FEELING	3		12308	0.02	4.56	
19		SENSE	3		21199	0.01	3.78	
20		SKINHEADS	2		122	1.64	10.63	
21		SCENARIO	2		714	0.28	8.09	
22		ARRAY	2		1101	0.18	7.46	
23		TALES	2		1211	0.17	7.32	
24		EPISODE	2		1292	0.15	7.23	
25		SENSATION	2		1362	0.15	7.15	
26		DEMONSTRATION	2		1791	0.11	6.76	
27		ENTERTAINMENT	2		1941	0.10	6.64	
28		MOMENTS	2		3004	0.07	6.01	
29		STATISTICS	2		3162	0.06	5.94	
30		ASPECT	2		4270	0.05	5.50	
31		JOURNEY	2		4650	0.04	5.38	
32		MANNER	2		5815	0.03	5.06	
33		POWERS	2		6710	0.03	4.85	
34		POSSIBILITY	2		6937	0.03	4.80	
35		EXPRESSION	2		7177	0.03	4.76	

36		FEATURES	2		8543	0.02	4.50	
37		PLACES	2		9478	0.02	4.35	
38		LACK	2		9751	0.02	4.31	
39		FILM	2		9914	0.02	4.29	
40		PICTURE	2		10474	0.02	4.21	
41		IDEAS	2		10703	0.02	4.18	
42		STORY	2		13061	0.02	3.89	
43		FIGURE	2		17036	0.01	3.51	
44		MINUTES	2		17457	0.01	3.47	
45		RATE	2		18629	0.01	3.38	
46		BOOK	2		24142	0.01	3.01	
47		LEISURE-CENTRE	1		1	100.00	16.56	
48		INHOSPITALITY	1		3	33.33	14.98	
49		TRACTABILITY	1		6	16.67	13.98	
50		MAIDSERVANTS	1		13	7.69	12.86	



		CONTEXT	FREQ		ALL	%	MI	
1		DAY	14		59298	0.02	5.28	
2		JOURNEY	7		4650	0.15	7.95	
3		WORK	5		88643	0.01	3.22	
4		JOB	3		21904	0.01	4.50	
5		DRIVE	2		8549	0.02	5.27	
6		HOURS	2		18073	0.01	4.19	
7		PERIOD	2		23912	0.01	3.79	
8		RIDGE-WALK	1		8	12.50	14.33	
9		WINDIES	1		16	6.25	13.33	
10		REAPER	1		51	1.96	11.66	
11		SLOG	1		95	1.05	10.76	
12		ELOQUENCE	1		116	0.86	10.47	
13		WAQAR	1		146	0.68	10.14	
14		MITE	1		202	0.50	9.67	
15		UNDERTAKINGS	1		590	0.17	8.13	
16		SCENARIO	1		714	0.14	7.85	
17		CANDLE	1		764	0.13	7.75	
18		TOURS	1		1040	0.10	7.31	
19		MODELLING	1		1085	0.09	7.25	
20		HAMMER	1		1102	0.09	7.22	
21		AMBULANCE	1		1618	0.06	6.67	
22		TOPIC	1		2375	0.04	6.12	
23		MPS	1		2570	0.04	6.00	
24		CIRCUIT	1		2585	0.04	5.99	

Appendix 4. The Pre-, Post, and Delayed Post-Test

TEST 1

Write Turkish meaning of the words. (Altı çizili kelimenin Türkçesini yazınız.)

TURKISH

2. The book is full of **amusing** jokes.*
   …….
3. My sister really liked that **entertaining** evening.*
   …….
4. Many women have **challenging** tasks in their life. *
   …….
5. It is a **fascinating** city for him. ***
   ……
6. My father always talks about his **thrilling** adventure. ***
   ……
7. It was a **disappointing** performance for the singer. ***
   ....……
8. I do not want to see this **embarrasing** photo. *
   …….
9. You shouldn't tell me any **frightening** stories.*
   ……
10. Bungee-jumping is an **exciting** sport. ** *
    ……
11. I want to sleep because it was a **tiring** day. **
    ……..

TEST 2

Complete the words. (Kelimeleri tamamlayınız)

1. The book is full of **amu……..** anectodes.*
2. My sister really liked that **ent……..……** movie. *
3. Many women have **cha……...**tasks in their life.*
4. Lord of the Flies is a **fas…….…..** book.***
5. My father always talks about his **thr…….……** adventure. ***
6. I got 40 from Maths exam and it was a **dis……..……** result for me.**
7. I don't want to remember that **emb……** defeat. *
8. You shouldn't tell me any **fri…….** stories. *
9. Bungee-jumping is an **exc……..……** sport. ***
10. I want to sleep because it was a **tir……..…….** day. **

TEST 3

A. Choose the correct 3 options. (Uygun olan 3 şıkkı işaretleyiniz.)

1. The book is full of amusing…… about the writer's childhood. *

b. anectodes b. tables c. jokes d. moments e. problems f. phones

2. Many women have challenging……. in their life nowadays.*

a. information b. environment c. activities d. tears e. tasks. f.shirts

3. It was a disappointing …… for the boss and he got angry.**

a. result b. performance c.machine d.dream e.notebook f.campaign

4. I do not want to remember that embarrasing ……. *

a. bowl b.defeat c. weather d.habit e. mistake f. photo

5. I think my sister really liked that entertaining…… *

a. sign b. dress c. friend d. evening e.movie f. pan

6. It is easy to understand why Chris is so happy because it is a fascinating…….for him. *

a. story b. book c. board d. concern e. city f. rule

7. My father always talks about his thrilling…… ***

a.game b. bike c. experience d. password e. adventure f. saucepan

8. Students are glad to learn more about the exciting…… *

a.jackets b. carpets c. news d. mistakes e.discoveries f.sports

9. You shouldn't talk about any frightening …… in front of children. *

a. stories b. pictures c. pens d.lessons e. places f. recipes

10. I want to sleep now because it was the most tiring……. ***

a. day b. environment c. present d. signal e. journey f. work

* original sentence written by the researcher

** re-written sentence using the examples from Cambridge Dictionary

*** simplified sentence taken from BNC online service

TEST 4

Complete the words and write four words that can fit in the blank. (Boşluklara yukarıda verilen kelimelerle uyumlu olabilecek 4 adet kelime yazınız.)

a. frightening

1) st……

2) pi…….

3) pl…….

4) ……

b. exciting

1) ne…….

2) di……

3) sp……

4)……

c. amusing

1) an…….

2) mo……..

3) jo……

4)…….

d. entertaining

1) ev…….

2) fr……

3) mo……..

4)…….

e. fascinating

1) st…….

2) bo……..

3) ci……

4)……

f. challenging

1) en……

2) ac……

3) ta……..…

4)……

g. disappointing

1) re……..

2) pe……..

3) ca……

4)……

h. embarrasing

1) de……

2) mi……..

3) ph……..

4)……..

i.thrilling

1) ga……..

2) ex……

3) ad……..

4)……

j. tiring

1) da……..

2) wo……

3) jo……

4)……..

Appendix 5. Worksheet About Target Adjectives

MATCH THE WORDS WITH THE SUITABLE PICTURES

Smile/Laugh	Amusing	Challenging	Disappointing	Embarassing
Entertaining	Fascinating	Ski	Dangerous	Exciting
Safe	Easy	Fascinating	Unusual	Frightening
Lovely	Ride	Jump	Dive	Thrilling



MATCH THE WORDS WITH THE SUITABLE PICTURES

Swim	Rafting	Jogging	Caving	Bungee-Jumping
Safari	Cycling/biking	Skydiving	Hand-gliding	Canoeing/Kayaking
Trekking	Hiking	Rollerblading	Scuba-diving	Sailing
Paragliding	Ice-Skating	Rugby	Climb	Adrenalin junkie



Appendix 6. The Paper Based Concordance Activities.

The forest can be a	**frightening**	place.
It's a very strange and	**frightening**	story.
The most	**frightening**	thing was that I thought it would never stop.
He was quite a	**frightening**	animal to look at, with his sharp white fangs.
He was a man whose	**frightening**	appearance commanded instant respect.
He may be faced with a	**frightening**	object which he does not wish to go past.
It was a very	**frightening**	subject, personal experiences came up.
It had been, I realized, an extremely long and	**tiring**	day.
I remember, and I also remember that it is a very	**tiring**	work.
The soldiers had found it a long and	**tiring**	period.
This strange and very	**tiring**	event, designed by the church youth worker
It had been a long,	**tiring**	business and his hands were sore and chafed from the ropes.
After all we have a long and	**tiring**	afternoon ahead of us?'
We've had a long and	**tiring**	journey and my wife is not well.'

They are very colourful and	**amusing**	characters.
No more	**amusing**	anecdotes about his brief army career.
The master raconteur looks back at the many	**amusing**	moments of his 47-year career at the BBC.
He thanked us all for attending, told one short and	**amusing**	joke and wished us on our way.
Such a likable,	**amusing**	man!
The young gentleman seemed to find this an	**amusing**	thought.
I still freeze if people talk to me and can't get out one	**amusing**	response.

My work involves	**challenging**	people about why they offend.
If schools are fully to develop their pupils, then	**challenging**	activities need to be provided.
Amateur golfers travel to play, searching out the most	**challenging**	courses around the world.
has sufficiently	**challenging**	tasks to tackle,
But you're used to doing	**challenging**	material on stage.
For the mountaineer, summer and winter, it proves a rough and	**challenging**	environment.

Cup fever had obscured	**disappointing**	results and falling attendances in the League.
In summary, a	**disappointing**	performance for me.
It's not a	**disappointing**	end to the game though is it Alan?
I am afraid, however, that I am going to have to give you a	**disappointing**	reply.
True, this has been a	**disappointing**	campaign.
It was a beautiful afternoon, warmer than most in the past	**disappointing**	summer.
Someone who hears well might be told:	**disappointing**	news I'm afraid.

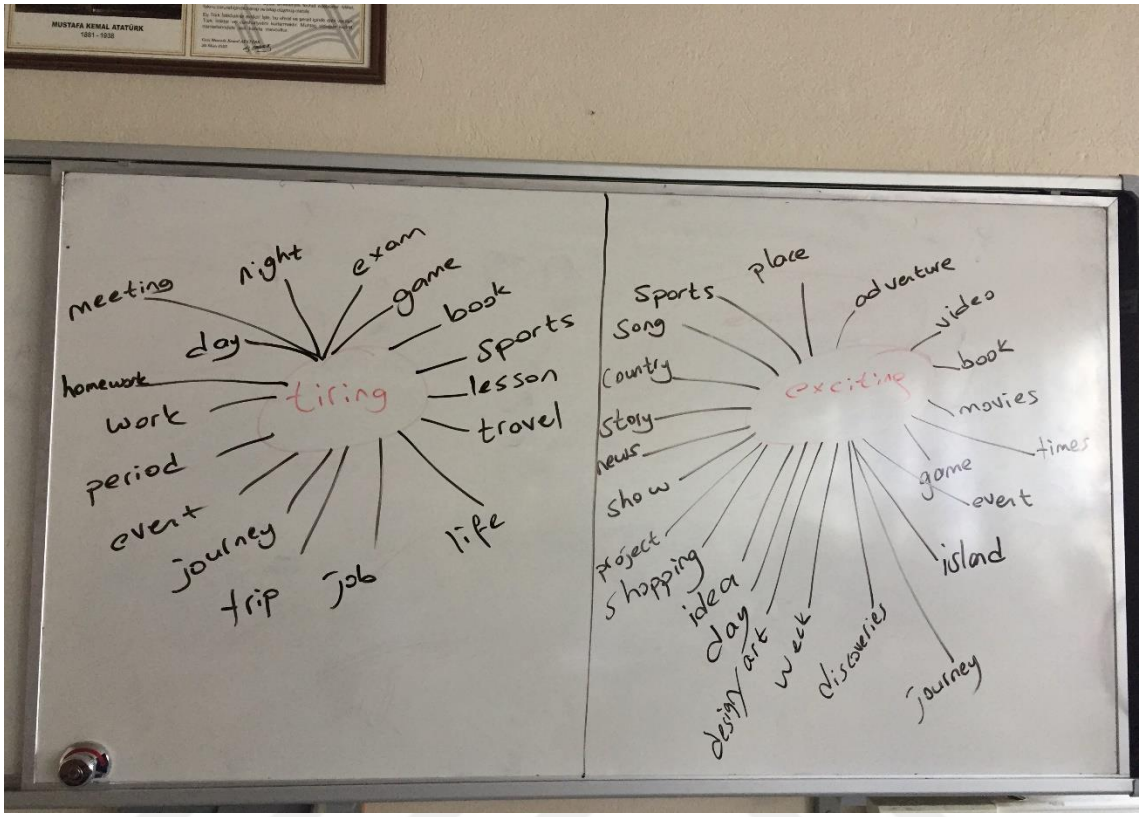
He is the most	**entertaining**	writer on your staff.
I enjoy reading your interesting and	**entertaining**	magazine.
This provides the main thrust of a very	**entertaining**	movie.
If one is	**entertaining**	friends or business colleagues, it is nice to offer three courses,
Politicians, royals and artists — the perfect mix for an	**entertaining**	evening.
But it's a pretty	**entertaining**	idea.
I've rarely heard a more	**entertaining**	interview.
	entertaining	story-teller

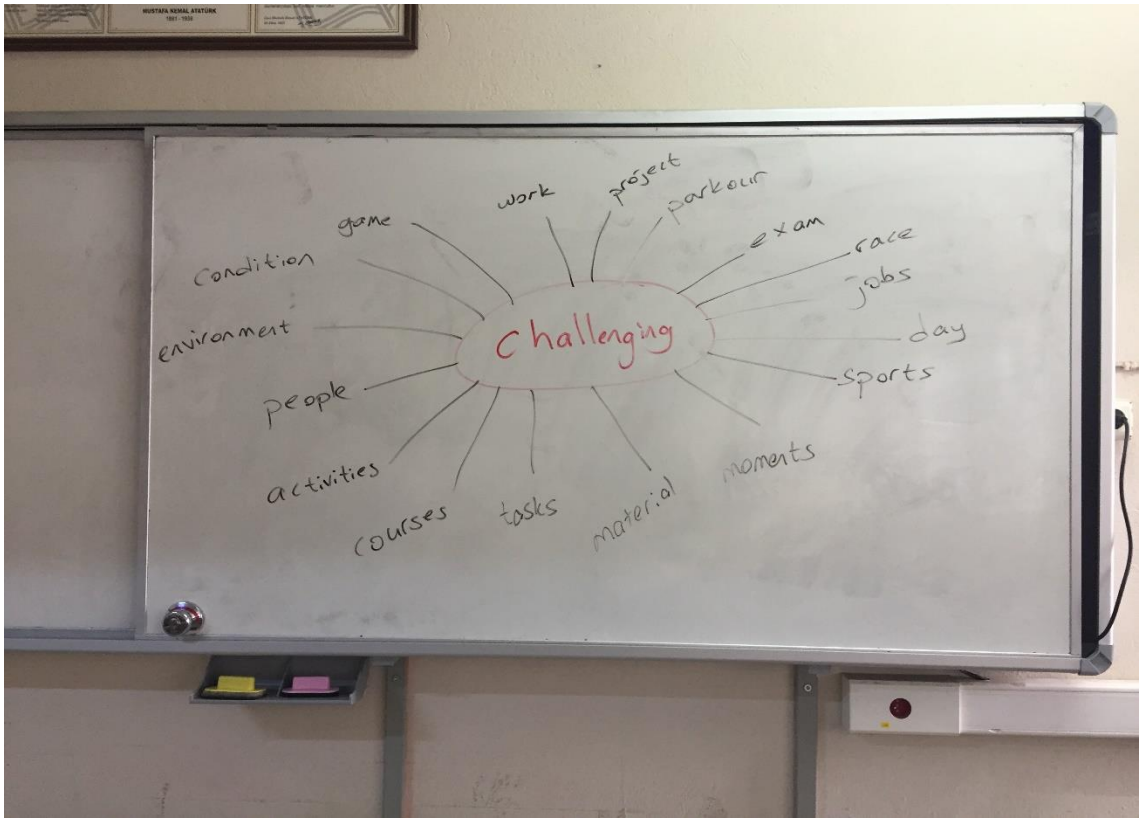
This is a	**fascinating**	book.
That you're the most complex,	**fascinating**	woman I've ever met … ’
This is why convents are such	**fascinating**	places
The afternoon is then yours to explore this	**fascinating**	cities.
I do gets lots of very fascinating and fascinated letters, and lots of	**fascinating**	gifts.
Borwick has a ghost and many	**fascinating**	stories and traditions.
.....but	**fascinating**	tour of the Gallipoli Battlefields.

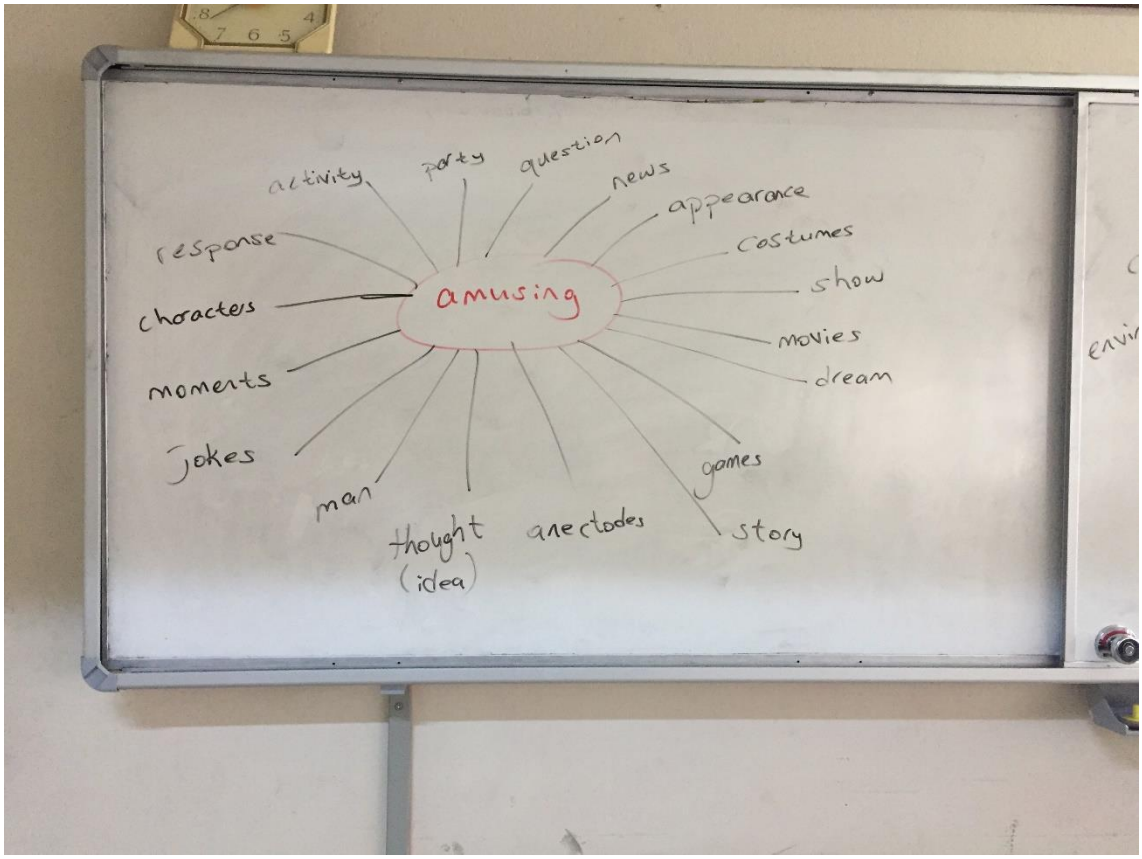
I have had a	**thrilling**	adventure!
Playing snakes and ladders and draughts and other	**thrilling**	games.’
It is always a	**thrilling**	experience to make the journey with face pressed against the carriage window
Accompanied by the	**thrilling**	music of flamenco guitars.
The	**thrilling**	secrets of the birth of time.’
But he is not a	**thrilling**	speaker.
It was a	**thrilling**	feeling.

I want to let you in on a somewhat	**embarrasing**	secret, which is now a secret no longer!
Some parents have unhappy or	**embarrasing**	memories of their own teenage years.
I want to ask her an	**embarrasing**	question.'
She didn't ask what my plans were, or press me for details of any other	**embarrasing**	subject.
... reason do not like to see the Government going in for a whole series of	**embarrasing**	defeats...
At this point Fräulein Müller, half-overhearing their conversation, made one of her	**embarrasing**	mistakes.
	embarrassing	photos of the rich and famous
We hope that you will take the opportunity to enjoy one of the most	**exciting**	programmes available in Britain.
He not only added a greater dimension through his excellent,	**exciting**	tennis, but also through his personality.
It is an	**exciting**	project.
It could not have been more	**exciting**	news and everyone was thrilled.
These are	**exciting**	times and you and your readers are very lucky.
In several placed Donald Duck makes	**exciting**	discoveries by playing with a chemistry set.
It's an	**exciting**	country with an Eastern quality that really makes it worth see

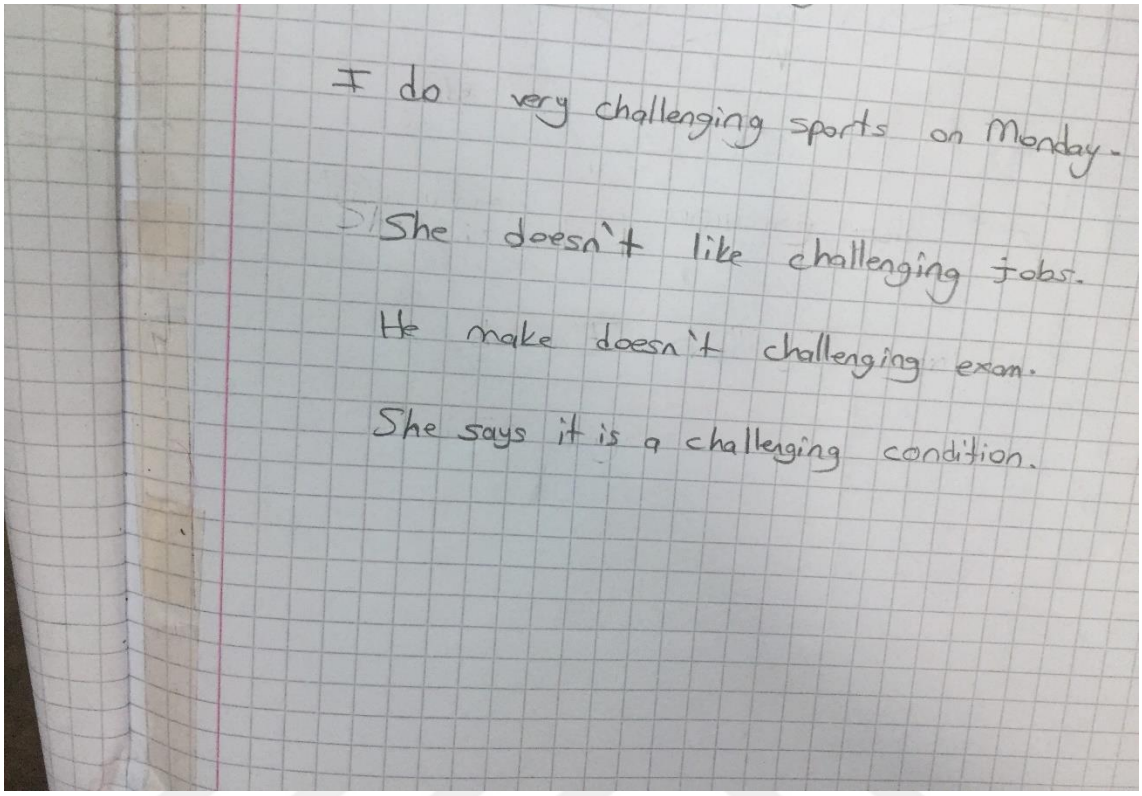
Appendix 7. A Sample from the Mind Map Activity

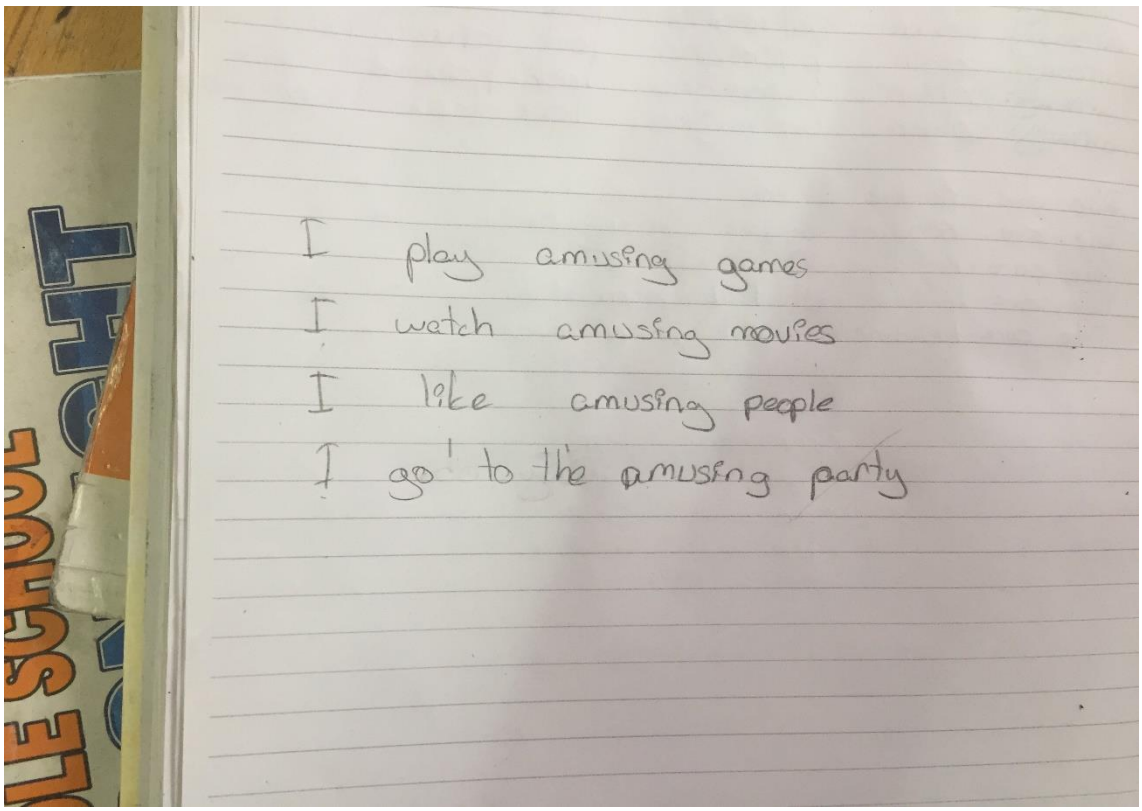


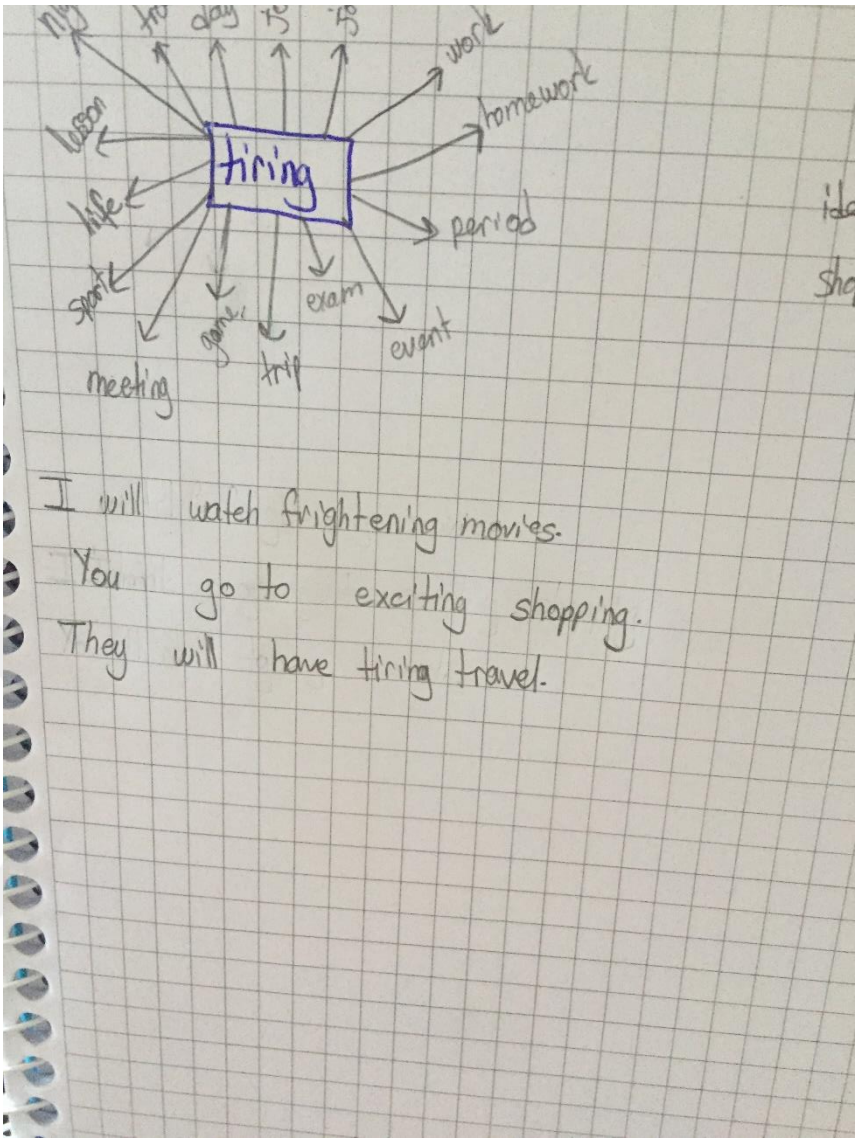



amusing
activity
party
question
news
appearance
costumes
show
movies
dream
games
story
anecdotes
thought (idea)
man
jokes
moments
characters
response

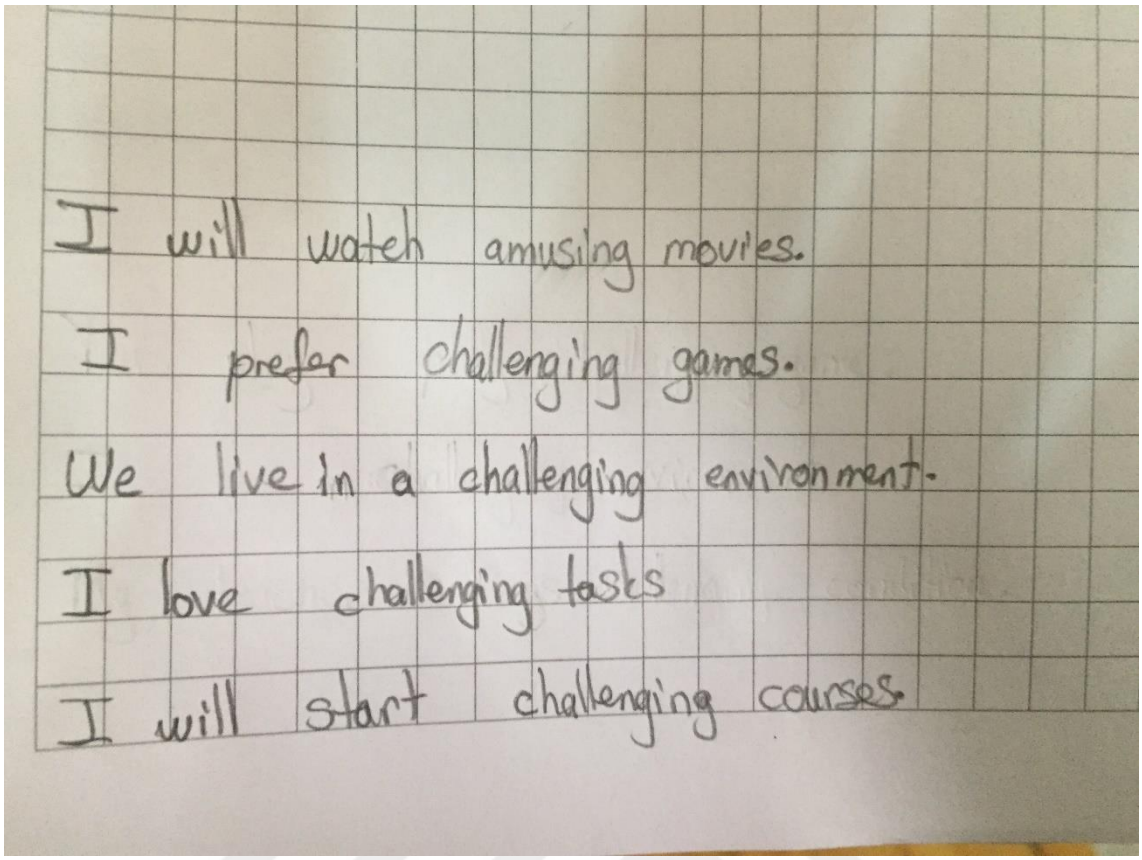
Appendix 8. Students' Sentences in the Writing Activity







I will watch frightening movies.
You go to exciting shopping.
They will have tiring travel.


I will wateh amusing movies.

I prefer challenging games.

We live in a challenging environment.

I love challenging tasks

I will start challenging courses.

Appendix 9. Samples from Students' Answers in the Pre-, Post- and Delayed post-test....

20.03.2018

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8 A
NUMBER:

TEST 1

Write Turkish meaning of the words. (Altı çizili kelimenin Türkçesini yazınız.)

	TURKISH
1. The book is full of **amusing** jokes.	güldüren ✓
2. My sister really liked that **entertaining** evening.	Eğlenceli ✓
3. Many women have **challenging** tasks in their life.	Zorlayıcı ✓
4. It is a **fascinating** city for him	—
5. My father always talks about his **thrilling** adventure.	Heyecanlı ✓
6. It was a **disappointing** performance for the singer.	Umit kırıcı ✓
7. I do not want to see this **embarrasing** photo.	Utandırıcı ✓
8. You shouldn't tell me any **frightening** stories.	—
9. Bungee-jumping is an **exciting** sport.	—
10. I want to sleep because it was a **tiring** day.	Yorucu ✓

(comparison group)
- post-test

20.03.2018

CLASS: 8/R
NUMBER:

NAME:
SURNAME:

TEST 1

Write Turkish meaning of the words. (Altı çizili kelimenin Türkçesini yazınız.)

	TURKISH
1. The book is full of **amusing** jokes.	güldürücü ✓
2. My sister really liked that **entertaining** evening.	eğlenceli ✓
3. Many women have **challenging** tasks in their life.	zorlayıcı ✓
4. It is a **fascinating** city for him	büyüleyici ✓
5. My father always talks about his **thrilling** adventure.	heyecan verici ✓
6. It was a **disappointing** performance for the singer.	umut kırıcı ✓
7. I do not want to see this **embarrasing** photo.	eğlence
8. You shouldn't tell me any **frightening** stories.	korkutucu ✓
9. Bungee-jumping is an **exciting** sport.	heyecan verici ✓
10. I want to sleep because it was a **tiring** day.	yorucu ✓

(experimental grading)

CLASS: 8-A 16.04.2015
NUMBER:

NAME:
SURNAME:

TEST 2

Complete the words. (Kelimeleri tamamlayınız)

1. The book is full of **amus.ing**..... anectodes.
2. My sister really liked that **entertainment**..... movie.
3. Many women have **cha**.....tasks in their life
4. Lord of the Flies is a **fasc.nat**..... book.
5. My father always talks about his **thr.lling**..... adventure.
6. I got 40 from Maths exam and it was a **dis**..... result for me.
7. I don't want to remember that **emb**..... defeat.
8. You shouldn't tell me any **fri**..... stories.
9. Bungee-jumping is an **exc.ting**..... sport.
10. I want to sleep because it was a **tir.ng**..... day.

(comparison group)
-delayed post-test

16.04.2018

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8-R
NUMBER:

TEST 2

Complete the words. (Kelimeleri tamamlayınız)

1. The book is full of **amu.sement**..... anectodes.
2. My sister really liked that **ent.ert.aining**..... movie.
3. Many women have **cha.llenging**.....tasks in their life
4. Lord of the Flies is a **fas.cinating**..... book.
5. My father always talks about his **thr.lling**..... adventure.
6. I got 40 from Maths exam and it was a **dissappointing**..... result for me.
7. I don't want to remember that **embarrasing**..... defeat.
8. You shouldn't tell me any **frightening**..... stories.
9. Bungee-jumping is an **exc.iting**..... sport.
10. I want to sleep because it was a **tiring**..... day.

(experimental group)
- delayed post-test -

2067/2078

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8-A
NUMBER:

TEST 3

A. Choose the correct 3 options. (Uygun olan 3 şıkkı işaretleyiniz.)

1. The book is full of amusing..... about the writer's childhood.

a. anectodes b. tables c. jokes d. moments e. problems f. phones

2. Many women have challenging..... in their life nowadays.

a. information b. environment c. activities d. tears e. tasks. f. shirts

3. It was a disappointing ..... for the boss and he got angry.

a. result b. performance c. machine d. dream e. notebook f. campaign

4. I do not want to remember that embarrasing .....

a. bowl b. defeat c. weather d. habit e. mistake f. photo

5. I think my sister really liked that entertaining.....

a. sign b. dress c. friend d. evening e. movie f. pan

6. It is easy to understand why Chris is so happy because it is a fascinating.....for him.

a. story b. book c. board d. concern e. city f. rule

7. My father always talks about his thrilling.....

a. game b. bike c. experience d. password e. adventure f. saucepan

8. Students are glad to learnmore about the exciting.....

a. jackets b. carpets c. news d. mistakes e. discoveries f. sports

9. You shouldn't talk about any frightening ..... in front of children.

a. stories b. pictures c. pens d. lessons e. places f. recipes

10. I want to sleep now because it was the most tiring.....

a. day b. environment c. present d. signal e. journey f. work

(Comparison group)
post-test

20/03/2018

CLASS: 8-B

NAME:
SURNAME:

NUMBER:

TEST 3

A. Choose the correct 3 options. (Uygun olan 3 şıkkı işaretleyiniz.)

1. The book is full of amusing..... about the writer's childhood.

2 a. anectodes b. tables c. jokes d. moments e. problems f. phones

2. Many women have challenging..... in their life nowadays.

3 a. information b. environment c. activities d. tears e. tasks. f.shirts

3. It was a disappointing ..... for the boss and he got angry.

2 a. result b. performance c.machine d.dream e.notebook f.campaign

4. I do not want to remember that embarrasing .....

3 a. bowl b. defeat c. weather d.habit e. mistake f. photo

5. I think my sister really liked that entertaining.....

1 a. sign b. dress c. friend d. evening e. movie f. pan

6. It is easy to understand why Chris is so happy because it is a fascinating.....for him.

3 a. story b. book c. board d. concern e. city f. rule

7. My father always talks about his thrilling.....

3 a.game b. bike c. experience d. password e. adventure f. saucepan

8. Students are glad to learnmore about the exciting.....

3 a.jackets b. carpets c. news d. mistakes e.discoveries f.sports

9. You shouldn't talk about any frightening ..... in front of children.

2 a. stories b. pictures c. pens d.lessons e. places f. recipes

10. I want to sleep now because it was the most tiring.....

3 a. day b. environment c. present d. signal e. journey f. work

(experimental group)
(post test)

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8-A 17.04.2018
NUMBER:

TEST 4

Complete the words and write four words that can fit in the blank. (Boşluklara yukarıda verilen kelimelerle uyumlu olabilecek 4 adet kelime yazınız.)

a. frightening

1) st.ory..... ✓
2) pi.cture ✓
3) pl.oice.... ✓
4) .....—.....

3

b. exciting

1) ne.....—
2) di.....—
3) sp.ort..... ✓
4).....—.....

1

c. amusing

1) an.....
2) mo.ment..... ✓
3) jo.....
4)..story..... ✓

2

d. entertaining

1) ev.ent ✓
2) fr.....
3) mo.ve.....—
4).....

1

e. fascinating

1) st.ory..... ✓
2) bo.ok..... ✓
3) ci.....
4).....

2

comparison group
(delayed post-test)

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8-A 17.04.2018
NUMBER:

f. challenging

1) en.....
2) ac.....
3) ta.....
4).....

g. disappointing

1) re.....
2) pe.....
3) ca.....
4).....

h. embarrasing

1) de.....
2) mi.....
3) photo
4).....

i.thrilling

1) ga.me
2) ex.....
3) ad.....
4).....have

j. tiring

1) da.....y
2) wo.....
3) jo.....
4).....

Control group
(delayed post-test)

17.04.2018

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS: 8/R
NUMBER:

TEST 4

Complete the words and write four words that can fit in the blank. (Boşluklara yukarıda verilen kelimelerle uyumlu olabilecek 4 adet kelime yazınız.)

a. frightening

1) st.ory ✓
2) pi.ture ✓
3) pl.ace ✓
4) game X

(3)

b. exciting

1) ne.....
2) di.....
3) sp.ort ✓
4) movie ✓

(2)

c. amusing

1) an.....
2) mo.ment ✓
3) jo.ke ✓
4) story ✓

(3)

d. entertaining

1) ev.ent ✓
2) fr.iend ✓
3) mo.vie ✓
4) book ✓

(4)

e. fascinating

1) st.ory ✓
2) bo.ok ✓
3) ci.....
4) game X

(2)

experimental group
(delayed post test)

NAME:
SURNAME:

CLASS:
NUMBER:

f. challenging

1) en.....
2) ac.....
3) ta~~s~~k..... ✓
4).....

(1)

g. disappointing

1) re.....sult..... ✓
2) pe.....
3) ca.....
4).....work..... ✓

(2)

h. embarrasing

1) de.....
2) mi.....
3) ph.....o..... ✓
4).....

(1)

i.thrilling

1) ga.....p..... ✓
2) ex.....
3) ad.....
4).....ful..... ✓

(2)

j. tiring

1) da.....j..... ✓
2) wo.....i..... ✓
3) jo.....
4).....

(2)

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DETAILS

Name : Burcu YALDIZ DURMUŞ

Date of Birth : 01/02/1988

Place of Birth : Ceyhan, Adana

E-mail : burcuyaldizdurmus@gmail.com

EDUCATION

2016-2019 : M.A. Çukurova University, Institute of Social Sciences, English Language Teaching, Adana, Turkey.

2009-2010 : B.A. at Gazi University, English Language Teaching, Ankara, Turkey. (Farabi Exchange Program- Spring Term)

2008- 2011 : B.A. at Selçuk University, English Language Teaching, Konya, Turkey. (undergraduate transfer from Mustafa Kemal University)

2006- 2008 : B.A. at Mustafa Kemal University, English Language Teaching, Hatay, Turkey.

2002-2006 : Adana Erkek High School (Foreign Language Intensive High School), Adana, Turkey.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

2013- : English Teacher at MEB (Ministry of Education)

2012-2013 : English Teacher at Private Medical Career College, Adana.

2010-2011 : English Teacher at Deulcom International Language Course, Konya

ACTIVITIES & CERTIFICATES

2019 **:** Certificate of Attendance : 5th Çukurova International ELT Teachers Conferences: Glocalization Issues and Trends in EFL/ESL

2018 : Certificate of Attendance : 4th Çukurova International ELT Teachers Conferences: "Innovative Practices in EFL/ ESL Learning & Teaching

2017 : Certificate of Attendance : 3rd Çukurova International ELT Teachers Conferences: "Reshaping Teaching and Learning English for the 21st Century

2017 : Certificate of Achievement: Fatih Projesi Etkileşimli Sınıf Yönetimi Kursu (Fatih Project- Interactive Classroom Management Course)

2016 : Certificate of Achievement: Sunum Teknikleri Kursu (Course for Presentation Techniques)

2016 : Certificate of Achievement: Çalışanların Temel İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Eğitim Kursu (Occupational Health and Safety Training)

2016 : Certificate of Attendance: Fatih Projesi- Ağ altyapısı Semineri (Fatih Project- Network Infrastructure Seminar)

2010 : School of Leadership Certificates
-Entrepreneurship & E-Work
-Project Management
-Leadership and Team Management
-Crisis Management

2010 : 1.National Conference for Undergraduate ELT Students-GELTUS-CON

2009-2010 : Gazi University- Spring Term Farabi Exchange Program for Undergraduate Students