CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Learning a Word

Learners need to know the amount of words in the language, the amount of words known by native speakers and the amount of words required to utilize the language. Investigations of native speakers' vocabulary appear to propose that second language learners need to know expansive amounts of words. While this may be valuable during long term, it is not a fundamental short term goal. This is on account of investigations of native speakers' vocabulary development see all words as being of equivalent quality to the learners.

Vocabulary acquisition includes knowing a word in the language. This means knowing several aspects about words, namely word form, word meaning and word use (Nation, 2001). The aspect of word form alludes to the language, either speaking or written as well as the word parts in the language. Words that are hard to claim are usually hard to learn while words that are easy to pronounce are put away easily in learners' long-term memory (Nation, 2001). Regarding word meaning, knowing a word incorporates understanding its form and meaning, its idea and reference as well as all forms of associations with the word. The understanding of word meaning can be acquired through the analysis of words into parts, for example, prefixes and suffix that can help the learning of the words. For word use, knowing a word means knowing the grammatical functions of words and word combinations, for example, collocations as well as the constraints on use, for example, word frequency and appropriateness (Nation, 2001).

The main concept of knowing a word lies in the aspect of word use in which learners acquire another word keeping in mind the end goal to utilize it appropriately within
various contexts. In relation to appropriate word use, it is vital to acknowledge that words are not utilized as a part of isolation yet are rather utilized as chunks, for example, pre-constructed clauses and phrases. These chunks of language are put away in the language clients' memory and language clients draw on the chunks while utilizing the language. The active utilization of language chunks indicates that language clients depend heavily on larger units of language, for example, collocations to express their ideas all the more effectively. It demonstrates that the main reason for acquiring vocabulary is nearly associated with the best possible utilization of collocations. Hill (2000) states that collocation is an important vocabulary aspect that helps learners’ utilization words more fluently and proficiently. Different scholars (Nation, 2001; Durrant & Schmitt, 2010) also opine that it is the learning of collocations that makes native speakers sound native and utilize language easily.

2.2. The Notion of Collocation

One of the problems that students face for learning English as second or foreign language is nothing but the correct utilization of a word combination. The problem of matching word which is called “collocability” in linguistics is one that is commonly troublesome for non-native speakers of English. Indeed, a collocation is described as a pair or group of words that are frequently used together. Collocation is a pervasive feature of language and one which is considered very difficult for language learners, even at an advanced level. The term collocation is used to indicate the repeated co-occurrence of lexical items. The main assumption behind the idea of collocation is that some words attract each other thus forming natural sounding combinations while other combinations, although acceptable from a syntactic and semantic point of view, aren’t considered acceptable are not used (Martelli, 2007). In reality the term collocation was created by J.R. Firth (known as the “father” of collocation) in
the 1950s in order to the common co-happen of particular words. The British linguist prominently said “You shall know a word by the company it keeps meaning by collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic level and is not directly concerned with the conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words. One of the meanings of night is its collocability with dark, and of dark, of course, collocation with night” (Firth, 1957)

2.3. Collocations’ Origin in Phraseology and Prosody

Phraseology has its roots in Russia where it revealed in lexicology in the twentieth century as a subdivision of linguistics that cope with words joined as a whole unit (Cowie, 2001). Phraseology is differ from lexicology in that it is related to “phraseological units” and lexicology is associated to the meaning of individual words, which is a word combinations and play a significant role in first and Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Additionally, this field of linguistics has been hugely developed by Firth, J. R and the Neo-Firthians Halliday and Sinclair. Recently, corpora and web concordances have grown to be very important instruments that promote the examination associated with phraseology.

2.4. Some Definition of Collocation

In general a collocation is considered as a union of vocabularies that are usually utilized together, the simplest way of exploring collocations is to tell that they ‘just look correct’ to native English speakers. The other combinations that perhaps mean the same thing would look ‘unnatural’. Collocations involve noun phrases like ‘stiff wind’ and ‘marriage guidance’, phrasal verbs such as ‘to get together’ and other stock phrases like ‘the rich and well-known’. So it is important to acquire
collocations, due to they are important for the naturalization of individual’s speech.

Some definitions of collocations are mentioned below:

Poulsen (1995) demonstrated five definitions of 'collocation', which all have some form of co-occurrence as a technical term:

“(a) the tendency for lexical items to co-occur in a text, or in a text corpus, whether or not they form a syntactic pattern

(b) The co-occurrence of lexical items in a syntactic pattern, only restricted by general selection restrictions (also referred to as ‘free/open collocation’ or ‘free/open combination’)

(c) The tendency for lexical items to co-occur in a syntactic pattern restricted not only by general selection restrictions, but also by usage restrictions on one element (often referred to as ‘restricted collocation’)

(d) The co-occurrence of lexical items in an unexpected, creative way that conflicts with general selection restrictions and/or usage restrictions (normally referred to as ‘creative combination’ rather than collocation)

(e) The tendency for a lexical item to co-occur with a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause (referred to as ‘grammatical collocation’ in contrast to ‘lexical collocation’)”

Lewis (1994) characterizes collocation as a subdivision of multi-word items, made up of individual words that continuously co-happen and could be appeared inside the free-fixed collocational continuum.
Celce-Murcia (1991) defined collocation as a co-occurrence of lexical words in suitable combinations, which can differ in recurrence or adequacy (as refered to in Małgorzata Martyńska, 2004).

Moon (1997) collocations are words that occur together with high recurrence and allude to the combination of words that have a certain shared expectancy.

Stubbs (2002) characterizes collocation as the continual co-occurrence of two unordered content words, or of a content word and a lexical set.

Oskuee, et al. (2012) “Collocational patterns, the cornerstone of every language, instantly recognizable by native speakers, are what second language learners strive to acquire besides facing the challenge of putting together the right chunks”.

2.5. Collocation and Colligation

Different pattern that a word takes part in, notwithstanding, may have less evident semantic inference yet at the same time be prominent in the utilization of the word. The distinction between the two terms “collocation” and “colligation” must be explained so that one ought not to feel that they are the same. Hoey (cited in Michael Lewis, 2000) contends that an alternate word exists a long way from collocation and semantic prosody, which is colligation or “the grammatical company a word keeps and the positions it refers”. Colligation is “what we do” with the language. Colligations of a word are a depiction of what this word “typically does grammatically” (ibid). Hoey gives the illustration of ‘occupation words’: bookkeeper, performer, performing artist, modeler, woodworker, which have diverse colligations. That is to say, these words don’t happen with/in the same “grammatical constructions” for example: possessive case and indefinite articles (ibid). Robins (cited in Michael
Lewis, 2000) focuses out the contrast between collocations and colligations as takes after:

“Groups of words considered as members of word-classes related to each other in syntactic structures have been called colligations to be distinguished from collocations which refer to groups of words considered as individual lexical items irrespective of their grammatical classes and relations”.

Hence, the learners need to separate between the three ideas: collocations, colligations and semantic prosody to have a reasonable view about what a collocation is. Likewise, as demonstrated by Hargreaves Peter (ibid) learning of a word's gathers need to correspond with colligations of the word or the grammatical patterns.

2.6. Collocational Competence

At the point when native speakers of English speak or write, they utilize both syntactic principles and collocations. Collocations are words that are available in the memory of native speakers as instant pre-assembled chunks. Non-native speakers who wish to secure native like familiarity ought to accordingly, need to give proper thoughtfulness regarding collocations in speaking and writing keeping in mind the end goal not to deliver odd sentences. A collocation incorporates two words that are joined simultaneously in the memory of native speakers repeatedly in both written and spoken conversation. (Aghbar, 1990; Farghal & Al-Hamly, 2007). As various specialists consider that utilizing A word signifies "knowing its collocations" (Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2001; Nation & Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 2008a, 2008b), they demand that collocational knowledge is a critical matter that is a component to the difference between foreign language learners and native-speakers(aston, 1995; Fillmore, 1979; Kjellmer, 1991; Pawley & Syder, 1983). If EFL/ ESL learners can't utilize
collocations faultlessly, it will be a most prominent pointer of foreignness (Mcarthur, 1992; Mccarthy, 1990; Nattinger, 1980; Wu, 1996). Different analysts (Fontenelle, 1994; Herbst, 1996; Lennon, 1998; Moon, 1998) claim that to get general language proficiency, language learners ought to accomplish collocational competence. The powerfull perspective expressed so far is that collocations are a pivotal constituent at the present time second/foriegn language obtaining (Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006; Lewis, 1997a, 2000; Liao, 2010; Liu, 2010; Nattinger & Decarrico, 1992). Native- speakers of English utilize collocations, whether settled or adaptable, constantly (Prodromou, 2003). It is viewed as that the automation of collocation supports native speakers in passing on their messages fluently as they have sorted out their messages into “chunks “of language that are prepared to be used. In accordance with Ebrahimi-Bazzaz, et al., (2012) notwithstanding, second language learners who don't have that knowledge make non-native errors when producing expressions. To have native like fluency and competence, second language learners ought to realize that a huge part of language learning is the capability to comprehend and to deliver collocations as unanalyzed chunks. Learning a language is the outcome of numerous competences gathered together; henceforth, we ought to work on these competences to attain the learning targets. We know about communicative and linguistics competence, yet "collocational competence" is normally a new expression. This idea is authored by Lewis (2000) who said: “We are familiar with the notion of communicative competence, but we need to add the concept of collocational competence to the way of our thinking”. Collocational competence is “the ability to accurately combine chunks of language thus enabling production of fluent, accurate and stylistically appropriate speech”. (Heikkila, 2005). Without this competence students are confronting numerous issues in writing their assignments. One of these
issues is grammatical mistakes as “students are interested in creating longer expression (Hill as referred to in Lewis, 2000). Crystal (referred to in Heikkila, 2005) likewise stated that collocations “differ greatly between languages, and provide a major difficulty in mastering foreign languages”. Subsequently, they need help in the classroom to disregard collocational issues. The development of students’ collocational competence would result in the improvement of communicative competence. Subsequently, prevail over the issue of word affiliations, collocational competence needs to be created to attain fluency and proficiency in English as a foreign language (EFL) in general and foreign language writing particularly. The improvement of students’ collocational competence would bring about the progress of communicative competence. Thus, proficiency in the foreign language would expand the extent that the learners' competences are produced. Writing as well as speaking would be more fluent, correct and significant since the learner knows the most widely recognized collocations that empower him/her to speak and write all the more productively. Along with these lines, “knowing collocations means knowing vocabulary” (Abdaoui, 2010) which motivates the tasks for the students to accomplish far better in the foreign language.

2.7. Collocations, Idioms and Phrasal verbs

The relationship in the middle of idioms and collocations is one of the hottest domains in the investigation of lexis (Alfahadi, 2014). These three terms are frequently utilized reciprocally. Therefore, it is intriguing to bring up the connection that may exist between them. Give us a chance to first analyze the meaning of idioms and phrasal verbs. An idiom is a statement in which all the words don't have their literal meanings, their sense is somewhat figurative or metaphoric. In this way, the meaning of the figure of speech is seldom caught on. Plus, phrasal verbs are expressions in
which verbs are joined to articles, case in point "give up" where meaning is seldom speculated from the individual words. Looking at both definitions suggests that idioms and phrasal verbs are similar to collocations on the grounds that they incorporate words that go collocations are idiomatic and all phrasal verbs and idioms are collocations or contain collocations” (cited in Lewis, 2000). Since the learners are normally familiar with phrasal verbs and idioms as opposed to different sorts of collocations.

2.8. Collocation Pattern

The words that make a collocation are grouped in different patterns. We have categorized the most common patterns in the following two tables according to Lewis (2000) and McCarthy and O’Dell (2005):

**Table 2.1: Collocations’ Patterns according to Lewis (2000)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective + noun</th>
<th>a difficult decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb + noun</td>
<td>submit a report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + noun</td>
<td>radio station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + adverb</td>
<td>examine thoroughly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb + adjective</td>
<td>extremely inconvenient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + adjective + noun</td>
<td>revise the original plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + verb</td>
<td>the fog closed in</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.2: Collocations’ Patterns according to McCarthy and O’ Dell (2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective + noun</td>
<td>bright color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + verb</td>
<td>the economy boomed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + noun</td>
<td>a sense of pride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + preposition + noun</td>
<td>filled with horror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + adverb</td>
<td>smiled proudly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb + adjective</td>
<td>happily married</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We agree with McCarthy and O’ Dell that “There are many types of collocations” (2005) considering that there are nine parts of speech: noun, adjective, adverb, verb, preposition, conjunction, article, pronoun and interjection. The first five parts could be combined to create collocations. We notice that Lewis’ patterns are nearly similar to McCarthy and O’ Dell’s ones. As shown in the two tables above, we observe that in both classifications there are the following patterns: adjective + noun, noun + noun, verb + adverb, noun + verb and adverb + adjective. But in the first classification, there is the pattern verb + adjective + noun while in the second one there is: verb + preposition + noun. In the second table the pattern verb + noun is not found whereas in the first one we find both patterns: verb + noun and noun + verb. Subsequently we can derive another characterization from the two tables said above by incorporating all the examples with the same cases as takes after:
Table 2.3: Collocations’ Patterns according to McCarthy, O’Dell and Lewis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective + noun</td>
<td>bright colour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + verb</td>
<td>the economy boomed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + noun</td>
<td>submit a report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + noun</td>
<td>a sense of pride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb + adjective</td>
<td>happily married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + adverb</td>
<td>smiled proudly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + preposition + noun</td>
<td>filled with horror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb + adjective + noun</td>
<td>revise the original plan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the table above we discover eight patterns of collocations. In these patterns the focus is on the main parts of speech since articles, pronouns and prepositions are not clear in the patterns. For example, in the last two examples the preposition “with” and the definite article “the” are not included in the patterns. With regard to articles, they are applied for defining nouns. Thus, many of us think that including or removing them from the patterns won’t make any difference. Pronouns are not included because they are always changing: different pronouns with different verbs.

A number of linguists have proposed certain criteria so far for distinguishing different kinds of collocations. The current study has adopted Benson, Benson, & Ilson (1997)’s collocation classification: lexical collocations and grammatical collocations. Lexical collocations are composed of two or more content words, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. On the other hand grammatical collocations refer to combinations comprising a content word and a function word, which is usually a preposition. Examples of this kind of collocation is presented in table 4.
Table 2.4: Collocations Classification according to Benson, Benson, & Ilson (1997)’s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical collocation</th>
<th>Grammatical collocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjective + noun: sour milk</td>
<td>noun + preposition: an increase in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb + noun: conduct research</td>
<td>verb + preposition: elaborate on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun + verb: dust accumulates</td>
<td>adjective + preposition: familiar with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverb + adjective: mentally disabled</td>
<td>preposition + noun: on probation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb + adverb or: move freely</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adverb + verb: proudly present</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9. Collocations’ Types

Collocations are classified in various manners; each scholar has divided them according to different dimensions. Some scholars have considered their strength, others their use…etc. The most common types are discussed below.

2.9.1. Lexical Vs (Versus) Grammatical Collocations

In accordance with Lewis (2000), collocations are either lexical or grammatical. The difference between grammatical and lexical collocations is that the former comprises a principal word that is an adjective, a verb or a noun and a grammatical word which is usually a preposition (Benson, 1989), whereas the latter does not contain grammatical words such as prepositions. Lexical collocations include only of lexical words. As a result such phrasal verbs may be more difficult to acquire: carry on, give up…etc are examined as grammatical collocations and they are found in all
English-English dictionaries while specific dictionaries are allocated to lexical collocations which may be ignored by native speakers too. In the following two tables, the constituents of each type are classified with examples:

**Table 2.5. Examples of Grammatical Collocations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + prepositions</th>
<th>Walk up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun + prepositions</td>
<td>Anger at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective + prepositions</td>
<td>Proud of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.6. Examples of Lexical Collocations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + noun</th>
<th>set the table</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective + noun</td>
<td>Fresh breathe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb + adjective</td>
<td>bitterly hurt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it has been examined above, it is obvious that in the first table the dominating part is “prepositions” which represent grammatical words while in the second table there are no prepositions; only lexical words are included. Therefore, it is the preposition that makes a collocation grammatical.

**2.9.2. Technical Vs Academic Collocations**

At this point, collocations’ types are classified from the dimension of General/Specific English. Technical collocations are different from lexical and grammatical collocations, in that the former are applied in a special field within a special register i.e. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) to aid the students to obtain a specific
language usage and use. However, the latter are academic / general and might be applied in both General English and ESP.

Additionally, technical collocations are “powerful indicators of register” (Partington, 1998). They are “pre-cooked expressions” which are needed in “many genres of writing”. Each genre has its special collocations so that what is a normal collocation within a specific genre could not be considered so in another genre. Sinclair (as cited in Partington, 1998) illustrates this case with the collocations “vigorous depressions” and “dull highlights” that are normal only in the register of meteorology and photography respectively.

In this context, Fuentes et al., (2001) demonstrates specific combinations of the noun network such as U-network, access network, local area network. In addition, technical collocations aid rising the learner’s potential to command special languages.

However, he mentioned that free collocations that seem in different registers are examined as “semi-technical” word combinations. He gives the example of information: information system, information technology and digital information (ibid). According to Farell (Cited in Fuentes, 2001) semi-technical collocations are “formal, context independent words with a high frequency and/or wide range of occurrence across scientific disciplines, not usually found in basic general English courses; words with high frequency across scientific disciplines.” Therefore, we could point out that technical collocations are register-dependent while semi technical ones are based on scientific domains but they may be found in academic language. Therefore, all types are essential in mastering ESP however only academic collocations are helpful generally in English especially “common core collocations” which are collocations that are used frequently thus common
2.9.3. Strong Vs Weak Collocations

Grouping collocations as indicated by strength alludes to the level of words' association. A few words co-occur so frequently that when a word shows up, it’s collocate follows it most of the time. Here, it is qualified as a "strong collocation". Anyway when two words gather infrequently, the strength decreases and the collocation is not strong enough for collocate to be anticipated since the words are not generally together.

Hill (as cited in Lewis, 2000) categorized collocations based on strength into four categories: unique, strong, weak and Medium-strength collocations. Firstly, there are unique collocations. For instance, Hill gives the two collocations “foot the bill” and “shrug your shoulders”. The two collocations are unique because the verbs “foot” and “shrug” are not applied with any other nouns. Secondly, there are strong collocations like “trenchant criticism” and “rancid butter”. These are not unique due to there are other things that can be trenchant or rancid, but these collocations are incredibly few. Thirdly, there are weak collocations: for instance, adjectives like long, short, cheap, expensive, good or bad could be combined with many things (nouns) for example red car. These combinations are “more predictable” as well as easy to the larger number of students. Finally, the fourth type is medium-strength collocations; for example “holds a conversation” and “a major operation”.

2.9.4. Open Vs Restricted Collocations

Cowie and Howarth (1996) determine two types of collocations: ‘open’ and ‘restricted’. In accordance with them, a collocation is restricted if its parts ‘keep their literal meaning’, for instance “vested interest”, while a collocation is examined as open when one or both parts has/have a ‘figurative meaning’, for instance “white
man” referring to “skin color”. *Open collocations* are as expressed by Carter “open to partnership with a wide range of items” (mentioned in Partington, 1998). Most lexical items are incorporated in this sort for example: white, short, long, red…etc. In between the two extremes there are “semi-restricted” collocations. Here a particular word has a predetermined number of collocations. Carter (ibid) gives the example of the verb *harbor* that collocates with *doubts, uncertainty, grudge* and *suspicion*. Cowie and Howarth (1996) further claim that collocations are “idiosyncratic and arbitrary” in contrast to “perfectly open collocations…formed by general principles of co-occurrence”. As a general remark, we can consider “open collocations” as “weak collocations” in Hill’s terms. Anyhow it is hard to consider “restricted collocations” as weak or strong because this is related to the meaning rather than the frequency of cooccurrence. Likewise, we concur with Cowie and Howarth that collocations could be “arbitrary” regardless of their type. For what makes a word like “fast” collocates with “food” if we can say rapid or quick food. In point of fact, it is just what we should say as much as to make our speech natural.

### 2.10. The Causes of Collocational Errors

Late trial studies have called attention to a few elements that may impact ESL/EFL learners’ execution in making right collocations. The analysts uncovered that the collocational errors out come from analogy, overgeneralization, paraphrase, interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, and shortage of collocational knowledge (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Channel, 1981; Farghal & Obiedat, 1995; Liu, 1999a). For instance, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) declared that many EFL students’ collocation errors were caused by their L1 interference. Comparable conclusion was made by Farghal & Obiedat(1995). They mentioned that the students who did not know a particular collocation had a tendency to resort to the procedures for example:
synonym, paraphrasing, avoidance, and transfer. What's more, an arrangement of studies led by Liu (1999a,) showed that the same strategies were applied by EFL students in producing collocations, either acceptable or unacceptable, in their writings. In any case, in the investigation of Chinese college freshmen's collocational competence, Liu (1999b) realized that the EFL students had difficulties in producing acceptable collocation. He further reasoned that the cause for creating inadmissible English collocations were for the most part credited to the absence of the idea of collocation and interlingual exchange. The outcomes of the study have been outlined as takes after by Li (2005):

- Absence of collocational idea: Some students just comprehended the fundamental importance of the word however did not know which word it would run with. Along these lines, they were not skillful to deliver any collocation.

- Direct translation: Some students recollected just the Chinese translation of the expression. Thus, they depended on direct translation to deliver collocations (e.g. learn information rather than increase information or ingest learning).

- Lack of awareness of rule limitations: Some students did not realize that some collocational

- Limitations were built wholly with respect to the importance of the word and range; others didn't take language structure into attention. Therefore, they delivered syntactically inadmissible collocations (e.g. few knowledge rather than little knowledge).

- Absence of knowledge of collocational properties: Many students did not comprehend the potential collocational properties of the words they knew. Take the
word good for instance. It could be expected that most students knew the collocation a good boy, however few students produced the collocation a good knowledge.

2.11. Collocational problems

Numerous scholars observe that collocational knowledge differentiates native speakers from second language learners (Nesselhauf, 2003; Li, 2005; Huang, 2007; Hsu & Chiu, 2008). Some examples of incorrect phrases are: the managers of the university, to take fish, heavy tea and to be bad in something are not because of poor lexical or grammatical knowledge. These issues arise partly from lack of knowledge about the company that words keep, i.e., collocations. One manifestation of collocational issue is the point at which two words are synonyms or near synonyms like baggage and luggage, however one of them can be adjusted by an adjective like emotional.

This means that substitution of the words which are synonymous does not always produce acceptable combinations. This is an intralingual issue. The other sort of issue is interlingual; that is, issues caused by the contrasts between collocations starting with one language then onto the next. Pearce (2001) gives an example of this issue: a clear road in English is a free road in Greek. Similarly, a heavy drinker in English is a strong glass in Greek. This issue happens because of the negative transfer of L1 features. “Learners have a tendency to translate word for word, and think of words that are definitional equivalents in the L1 (first language) and the L2 (second language). Teachers who speak the learner’s L1 understand why they often make collocation errors like strong smoker instead of heavy smoker, powerful tea (for strong tea), and big rain (for heavy rain) (Wu, 2010).”
2.12. Vocabulary learning

In practice, grammar alongside pronunciation is at the center of language learning, while vocabulary is ignored in most outside language classes (Fernández et. al, 2009; Farqhal & Obiedat, 1995). Learning vocabulary is seen as a key component to accomplish an abnormal state of proficiency in the target language by many theoreticians (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Up to now there has been many definitions involving vocabulary. Vocabulary is defined as words in a specific language or freestanding items of language that have meaning (McCarthy, 1990). Penny Ur (1996) proposed that “a new item of vocabulary may be more than a single word, a compound of two or three words (e.g., post office, mother-in-law), and multi-word idioms (e.g., call it a day)”. Furthermore, vocabulary is comprehensively defined as information of words and word implications (Lehr, 2004).

In accordance with Lehr and his partners, vocabulary is normally more intricate than this particular significance proposes. To begin with, words come not just in oral structures including those words that might be perceived and utilized as a part of listening and speaking. Additionally in print structures to be perceived and utilized within reading and writing. Second, word learning additionally comes in two structures: receptive and productive. Receptive vocabulary is words that might be perceived in reading and listening. Productive vocabulary alludes to words that may be connected in speaking and writing (Lehr, 2004). For this reason, vocabulary is seen as learning of word spelling, pronunciation, collocations (i.e. words it co-happens with), and propriety (Nation, 1990).

On the other hand Pyles (1970) affirmed that vocabulary is the center of language with its sounds and meaning, which interlock to permit us to speak with each other.
As examined above, vocabulary might be seen in numerous distinctive ways. Vocabulary alludes to words or a set of words in a dialect or information of words with respect to its structures, implications and how to utilize it correctly as a part of the setting. In the present study, vocabulary alludes to the words, mixes and figures of speech in a dialect that might be utilized to passed on and got data in oral and composed correspondence.

2.13. The importance of vocabulary in language learning

In regard to the importance of vocabulary, Krashen (1989) stated that “a large vocabulary is, of course, essential for mastery of a language” as “without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins, 1972). Rubin and Thompson (1994) examined the significant role of vocabulary in communication as stating that “one cannot speak, understand, read or write a foreign language without knowing a lot of words. Vocabulary learning is at the heart of mastering a foreign language”. Nguyen and Khuat (2003) on top of that accepted that vocabulary knowledge plays a crucial role in acquiring a foreign language. Vocabulary is nothing but an element that links the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing all together. Vocabulary is a core constituent of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners listen, speak, read, and write (Richards & Renandya, 2002). As a matter of fact, vocabulary is a means to support communication. It is a necessary component of language instruction. In order to communicate well in a foreign language, learners should acquire an adequate numbers of words and should know how to use them accurately. At this point, when underlining the necessity of vocabulary in communication, Della and Hocking (1992) as well indicated that with a little grammar, the learners can have a less smooth communication, while without vocabulary, it is so hard for others to understand the information the learners want to
state. For this reason, a lack of good grammatical structures may not interrupt communication. Consequently, an absence of great grammatical structures may not intrude on communication. Be that as it may, in the event that we need vocabulary, there is no effective correspondence. With decent information of vocabulary, learners may feel positive about communication, and it helps the accomplishment in correspondence. Notwithstanding, the inquiry to emerge is which words are important for learners to know and how to recall these words.

2.14. The importance of Collocation in second language learning

The importance of collocations in effective language learning was referred to as early as seventy years prior by Palmer (1933). On the other hand, learning them is not as direct as one may anticipate. Collocation learning is essential from a pedagogical perspective for many. After Palmer, Brown (1974) was one of the initial pioneer to propose the incorporation of collocations in the EFL classroom. She underscored that learning collocations builds EFL learners' knowledge of collocation as well as enhances learners' oral fluency, listening perception, and reading speed.

Moreover Brown demonstrated that learning collocation empowers learners bit by bit to perceive language chunks utilized by native speakers in writing as well as speech.

In later years scientists and instructors have raised the essentialness of collocations in language advancement and showing especially with non-native speakers (Ellis 1996). In accordance with Benson et al., (1985), “collocations are arbitrary and unpredictable” so, it’s difficult for non-native speaker to cope with them. In spite of the arbitrary nature of collocations, it is proposed by numerous different analysts that educators should rouse their students to learn collocations. Nation (2001) asserted that language knowledge is collocation knowledge because the storage of chunks of
language in long-term memory on the basis of learning, knowledge and use. He supports Ellis' (2001) contention that language learning might represent relationship between arrangements of words, without the need to allude to grammatical rules. As we know Knowledge of collocations can influence on different skills.

Cowie (1988) alludes to lexical phrases and collocations as regulated units expressing how they structure an integral part of communication. Nattinger (1988) expressed collocations can support learners in committing these words to memory and defining the semantic area of a vocabulary, and can allow learners to know and to anticipate what kinds of words would be discovered together. Additionally, he gave the reasons of teaching lexical phrases. The most imperative reason was that teaching lexical phrases (collocations with pragmatic functions) will prompt familiarity with speaking and writing in light of the fact that they move learners' fixation from individual words to bigger structures of the talk and to the social aspects of the interaction. Pawley and Syder (1983) recommended that native speakers store most words both individually and in bigger chunks. With a specific end goal to attain native like choice and fluency, learners need to do likewise thing—store units of language at phrase or clause length as chunks in memory.

Nattinger and Decarrico (1992) contend that adults don't go about the task in a totally diverse way. They propose that in a relatively natural environment, all language learners appear to experience two stages: they remember chunks of language in certain regular and predictable social circumstances, and then they separate these chunks to develop sentences. Leffa (1998) said that collocation was superior to encyclopaedic knowledge based on the area of his research. Collocations are accordingly critical and remarkable, and it is clear that the utilization of collocations
is essential in enhancing a learner's familiarity with language and helps learners approach to native fluency.

2.15. Different Collocations for Learners with Different Mother Tongues

To teach English collocations to speakers of other languages, it would, of course, be exclusively valuable to have a rich variety of teaching material like collections of activities and workbooks. As there is a developing awareness, in the field of EFL, of the significant of collocations for the teaching and learning of genuinely idiomatic English (for this goal, collocations seem to be more important than figures of speech), we can expect in the not-too-distant future, the publication of (more) material for the teaching of collocations to learners of distinctive levels of proficiency. Authors who plan to set out on this task ought to, then again, bear as a top priority what was brought up above: it won't be advisable to have the same choice of collocations for all learners of English as a Foreign Language. The collocations picked for consideration in such material will have to be distinctive in each case, contingent upon the L1 of the learners.

There appears to be a fundamental contrast between the determination, for teaching purposes, of collocations and of idioms. Workbooks expected for the teaching of sayings to learners of English use criteria like recurrence and helpfulness to look over among the total number of 5,000 to 10,000 maxims existing in English. Such determinations of idioms, consisting of somewhere around 200 and 800 things, can be utilized for all learners, regardless their L1. Regardless of the possibility that there are idioms which are "identical" in English and in a particular learner's L1- that is, if there is immediate translational equivalence (which is rather the exemption with figures of speech) such colloquialisms can and ought to be incorporated and taught, as the learner won't expect such an immediate translational equivalence on account of
phrases. Learners appear to operate with a hypothesis that phrases are language-particular and consequently non-transferable (Kellerman, 1978). Therefore, it is necessary to teach all phrases which are regarded as helpful for the learner, regardless of the fact that solitary things do have an immediate translational equivalence. With regard to collocations, notwithstanding, learners appear to depend on a 'hypothesis of transferability'. The majority of collocational errors can be traced to L1 impact. Cases in points include:

a. drive a bookshop (from Polish kierować sklepem) instead of run a bookshop.

b. make attention at (from French faire attention à) instead of pay attention to.

c. win cash (from Bulgarian - instead of make cash).

d. finish a conflict (from German einen Konflikt beenden) instead of resolve a conflict.

Therefore, it is necessary to recognize (out of all the collocations considered worth knowing for the learner of English) such collocations which the learner with a particular L1 background 'knows already' (because they are completely equivalent in his or her L1 and in English), the learner really need to know collocations as well the amount of material to be incorporated in workbooks for collocations can be increased considerably.

2.16. The Purpose of Teaching Collocations

A lot of scholars agree with this view of David Wilkins said that “Without grammar little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”. Hill (1999) proposes that most learners with "good" vocabulary have issues with familiarity in light of the fact that their collocational competence is extremely constrained. Due to
the fact that teachers accept they ought to acquaint the thought of collocations with students at prior levels, and accordingly receive classroom strategies which always help learners to remember the imperativeness of collocations. Teaching collocations has long been disregarded as a compelling approach to expand foreign language learners’ fluency.

Then again, it is stated by Lewis that collocations will turn into the core of teaching: “Collocation will become so central to everyday teaching that we will wonder whatever took up so much of our time before” (2000). If that this might be understood, learners' written creations would meet the qualities that could make them native-like. Teaching collocations as declared by Cowie & Howarth (referred to in Blue, George furthermore Mitchell, 1996) is the step towards fluent writing: “Another feature of mature writing is the linking of collocations into larger sequences, which can produce a highly admired effect of fluency and confidence”. They remark that acquaintance with collocations is the consequence of “a gradually growing perception of their idiosyncratic properties and specifically of the arbitrariness with which their components select each other” (ibid). As collocations would impact students learning of any language, the advantages of teaching collocations might be outlined in the accompanying succession written by Forquera (2006):

- To maximize the value of language.
- To identify the powerful partnerships in a text.
- To expand their mental lexicons.
- To make better use of language they already partly know.
- To process and produce language at a much faster rate.
- To improve their stress and intonation in larger phrases (pronunciation).
As a general comment, we observe from the purposes mentioned above that teaching collocations is beneficial for language learning in general not only for the writing skill but also for speaking. To conclude, we can see from the reasons said above that teaching collocations is gainful for language learning all in all not just for the writing skill.

2.17. Collocation Teaching

Regardless of wide distinguish of the vitality of collocations in language learning, it remains to a great extent unclear how they ought to be taught. This area takes at strategies and exercises that teachers have created to help their students investigate collocations and hold them in long-term memory, and further stretch and improve their collocation repertoire. At that point it examines what sort of collocations scientists ought to choose and prioritize for learning.

2.17.1. Teaching Strategies

Teaching collocations is difficult; in this way embracing powerful strategies is important. General practice includes three aspects: awareness-raising, deliberate teaching, and recording and recycling.

2.17.1.1. Awareness-Raising

Collocations are arbitrary. A lot of valuable collocations slip by unnoticed and are thus not stored and reused by learners. Before starting to recognize this sort of language for themselves, learners need to be mindful why we say make an appointment as opposed to create an appointment. To attract regard for this phenomenon and help learners create an understanding of the sorts of chunk found in writings, numerous specialists propose that class time is better used raising awareness and empowering viable recording of collocations as opposed to focusing on individual
things (Woolard, 2000; Conzett, 2000; Lewis, 2000). Instructors can help students divide up writings holding familiar things into chunks and look for examples in them. Chunking can happen while listening to stories or performing reading and writing assignments (Nation, 2001). Lewis (1997) said that critical collocations ought to be exhibited in the classroom, and students ought to be prepared to learn them overall and break them into parts later. Conzett (2000) prescribes selected books that include numerous collocations. Acquainting them with students in specific settings, and preparing students to watch and note whatever number collocations as could be allowed through reading and reinforce them in writing. Woolard (2000) and Lewis (1997) propose providing students with a choice of mis-collocations they have made in their generation of language, to push that not all individual words could be joined uninhibitedly. Teachers have created numerous awareness raising activities to help students recognize and select helpful collocations. Case in point, Hill (2000) proposes that students underline all verb + noun collocations in a text, and take a typical word and find the same number of gathers as they can. It is critical that teachers furnish students with aptitudes that empower them to study collocations by themselves outside the classroom. Computers concordances are a valuable counseling tool. Hoey (2000) proposes that students use them to investigate natural- happening collocations, and study the same collocations in distinctive text.

2.17.1.2. Deliberate Teaching

Collocations won't deal with themselves, and must be deliberately taught. Teachers ought to dedicate more class time to learning multi-word items as opposed to individual words, and reuse them with somewhat known words by actively acquainting extra collocations with expand what students know (Lewis, 2000). While teaching new word, Hill (2000) urges teachers to present some of its most regular
collocations in the meantime, and further hassles that another word especially a thing ought to never be taught without giving a couple of normal assembles. Case in point, when presenting the new word storm likewise teach snow storm, dust storm, winter storm, thunder storm, desert storm, and tropical storm. Lewis (2000) highlights the vitality of this approach, as it helps students enlarge their understanding of what those words mean and—all the more imperatively how they are utilized. Teaching collocations makes students more exact. Learners, particularly lower level ones, have a tendency to abuse regular words, for example, very on account of their restricted adverb of modifiers. It is a decent thought to present some regular and helpful modifiers when teaching an adjective word or verb, for instance, completely, physically, mentally, emotionally for exhausted and heavily, strongly, deeply, easily, unduly for influenced by. Last but not least, for learners with specific learning purposes, teachers can select and introduce particular groups of collocations such as ones related to a topic, or ones for writing, such as evidence suggests, recent findings support, and draw conclusions.

2.17.1.3. Recording and Recycling

Teachers have created numerous procedures to reinforce and combine what students have to learn. Recording and recycling are two. It is normal practice for teachers to approach students to keep a notebook for writing words they have experienced that they think are imperative for later review. Lewis (1997) and Conzett (2000) recommend that learners gather useful collocations step by step as they reach them in text and discussion and carefully and methodically sort out them with the assistance of dictionaries or different resources. They suggest arranging collocations in three ways:
-“noun + noun, adjective + noun, verb + noun
-by useful words: do, make, get, and speak
-by topic: holiday, travel, work, and interview” Wu (2010).

Collocations could be listed in order and connected with complete expressions, utilization notes, sample sentences and other supportive data. It is unrealistic to anticipate that learners will get a word that they have just experienced once. Recycling or redundancy is a typical procedure that teachers utilize to help learners hold vocabulary in long-term memory. Recycling can happen through far reaching reading and presentation to the target language outside the classroom. Teachers deliberately reuse what their students have learnt by repeating certain sorts of activity.

2.17.2. Collocation Choice

From the huge number of conceivable outcomes, in what capacity collocations ought to be chosen for students to learn? Brown (1974) uses the idea of normal and unusual collocations, and prescribes that normal ones be taught on the grounds that they structure the premise of unusual ones. On the other hand, he doesn't characterize what normal or unusual collocations are and intimates that they are to a great extent focused around instinct. Different analysts propose frequency based choice. Channell (1981) recommends that words ought to be displayed with high-frequency ranges when they are initially experienced by learners, whereas Nation (2001) embraces two principle criteria—frequency and range. Consideration is given to extremely frequent and instantly valuable gathers, and after that the scope of related collocations taken from distinctive connections is managed. Yorio's (1980) choice criteria are focused around need, usefulness, productivity, currency, frequency and ease. Lewis (1997) sorts collocations regarding strength and frequency. Strong collocations carry on very
nearly as single words, while powerless ones are free combinations of basic words. Collocations may be any synthesis of strong and frequent, strong and infrequent, weak and frequent, or weak and infrequent. He reprimands the utilization of frequency as the sole manual for strong and proposes that great collocations are those that happen more regularly than is measurably likely. Teachers need to be mindful of both strength and frequency when selecting collocations. Hill (2000) prescribes attracting the learner's consideration regarding collocations that take after specific syntactic examples, for example, adjective + noun, noun + noun, verb + adjective + noun, verb + adverb, adverb + adjective and verb + preposition + noun. He focuses on the force of nouns in selecting collocations: distinguish key nouns in the text and after that search for noun, verb and adjective collocations. He additionally proposes that teachers consider collocation on a range, with weak and strong collocations at each one end and medium-quality ones in the center. It is those of medium-quality that are especially vital for learners, on the grounds that they make up a substantial piece of what we say and compose consistently. Notwithstanding, Hill (2000) does not describe how to differentiate them.

2.17.3. Collocation Exercises

The book Teaching Collocations (Lewis, 2000), with commitments by practicing teachers and analysts, contains a substantial gathering of exercises intended for diverse teaching purposes. For example: preparing essays, raising awareness, enhancing precision, and improving retention. This area presents some regular exercises that teachers use in the classroom. In practice, obviously, they cover. Case in point, a few awareness raising exercises likewise serve to enhance precision.
2.17.3.1. Preparing Essays

The capability to write a great essay in other language is one of the most troublesome, yet essential skill that learners need to gain. Writings need great charge of language, which requires productive information. Teachers regularly opine that learners need plans regarding what to write, while learners who have great thoughts battle to place them into words. Teaching collocations exceeds expectations in this admiration. Before writing, students brainstorm topic and essay sort related collocations, where articles may be narrative, descriptive or argumentative. They begin with gathering nouns firmly connected with the topic of the paper, and afterward search for verbs and adjectives that assemble with the noun, and afterward adverbs for verbs and adjectives. When giving essays feedback, teachers give collocation-arranged proposals. One teacher (Hill et al., 2000) uses the accompanying methodology:

“highlight clumsy phrases that can be replaced with collocations, give the essay back to students, who then work on those phrases, provide the correct collocations if students were unable to produce them themselves, and give the essay back to students again for a final revision”.

2.17.3.2. Raising Awareness

Investigating text is a standout amongst the most widely recognized awareness raising exercises. Students read an article and mark collocations in a text, driving them to perceive bigger chunks as opposed to individual words. Teachers want students to concentrate on collocations from specific syntactic examples for instance, underlining nouns and afterward highlighting which verbs are utilized before them or picking those of unique interest. The converse form is to reproduce the content of an article. In the wake of reading an article, one group of students records ten collocations. An
alternate group reproduces the first text focused around the collocations the first group gives. This forces students to look for collocations that convey the principle thoughts of a text, and makes them more aware of collocations as a fundamental bearer of meaning. Given the topic of an article, students contend to anticipate words they think will happen in it. This traditional pre-reading amusement is frequently played in the classroom to invigorate engage and encourage understanding before students start reading. It can additionally serve as a retrospective action, where students review and survey a list of expressions and collocations that are essential for precisely expressing the thoughts important to the article.

2.17.3.3. Enhancing Precision

To guide student’s state ideas more precisely, teachers have expanded many activities using collocation dictionaries. For example teachers can ask students to use a dictionary to find a better way to express each of these:

- a good effect
- a big effect
- effect a plan

measure the effect of pollution
- a very funny effect
- a most immediate effect

Near synonyms guide students differentiate between commonly confused word pairs like injury and wound, beside and besides, or between words of similar meaning for example 1) task, job, work, career, activity, profession; 2) mistake, error, fault, problem, slip. The difference between these words rests largely on the difference in their collocational fields. Correcting common mistakes need students to amend collocation mistakes in sentences. In the example, Road conditions are difficult because of the driving rain. Students need to look up the word in bold, determine the possible collocates of rain, and take ones that are very suitable in the given context.
2.17.3.4. Improving Retention

In accordance with Wu, S. (2010) “Learning collocations is a daunting task”. Teachers utilize game activities to assist students keep high motivation in the procedure of transferring what they have acquired to long-term memory. Collocation domino games can be created using noun + noun collocations, as displayed below, or the other patterns like noun+ adjective, or adjective + noun and verb + noun

*Mental agility- words of wisdom- new arrangement – marriage certificate*

Instructors give the first collocation (or the last, or both) and students fill in the rest, making the chain to the extent that this would be possible. One variety is that student’s use expressions of other syntactic sorts, some examples are mentioned below:

-you must make an effort and study for your exams, instead of saying you must do an effort and study for your exams.

-smoking is strictly forbidden, instead of saying smoking is strongly forbidden.

-It is time you amended your ways, instead of saying it is time you change your ways.

In Collocation estimating, learners are given a number of verbs or adjective collocates of a hidden noun word that must be estimated. For instance:

*Make, hot, cold, bring, green, black: tea*

*Profitable, good, trip, time, grow, like: business*

Collocates of tea or business are indicated one by one until the students estimates the word. Students can compete to see who needs the fewest hints. In Finding collocation partners, given two lists of words, one containing adverbs along with the other
adjectives, students match parts of collocations to form strong adverb + adjective partnerships and then utilize them to fill in the blanks in the sentences given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List 1</th>
<th>List 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>very</td>
<td>important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>completely</td>
<td>afraid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>really</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.18. Resources

2.18.1. Collocation Dictionaries

Printed dictionaries are conventional language assets for discovering word definitions and basic use. With endless awareness of the imperativeness of collocations, modern general-purpose dictionaries give careful consideration to collocations by including them as a piece of word entries. For instance, The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary (OALD sixth edition 2000) contains around 10,000 collocations. In any case, this is fairly a little sum contrasted with the sheer number of collocations in a language. Cowie (1981) stated the conflicting presentation of collocations and recommends that more ought to be presented all in all pedagogical dictionaries. As of late, a few committed collocation word references have developed. They serve as reference instruments that assist users choose which collocations to use on their own. This area presents four—three printed and one electronic as far as degree, expected users, association, look-up system and illustrative cases. The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (Benson et al., 1986) concentrates on essential syntactic and lexical intermittent word combinations. The updated form (1997) includes 18,000 passages and 90,000 collocations, and stated that it protects material that can't be realized in existing dictionaries for second language learners. Collocations are
separated into eight grammatical and seven lexical classifications. Be that as it may, displaying lexical and grammatical collocations together may confound users, so this word reference is more valuable for scholarly learners who are acquainted with the reference materials and for whom grammatical precision is a necessity (Lewis, 2000).

The objective of the LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations (Hill and Lewis, 1997) is nothing but to assist intermediate and advanced learners to utilize words they know all the more successfully. Collocations are assembled into noun, verb, adjective and adverb. The five most paramount collocation types are distinguished as: adjective + noun, verb + noun, noun + verb, adverb + adjective and verb + adverb. For each one, a headword is chosen. Headwords, additionally called entry or index words, are the words that are utilized to find collocations. To discover a collocation, utilize the noun on the off chance that it embodies a noun, overall use adjective, verb and adverb in a specific order. Collocations containing regular descriptive words, for example, great, terrible, huge, and little, and adverbs, for example, truly, carefully, and very are overlooked. Nonetheless, the ordinariness of a statement is generally controlled by the creator's instinct. Collocations are exhibited in a straightforward rundown group. Illustrations are not accessible in this dictionary. Lately, numerous collocation dictionaries were arranged with the focus on the investigation of expansive corpora: the Oxford Collocation Dictionary for Students of English (2009) and Collins Cobuild's English Collocations. The first focused around the 100 million words in the British National Corpus and cover in excess of 150,000 collocations for 9,000 headwords. It means to help students speak and write like native English, and stated that with the exception of completely free combination and amazingly idiomatic ones, a full scope of collocations is comprised:

- Fairly weak collocations: see a film and an enjoyable holiday
Medium-strong collocations: see a doctor and direct equivalent

The strongest and most restricted collocations: see reason and burning ambition (Wu, 2010).

The Collins Cobuild's English Collocations Dictionary distributed on CD-ROM and focused around the 200 million words in the Bank of English, gives 140,000 collocations and 2,600,000 cases. It characterizes collocations as successive word combinations, including idioms, phrasal verbs, compounds, and grammatical pattern. To discover collocations, the user chooses a target word from a list of 10,000 words of English. Clicking that saying brings up a screen showing the twenty most successive collocate that happen on either side of it. Clicking a collocate demonstrates twenty arbitrarily chose illustrations in a common concordance group. Every case might be extended to show more contexts. Regardless of the expansive volume of text this word reference is focused around, it is disillusioning that it just gives twenty arranges, which frequently incorporate normal words, for example, any, own, new.

2.18.2. The British National Corpus

The British National Corpus (BNC) contains an extensive variety of written (90 million words) and speaking (10 million words) British English language. The written content originate from daily papers, expert periodicals & diaries, scholarly books & fiction, distributed & unpublished letters & memoranda, and in addition school & college articles. The spoken content involves orthographic translations of discussions, and spoken language gathered from business or government gatherings, radio shows and telephone. The work of building this gathering began in 1991 and endured three years. The most recent form, distributed in 2007, is dispersed in XML group.

In late decades, progressed computer and data advances have unleashed the force of computers in language learning. The remarkable development of the Internet and pervasiveness of computers have given chances to expand, or even supplant, face to face education by producing learning exercises that are promptly open to learners outside the classroom. The Web has turned into a well known and powerful place to learn foreign language. Learners can profit from the abundance of free assets, for example, practice works out, language courses and language analysis instruments like concordancers. With the approach of intelligent language learning frameworks, artificial intelligence advances are utilized to manage language issues. As per Bowerman (1993), the first canny CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning) framework was created to check answers to cognizance addresses by utilizing syntactic and semantic learning. As of late, intelligent CALL frameworks have demonstrated a developing dependence on natural language preparing research (Debski, 2003). Natural language parsers give linguistics breaks down of written language by expressing to the syntactic and, in some cases, semantic structure of sentences, and labeling words with their part of speech. In spite of the fact that these frameworks have been censured for being not able to record for the full intricacy of human language (Salaberry, 1996), they have, in any case, been utilized to catch intriguing sections or parts of a given language. For instance, Dodigovic (2005) has investigated the utilization of natural language preparing innovation in creating a project to bring issues to light of mistakes in language creation. This project was intended to help Chinese and Indonesian students enhance their academic writing by decreasing grammatical errors. Computer language exercises became famous methods for helping learners polish and enhance their English; however those for collocation
learning are uncommon and inefficient. This segment portrays a few exercises and devices that are either committed to or could be utilized for supporting collocation learning.

2.20. Collocation Activities on the Web and Web Concordance Tools

There are some samples of collocation as well as web concordancer for learning collocation exercises. Therefore language learners can use them for improving collocation till they can write or speak like a native speaker while the number of web concordancer along with web activity are few. As opposed to depending on existing corpora and concordancers, teachers and students apparently equivalent can build and dissect their corpora with the assistance of concordance instruments Examples are mentioned below:

- **a4esl.org**, one of the most well known English learning sites, has several language activities helped by teachers around the globe, of which just two are collocation works out, each one containing ten questions.

- **www.better-english.com** provides 15 business collocation exercises in multiple choice formats. Each one includes 20 questions, concentrating on a specific group of nouns or adjectives.

- **angelfire.com** take the form of drag-and-drop, matching, and gap filling. This web activity utilize “Macromedia Flash technology in which adjectives in a sentence are replaced by dashed lines. The student drags an adjective from the right side and drops it onto a dashed line” (Wu, 2010).

- concordancers: MonoConc, WordSmith, Xaira, Kfngram, and AntConc.
2.21. Computational Linguistics Overview

Computational linguistics or CL is the 'application of computers to the study of linguistic problems' (O'grady et al., 1997). It has two principle objectives: to build and model linguistic theories utilizing the computer and to fabricate frameworks that utilize linguistic data (O'grady et al., 1997). CL spreads phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, semantics as well as pragmatics. Computational phonology relates to speech recognition, investigation and synthesis. It includes perceiving expressed sounds or creating sounds (speech) for people to understand.

Computational morphology examines structure by computational means. This incorporates the utilization of morphological information to discover stems (word parts) or recognize parts of discourse. In a few cases, it likewise covers morphological subcategorisation, fractional semantic analysis, distinction of morphosyntactic categories. Computational syntax is utilized for natural language analysis and generation. The syntactic principles that relate to a specific language, i.e. its grammar, are encoded in the computer and a parser applies these rules. Computation lexicology includes making electronic databases of lexical data. These databases typically hold morpho-semantic and syntactic data about a given word. Computational semantics manages the significance, rather than the structure, of words and expressions. The last part of CL is computational pragmatics. Computational pragmatics manages how language is utilized within correspondence.

2.22. Theoretical Foundations of CALL

In accordance with Warschauer (1996) CALL had existed for around 40 years and experienced an arrangement of stages that were specifically joined with both the levels of progression of the technological means and the type of methodology
prevalent at each stage. He also points out that CALL advances have influenced language teaching and learning at different focuses in the computer history. CALL stages are categorized into four distinct phases:

Behavioristic CALL, Communicative CALL, Integrative CALL, and Interactive CALL. The first stage, Warschauer & Healey (1998) expressed that Behavioristic CALL was based upon behavioristic hypotheses of learning overwhelming in the 1960s. The creators contended that Learning was based upon observation and abstraction of information entering the mind and on the resulting output. They specified that CALL in that stage concentrated on repetitive language activities like drill-and-practice for which the computer was utilized as a vehicle for conveying instructional materials to learners (Warschauer, 1996). Blake (1998) included that the center that was more on the system than on the learner.

The second stage, Communicative CALL, was inferred from the communicative approach of showing that was amid the 1970s and 1980s (Warschauer & Healey, 1998; Warschauer, 1996). That is, the communicative CALL centered all the more on how language forms and examples are utilized instead of on the structures themselves, permitting learners to make language rather than just utilizing make-up expressions (Warschauer, 1996). Communicative CALL was in light of cognitive hypotheses, as learning was an inventive process of representation also improvement. As indicated by Warschauer, this stage was recognized as personal computers existed permitting more prominent potential outcomes for individual work. Before the end of the 1980s, numerous instructors felt that the machine was not living up to its potential ore on the project than on the learner. That is, the computer was seen as minor and utilized as a part of a disconnected way (Kenning & Kenning, 1990). Then again, specialists
examined the capacities of communication situations achieved by new computer
technology and Computer-mediated Communication (CMC).

As indicated by Warschauer (1996) the Integrative CALL, the third stage, developed
in the most recent decades from two essential technological developments,
multimedia computer technology and the Internet. Multimedia technology contains
text, graphics, sound, animation, and video. It likewise uses hypermedia (i.e.,
electronic links) that permits multimedia resources to be connected together, enabling
learners to navigate their own path by pointing and clicking a mouse. There are
numerous focal points to utilizing hypermedia for language learning, for example, the
production of a more real learning environment in light of the fact that listening is
joined with seeing (Warschauer, 1996) and the capacity of hypermedia to address
changing degrees of students ability (Blake, 1998). Language skills were easily
integrated because the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing can be
combined into a single activity. A real playing point of hypermedia is that it
encourages concentrating on substance or significance without yielding a concentrate
on language form or learning strategies (Warschauer, 1996). The utilization of
multimedia may include a combination of skills, for example, reading and Writing,
yet it doesn't generally include what Warschauer considered a more critical sort of
reconciliation – meaningful and true communication on the whole parts of the
language learning educational program. This CALL structure may be more worthy
than the past structures in light of simple availability of web. Students have gotten to
be more active in learning and are urged to investigate information and be makers’ of
language (Brown, 1994). Fourth, Interactive CALL is the latest advancement in the
range of CALL. Projects amid this period, created on CD-Roms, includes a variety of
media (text, sound, graphics, video, and animation) that might be interfaced together
keeping in mind the end goal to pass on an animating learning environment in which each of the four skills are coordinated. Brett and Motteram (2000) presumed that the blending of the aforementioned media may encourage more noteworthy might facilitate greater comprehension of input than output which was delivered only via one of certain modes such as those mentioned earlier. Since its beginnings, CALL has experienced various stages and has developed to its present level, coating a significant scope of instructive material.

2.23. Different Models of CALL

Different models of CALL includes: traditional CALL, explorative CALL, multimedia CALL, web-based CALL and intelligent CALL. Traditional CALL programs were as text displayed on screen, and the learner could respond by entering a reply at the keyboard. A typical feature of traditional CALL is to make utilization of color to highlight syntactic features and feedback. Additionally, the more complex CALL programs would endeavor to break down the learner's reaction, pinpoint errors, and extension to remedial exercises. An option methodology is the "intelligent CALL" methods to break down the learner's reaction (Last, 1989).

Later methodologies to CALL have supported a learner-centered, exploratory approach instead of a teacher-centered, drill-based methodology to CALL. The exploratory approach is portrayed by the utilization of concordance programmes in the language classroom, which is an approach portrayed as “data-driven learning” (DLL) by Johns and King (1991). The exploratory approach is broadly utilized today, including the utilization of web concordances and other web-based CALL exercises. Most CALL programs today fall into the classification of multimedia CALL: the video recordings offered by the CD-ROMs, the Digital Video Disk (DVD) and even
General Serial Bus (USB) multimedia, Multimedia CALL joins together sound and photographic features. A peculiarity of numerous computer programs is the role perform exercise, that the students be able to record his/her own specific voice and play it back as a component of a consistent dialog with a native speaker. Other programs make utilization of Automatic Speech Recognition programming to diagnose learners' errors.

In 1992, the World Wide Web was dispatched, arriving at the overall population in 1993. The Web offers tremendous potential in language learning and teaching, yet it has some approach to go before it gets up to speed with the intelligence, particularly when getting to sound and feature records. Consequently, as indicated by Jones & Jo (1999), WBI can offer understudies adaptability and ‘different place, different time’, while even now giving practical support and teacher contact at the point when required. Web-based CALL has opened ways of access to people with disabilities that were unrealistic in the recent past. Web-based CALL is new for students along with teachers who can correspond with one another from anyplace on the planet within seconds through the Web. Feedback from the educator might be acquired promptly. Obviously, compelling learning implies that teachers and students utilizing web-based learning must make sure to give incessant feedback. Intelligent CALL is programmed so that CALL adjusts to the student's needs. It gains data about the student's present information of a subject and his/her objectives in learning in the subject, and then makes a user profile based on this information. It can then modify itself to the individual student (Ellison, 2004). Lee (2000) express that restricted for instructors to coordinate information technology (IT) into their classrooms is through the utilization of computer-assisted language learning software programmes. The principal improvement of computer-assisted language learning software programmes might be
followed back to the early 1960s, specifically, the programme logic for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO) project, which was fundamentally utilized for sentence structure, vocabulary drills, translations and was among the initially computerized foreign language teaching systems. From that point forward, the effect of information technology (IT) on language teaching/learning has expanded quickly to incorporate the present-day extensive variety of software programmes, language learning websites and authorware.

2.24. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Oliver and Bradley (1999) depict learning technology as a range with numerous names yet few definitions, which can envelop instructive multimedia, web-based learning, computer assisted learning and an entire host of other related subjects. According to Pennington (2004), in the most recent decades, computers have significantly changed the expert life of the ordinary working linguists, altering the things we can do, the ways we can do them, and even the ways we can think about them. Lawler and Dry (1998) compose that in the second 50% of the century, the normal knowledge of using computers is shaping the way we conceptualize both linguistics and language. Computer assisted language learning (CALL) alludes to the utilization of computers for language teaching and learning. The base of CALL could be followed back to CAI. There has been much arguments over the utilization of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in the 'English as a foreign language' (EFL) classroom over the previous decade. Levy (1997) said CALL is nothing but the suitable survey for the utilization applications of the Computer in the area of language teaching and learning. Levy's description is actually in line with the opinion held by the dominant part of cutting edge CALL experts. Davies (2000) says that CALL is a method to language learning as well teaching in which the computer is utilized as a
help to the presentation, reinforcement and appraisal of material to be adapted, typically including a significant interactive component. CALL is utilized within an exceptionally wide sense “as the general term to cover all roles of the computer in language Learning” (Levy, 1997), including word processing, e-mail, and use of the internet.

2.25. Computer-Assisted Language Testing (CALT)

As indicated by Chapelle (2001), in 1998 & 1999, three of the biggest suppliers of instructive tests presented computer-based variants of proficiency tests for English as a foreign language. In the meantime, numerous foundations and people started to offer electronic tests for specific language projects and classes. Computer assisted language testing created from this premise. Testing reform all through the 1980s, with the advancement in hardware configuration, reinforced convictions that computers can and ought to be utilized for language testing: “testing is a field in the process of being recreated” (Cole, 1993). Berberich (1995) proposes that CALT has a requirement for layered frameworks. It can manage adaptable input and output, unreservedly branch inside and access a substantial base of undertakings and information. It contingent upon client inputs, frontier it can gather and classify different clients’ inputs for progressing refinement of the framework. CALL is more connected with the communicative approach to language educating; it lays more stress on the requirement for learning in context and the utilization of genuine texts (Kaufmann, 1992). Computer communication, both synchronous, for example, visual chatting, and asynchronous, for example, email, is a vital component of the expert and private lives of a great many individuals over the world. Communication is at the heart of language teaching along with learning. Contact with speakers of the target language has dependably been supported yet has not generally been simple to accomplish,
especially as of late, when letter writing has not been a most loved movement among youngsters. This crevice is filled by electronic communication.

2.26. CALL in English Learning

As per Warschauer (1998), computers are great at putting away, controlling, and recovering a lot of data, making them especially helpful in the area of English learning. Kaufmann (1992) underlines the utilization of computers as an asset for the advancement of writing proficiency abilities. Computers have a tendency to be more suited to the advancement of reading and writing aptitudes than to the improvement of speaking abilities. CALL is likewise advantageous to the improvement of oral skills. Pronunciation exercise specifically has profited from multimedia. Pronunciations programs in CALL for the most part consolidate a voice recording and playback to let students contrast their recording and a model. Vocabulary programs in CALL, for example, crossword and word-search puzzles, are exercises that take a lot of time to plan by hand, yet almost no time to do on the computer. The educator sorts in an arrangement of words, and the machine designs them fittingly. With a crossword puzzle, the instructor provoked for each, one sample, furthermore the machine designs the entire crossword. The written work procedure is an alternate region where computers have included a lot of work. Computers help students in the prewriting stage to produce and framework plans. Most word processors accompany spelling checkers, giving students some assistance in finding their mistakes and perceiving the right spelling. CALL projects intended for showing sentence structure incorporate drill and practice on a single topic, penetrates on a mixture of points, amusements, and programs for test planning. Grammar structure units are likewise included in various far reaching media bundles, furthermore can indicate issues. Text reproduction projects permit students to manipulate letters, words, sentences, or
sections so as to assemble writings. They are normally used to help reading, writing, or discussion activities.

2.27. Advantages of CALL

As of late, the numbers of English instructors utilizing CALL has expanded particularly. Likewise, numerous articles have been composed about the part of it in English learning. In spite of the fact that the capability of the Internet for instructive utilization has not been completely investigated yet and the normal school still makes constrained utilization of computers for a few reasons, it is evident that we have entered another data age in which the connections in the middle of ICT and EFL have as of now been made. Numerous teachers (Jonassen, 1996; Salaberry, 1999; Rost, 2002) show that the current machine engineering has numerous advantages for second language learning. The accompanying are the advantages as expressed by numerous specialists:

- **1. Interest and motivation**

Classical language educating in classroom could be monotonous, exhaustive, and actually disappointing, and students can detached premium and motivation in learning. CALL developers can give students approaches to learn English through computer amusements, imitated graphics, and suitable techniques which can make drills all the more intriguing (Ravichandran, 2000).

- **2. Individualization**

CALL permits learners to have non-consecutive learning habit; they can determine on their own which aptitudes to create and which course to use, and the speed and level by their needs.
- 3. A compatible learning style

Students have different style of learning, and an incompatible style for students will cause genuine clashes to them. Computer can give an energizing "fast" drill for one student and "slow" for an alternate.

- 4. Optimal use of learning time

The time adaptability of utilizing computer empowers students to pick proper timing for learning. Winter (1997) focused on the imperativeness of adaptable learning, learning anyplace, anytime, and anything you need, which is valid for the electronic direction and CALL. Learners are given an opportunity to study and audit the materials as ordinarily they need without restricted time.

- 5. Immediate feedback

Students get most extreme profit from feedback just on the off chance that it is given instantly. A deferred positive feedback will diminish the encouragement and fortification, and a postponed negative feedback influence the essential information a student must expert. Computer can give moment feedback and help the students avoid his misinterpretation at the first stage. Tan (1997) recorded the advantages of CALL as giving prompt feedback, permitting students at their own particular pace, and bringing about less disappointment among students.

- 6. Error analysis

Computer database might be used by instructor to group and separate the kind of general error and mistake because of the impact of the first language. A computer can break down the particular oversights that students made and can respond in distinctive path from the normal instructor, which make students fit to make change toward oneself and understand the guideline behind the right result (Ravichandran, 2007).
- 7. Guided and repetitive practice

Students have opportunity of representation inside specific limits that developers make, for example, grammar, vocabulary, and so forth. They can reiterate the course they have to pro as many as they wish. As per Kiliçkaya (2007), drill-sort CALL maters are acceptable for repetitive exercise, which empower students to learn ideas and key components in a branch of knowledge.

- 8. Pre-determined to process syllabus

Computer upgrades the learning procedure from a pre-determined outline to a developing or process syllabus. Case in point, a monotonous paper activity of ‘fill-in-the-spaces’ sort could be made additionally energizing on the screen in the right to gain entrance toward oneself mode, and students can choose their own particular material. Thusly, CALL encourages the blend of the preplanned outline that is settled by teacher and learners (Breen 1986 cited in Ravichandran 2000).

2.28. Disadvantage of CALL

In spite of the fact that there are numerous favorable circumstances of computer, the application of current computer innovation still have its constraints and weaknesses. According to Ansel et al., (as cited in Hartoyo 2006), the CAL project is not quite the same as conventional books that could be conveyed and examined wherever and at whatever point they wish: on a train, at home, amidst the night, etc. School computers or language research center must be gotten to in limited hours, so CALL program just profits individuals who have computers at home or particular notebook. Increased instructive expenses (Gips & Dimattia as referred in Lai 2006) demonstrated that CALL will expand instructive expense, since computers turn into an essential
necessity for students to buy, while the low-budget school and students with low income are not able to manage the cost of a computer.

- **Lack of trained educators**

It is vital for educators and students to have fundamental technology learning before applying computer innovation in second language showing and learning. Accordingly, computers will just profit the individuals who are acquainted with machine engineering (Roblyer, 2003 as cited in Lai, 2006).

- **Insufficient current CALL programs**

Currently, the software of CALL predominantly manages reading, listening, and writing abilities. There are some speaking projects which have been produced so late, however their functions are still restricted. Warschauer (as cited in Lai, 2006) expressed that a program ought to be in a perfect world must have the capacity to comprehend a users spoken input and evaluate it for accuracy as well as for 'appropriateness'. Speaking program ought to have the capacity to diagnose a learner's issue with articulation, language syntax, or utilization and after that intelligently choose a scope of alternatives.

- **Inability to handle unexpected situations**

The learning circumstance that a second language learner comes across is different and steadily evolving. Computers only have artificial intelligence, and it can’t manage learner's unforeseen learning issue or response to learner's inquiries promptly as instructors do. Blin as cited in Lai (2006) expressed that computer technology with that degree don't exist, and are not anticipated that will exist very much for a while.

To close, CALL has notable advantage and disadvantage. Instructors ought to know the strengths and weaknesses in applying CALL in ESL classrooms. It is congenial
that technological progression and advancement have empowered the application of CALL projects in language learning and instruction, and they turned into another pattern as of late. Indeed thus, machine technology still has its restriction and weaknesses. Accordingly, we should first understand the points of interest and burdens of current CALL programs before applying them to enhance our instruction or to help students learn.

2.29. Five Principle Motivations to Utilize the Internet for English Instructing

With the advancement of information technology, educating with Internet resources is turning into a pattern in foreign language teaching environments. As per Warshauer, Shetzer, and Meloni (2000), there are five principle motivations to utilize the Internet for English teaching: authenticity, literacy, interaction, vitality, and empowerment. Regarding authenticity, the authors expressed that, “language learning is most successful when it takes place in authentic, meaningful contexts”. An alternate purpose behind utilizing the Internet for language teaching is education, as the Internet offers students chances to create their capacities of tuning in, speaking, reading, writing, communicating, researching, and publishing. Interaction is further more a paramount motivation behind why English teachers ought to utilize the Internet within their teaching. It gives students chances to collaborate with native speakers and non-native speakers as far and wide as possible. For vitality, the fourth explanation behind utilizing the Internet, “the Internet can inject an element of vitality into teaching and motivate students as they communicate in a medium that is flexible, multimodal, constantly changing, and connected to their real-life needs”. Finally, with regards to empowerment, the Internet permits teachers and students to enable their teaching and learning. The Internet offers them opportunities to wind up “autonomous lifelong learners”. Research has demonstrated that language teachers can utilize
Internet resources to enhance students extensive listening, both inside and beyond the language classroom (Bingham & Larson, 2006).

2.30. Teacher’s Outlook toward Technology

Likewise Kessler (2007) investigated the outlook of teachers toward technology and the sort of CALL training they got. He depicted formal training as the direction teachers power get in a classroom setting and informal training as the teaching got through individual experiences and study toward oneself. He overviewed 108 graduates with master degrees in teaching English to speakers of other language (TESOL) and found that teachers are more impacted by informal training in CALL than they are by formal instruction. He contended that if teachers keep on adapting in this informal setting they will most likely be unable to adventure the resources furthermore in learning open doors accessible to them as CALL keeps on evolving. In other words, as indicated by Kessler's exploration, CALL training needs to encourage informal training and give formal instruction to help teachers stay up to date with the most recent improvements in software and hardware that might be utilized as a part of CALL.

2.31. Teachers Experiment with Technology

An alternate element affecting teachers' technology utilization is their experience as teachers. Meskill et al., (2002) led meetings to comprehend the contrasts between the individuals who use technology and the individuals who don't. They talked with specialists and also with learners indistinguishable and reported that the five teachers with high skill in CALL felt slanted to talk about how and why they utilized technology. Maybe the most fascinating discovering reported in this study is that amateur educators who had cutting edge training in computer utilization felt less
pleasant in their unification of technology in the classroom than teachers with additionally educating experience and less cutting edge training. While not clearly expressed in the production, the specialists suggest the advantage of acquiring in efficient classroom hones from accomplished teachers so as to better integrate technology into the language classroom. What's more, Wetzel, Zambo, and Ryan (2007) watched a classroom of both accomplished teachers and nonprofessional teachers. They found that accomplished teachers utilized technology all the more frequently in their classroom, yet couldn't give motivation to the phenomenon. They recommend that time teaching may influence the utilization of technology, yet it might likewise have something to do with a mixture of variables including both experience and certainty, among others.

2.32. Purposes of Teaching Writing

At the point when an individual writes something, he or she has purposes for such writing. The author may have inspirations of which he or she is ignorant. The author might additionally have blended, and even conflicting, inspirations for writing. For example, a student writing an article for a class may wish to satisfy the instructor and to divert his or her classmates. Regretfully, what may divert classmates the instructor could discover inadmissible? As a rule, individuals write either on the grounds that they are required to or due to they decide to write for their reasons. Self-chosen writing happens at work and in school. Self-chosen writing occurs in lots of situations. Both required and self-chosen toward oneself writing could be of numerous sorts. Either way, reflections on diverse purposes for writing can assist one create the best part of writing. Educators of English regularly select writing task undertakings from textbook to assist students to enhance their writing competence. The written work that educators select from reading text book and relegate to students can aid
them get to be sure writers and independent master mind. Foong (1999) focuses out four objectives for teaching writing:

- **Writing for language practice.**

  Writing could be taught essentially for practicing language forms to create accuracy and correctness. With the impact of behaviorist theory in the audio-lingual methodology to teaching language, written work was principally for reinforcement, training, and imitation of language forms. The behaviorists accepted that people be able to learn through stimulus and response. This was connected to language learning in which accurate utilization of the language was adapted through reinforcement, continuously practice and imitation. Students would be given written work practices that would strengthen language structures that they have adapted through the manipulation of grammatical patterns. For instance teacher gives a passage to students and asks to perform substitutions, changes, extensions, or fulfillment exercises.

- **Writing for Rhetorical Practice**

  Investigate in contrastive rhetoric (Kaplan, 1966; Purves, 1988; Connors, 1996) has conjectured that the rhetorical pattern could vary between languages and cultures. Students acquiring a second language may organize their article using a pattern that could disregard native reader’s desires. Subsequently, the instructing of rhetorical forms and traditions started to have its impact on language text books and educating practices. Instructors would give the content and use model articles as stimuli for writing. Students will imitate the rhetorical and syntactic structures by following the selected model passage. Instances of this assignment are writing guided that the content and association are given by the educator, reading a passage and writing a text
with parallel association, and reading an article and investigating its hierarchical pattern and composing a comparable article on a related topic.

-Writing for Communication

With the attention of communicative skill as an objective in language learning (Widdowson, 1978; Brumfit & Johnson, 1979), education for writing started to movement its accentuation on accuracy and examples to the capability to comprehend and shifts on data content. Accomplishing a communicative written work need more awareness of writers objective, audience, and the context of composing. Here writing has a social role. Such communicative composition tasks would stimulate real life circumstances where an author would write to shift some data to a reader.

-Writing as a discovery and cognitive process

Writing tasks in the classrooms have started to move their concentrate to the process of writing which has been impacted by the humanistic and cognitive approach. The process approach has two fundamental schools of thought: the expressive and the cognitive. The first one emphasizes on the vitality of self development. Writing is seen as an expressive mode through which writers use writing as an intention to investigate or find significance independent from anyone else and create their own voice. For the second one, written work analysts start to study the mental procedures amid the demonstration of composing. They find that great writers don't have just a vast collection of procedures; additionally they have suitable self-awareness of their own techniques. In comparison with the education of composing strategies, the accompanying classroom practices and steady learning environment are proposed for teaching written work as a finding and thinking process.
- permitting students to create their thoughts through prewriting strategies and by writing the topics that are identified with the students’ world experiences for writing to be meaningful.

- Creating opportunities for students to choose their own particular topic.

- Providing feedback on drafts that stimulates and motivates students to rethink furthermore reconsider plans as opposed to concentrating on structure and precision.

- Conferencing with students helps them pick up a bit of knowledge and realizing of their writing procedure and to keep them with support.

- Promoting cooperative as opposed to challenging acquiring in the classroom.

2.33. Some Outlook of Writing

Zen (2005) characterizes writing as one of the four skills, normally acknowledged objectives of learning in a foreign language, however frequently skills that “falls through”.

Rogers (2004) said that writing is not language. In reality Language is known for everyone as a complex phenomenon settling in human brain which allows individuals to make and expressions. Writing encompasses making expressions clear.

Bello (1997) declared that writing is a nonstop methodology of finding how to find the efficient language for conveying one’s sentiments and considerations. He keeps up that writing is testing, whether it is in a native language or in a second language.

Miller (1964) declared that “writing is not an entertainment played in accordance with guidelines. Writing is considered as a compelling and delightful thing.
Orwig (1999) stated that the meaning of writing as an ability a skill saying that: It is a productive skill that is more entangled than it appears at the outset, and frequently appears to be the most troublesome of the skills since it has various micro skills, for example: utilizing orthography effectively, spelling and punctuation traditions, utilizing vocabulary as a part of a revise way and utilizing the suitable style.

Salah (2009) characterizes writing as a craft that needs instruments. These instruments are the sub-skills of writing, for example, mechanics of writing and text organization.

The scientist characterizes writing as a method that is utilized to express needs and emotions by utilizing a variety of specific instruments and sub-skills."Writing" is the process of using symbols (letters of the alphabet, punctuation and spaces) to communicate thoughts and ideas in a readable form.

2.34. How to Teach Writing

Writing ability in a foreign language has a tendency to be the most troublesome abilities to learn. This is valid for English also. The way to effective writing classes is that they are pragmatic in nature focusing on the abilities needed or desired by students. Harmer (1991) clarifies four explanations behind teaching writing to students of English as a foreign language. They includes: reinforcement, language development, learning style and writing as a skill.

1. Reinforcement: a few students obtain languages in an oral/aural way; others get profit from seeing the language recorded. "The visual demonstration of language construction is invaluable for both understanding and memory". It is valuable for students to write the new language soon after examining it.
2. Language development: the procedure of writing is not the same as the methodology of speaking; the previous helps us to learn as we go along. "The mental activity of constructing proper written texts is part of the ongoing learning experiences."

3. Learning style: a few students are fast at procuring language just by looking and listening. Others may take longer time used in delivering language in a slower way is significant. Thus, writing is proper for those learners.

4. Writing as a skill: the most crucial explanation behind teaching writing is that, it is an essential Language skill like talking, listening and perusing. Students need to know how to write letters, composition, articles and reports.

Archibald (2004) notes that even though mastery in writing is to some extent related to general language proficiency, betterments in language competence do not exactly influence on students writing proficiency in second language. As it is clear writing can be efficient in increasing mastery in a great number of areas

Cumming (2002) alerts writing teachers should be careful about practices that endeavor to separate written work into segment skills for example: practices frequently eliminate portions of the task that are significant to the personal along with cultural importance of the written work. Learners' necessities are diverse at different stages in their learning and those teachers must create tasks to accommodate this. An examination was given for teaching methodologies firstly to intermediate and advanced levels of proficiency. At lower levels continuous, short writing exercises can aid to make familiarity and create a helpful, profitable vocabulary. The assortment and length of tasks might be expanded for intermediate level students - creating more difficult themes and building a collection of techniques for successful writing.
Advanced level students need to create a more noteworthy understanding of genres and the spot of writing specifically discourse groups. They also need to create their own strategies to particular voice in the second language. Monaghan (2007) notes that teaching writing would incorporate written work strategies, characterized as systems for giving essential knowledge of the conventions of written discourse and the premise of grammar, sentence structure through different pedagogical strategies. Eventually, teaching writing means managing students to attain the most proficiency in imparting in the worlds.

2.35. Writing Process: The Steps to Writing Success

Great writing is important for achievement in school and the 21st Century working environment. Writing is a complex composition of skills which is appropriate taught by breaking down the procedure. The writing procedure includes an arrangement of steps to follow in creating a completed piece of writing. Teachers have observed that by concentrating on the procedure of writing, practically everybody figures out how to write effectively. By breaking down writing orderly, the secret is omitted and a mental obstacle is decreased. In particular, students find the profits of valuable criticism on their written work, and they increasingly master and even enjoy writing. Each writer takes after his or her own particular written work process. Being aware of your own writing process is particularly useful when you find yourself fighting with an especially unpredictable piece. This procedure includes a few steps to guide students from the starting writing with making a completed piece. Teachers utilize these steps to give structure and progression in all forms of writing. Harmer (2004) expressed something about the procedure of writing and the stages an author experiences in order to create a part of writing. He recommends four primary components: Planning, the writer needs to ponder three issues (purpose, audience and
content structure.) Drafting, is the first form of a part of composing. Editing is (reflecting and revision) the last version. Oshima and Hogue (1981) recognized four phases of the writing process: (prewriting, planning, writing and revising drafts and the last copy).

- **Brainstorming**

Before you begin writing, you will consider what we can write, or how we can write? This is called, brainstorming. When you brainstorm for thoughts, you will attempt to think of the same number of plans as you can. Don't stress over whether they are great or terrible thoughts. You can brainstorm by making a rundown of plans that you concocted, or graphic organizers and chart, or simply writing whatever you can consider without grammar.

- **Outlining**

Next, you may need to outline your paper based on the plan you thought of while you were brainstorming. This implies that you will contemplate the structure of your article in this reason you can best convey your thoughts, and meet the prerequisites of writing assignments. You will typically outline your article by starting with its three significant parts: introduction, body, and conclusion. The particular structure of each article may change from task to task. Numerous writers nominated this a skeleton to which you create or "flesh out" the paper. When you have the skeleton set up, you can begin considering how to add extra detail to it.

- **Rough Draft**

Your teachers or educators will regularly demand you to present a rough draft or sloppy copy of your paper. This generally implies that your work is still in advancement. In the rough draft, readers need to check whether you have a reasonable
direction in your article. When you are demand to present a rough draft, it doesn't have to be thorough, yet it does need to be finished. That implies, you shouldn't be forgetting any of the real parts of the article. The aim of the rough draft is nothing but for the student to concentrate on his/her ideas and bring them on paper without the confusion or worry about making mistakes in grammar, capitalization, punctuation, or paragraph structure.

-Revising

Revision gives you a chance to look at your topic regarding your theme, your plans, and your audience. You may include more paragraph or omit paragraph to better fit into a given type or topic. In short, revising implies that you organize your written work better in a manner that your audience can comprehend your composition better. Students utilize the recommendations from classmates to make increments or clear details. Students attempt to enhance their composition on their own. The teacher steps inside at this stage and provides feedback.

-Editing

Editing regularly implies that you go over your writing to verify that you don't have any grammatical errors that make it difficult for your readers to comprehend what you are attempting to say. In other words, editing implies that you deal with minor errors in your composition. This is like polishing your composition.

-Polish your writing

The word polish initially intended to make something smooth along with gleaming, like: “she polished her leather boots”. In writing, polish can intend to enhance or complete, or refine a part of writing by omitting of minor errors. As such, when your educators or teachers say, “polish your writing”, it implies that you ought to go over
your written work and verify you don't have any errors in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and to verify that you don't have any sentences that don't make mean.

2.36. Mis-collocations in Foreign Language Writing

It is broadly watched that foreign learners confront a real issue in writing. Despite the fact that they have the thoughts and storm their brains to discover the words, they do not know which words could be joined together to structure right declarations. In this manner, their essays incorporate a wide assortment of mis-collocations. This is because of their absence of collocational competence on the grounds that they have got a direction that is "grammar focused" where there is no immediate direction of vocabulary. They have learnt vocabulary through alternate subjects, and more often than not they have found just individual words. As yet, the greater parts of learners don’t know even what collocations are. To prevail over this issue, the teacher ought to draw in his/her learners' consideration towards collocations due to teaching sentence structure and individual words is not sufficient. Once the learners notice which words co-happen together, they begin to figure the significance of each word as per its "company" so they could utilize it when they are asked to write. Thus, learners discover challenges in distinguishing collocations when they read a text. Thus, they couldn't know which words go together from free reading. Accordingly, reading couldn't take care of the issue unless it is regulated by the teacher. Furthermore, the boundless number of collocations may confuse the learners who consider how they could gain this vast information. Since securing a language requires taking in its vocabulary, the teacher ought to disentangle the learning task by prompting the learners to begin with the most well-known collocations that are oftentimes utilized by native speakers.
At that point, they could enhance their knowledge into collocations through a far reaching education with the assistance of collocation word references, for example, Oxford Collocation Dictionary for Students of English. The fundamental reason of teaching collocations is helping the learners to prevail over conceivable mis-collocations in writing and accomplish fluency as guaranteed by (Nesselhauf, 2005):

“Prefabricated units are essential for fluency in both spoken and written language…it has been known that whether or not L2 production is fluent crucially depends on the learner’s control over a large repertoire of prefabricated units”

As a general remark, teaching the most widely recognized collocations is the key towards conquering the issue of mis-collocations in Foreign Language Writing. Subsequently, every teacher needs to have faith in the need of creating the learners' collocational competence, and the importance of grammar and additionally vocabulary.

2.37. The Role of the Teacher

Teaching English to EFL/ESL learners might be both testing and rewarding. EFL/ESL Learners bring to the classroom a lot of problems that a teacher must address before making a profitable learning environment. As a teacher for students, he/she must be ready to comprehend the needs of students and be adaptable enough to change lessons method when they’re ended up being insufficient in the classroom. The teacher demonstrates as a criticism supplier particularly when (s) he correct students' articles and audits their utilization of collocations. Giving careful consideration to mis-collocation is a point of convergence in teaching collocations. He/she is in charge of running learners' consideration towards collocations and urging them to construct self-
sufficiency in realizing so that they can perceive collocations themselves and assemble attention to these “pre-fabricated chunks”. As expressed by Willis (1990):

“We hear more and more frequently nowadays that the role of the teacher is not so much to teach as to manage learning - to create an environment in which learners can operate effectively. Sometimes this is taken further, and the job of the teacher is to help learners manage their own learning. This is the teacher helping learners to discover for themselves the best and most effective way for them to learn”.

For example, the teacher could do so by encouraging his/her learners to utilize a collocation word reference to look for collocations. Additionally, the teacher need to prompt the learners to utilize a notebook which is, as perceived by Woolard (referred to in Lewis, 2000), additionally valuable: “it is important to record what is noticed…a single encounter with a word is not enough to ensure its acquisition”. A notebook helps the learners to practice all the collocations managed so they could retain them effortlessly and review them when required. As asserted by Lewis (2000) the most imperative task of the teacher is to motivate attention due to that it serves to change over the input into intake. He clarifies:

“The single most contribution the teacher can make to ensuring that input becomes intake, is ensuring that learners notice the collocations and other phrases in the input language. This involves an important change of perspective for many teachers, particularly those used to emphasizing the language that students produce. We now recognize that it is noticing the input language which is crucial to expanding learners' mental lexicons” (ibid).

Other roles for the teacher may include motivating the learners to learn collocations by raising their awareness of the importance of collocations in increasing second
language writing proficiency and evaluating their writing by directing it towards achieving native-like fluency.

2.38. The Notion of Speaking

Speaking is “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts” (Chaney, 1998). Speaking is an important task of second language learning and teaching. In spite of its significance, for a long time, training speaking value has been failed and teachers have kept on teaching speaking exactly as a reiteration of drills or retention of dialogs. Notwithstanding, now a day’s world need that the objective of teaching speaking ought to enhance students’ communicative skills, due to, just in that way, students can communicate and acquire how to take after the social and cultural principles proper in each communicative condition. With regard to four factors of language skills, speaking is considered to be the most critical in learning in a second or foreign language.

As expressed by Ur (1996), speaking incorporated all different skills of knowing that language. Speaking is a significant part of second language learning and teaching, it’s an art of contact and one of four productive skills, that must be comprehended in learning foreign language. Great speaking skills are the demonstration of creating words that might be seen by audience members. As indicated by Brown and Yule (1983), speaking is the skill that the students will be judged upon most in genuine circumstances. It is a vital part of ordinary communication and regularly the first introduction of an individual is based on his/her capacity to speak smoothly and extensively.
In the introductory stage, teachers utilized recording devices as a technological device to train the students, which later developed as communication laboratory. The integration of technology into language teaching, which was begun in the early 1960s and 1970s, assisted teachers to train second language learners how they can speak in the most ideal way that could be available. Consistently teachers are getting access to some new advances in English language teaching. Traditional teaching strategy, for example, the chalk and talk system appears to be outdated, the modern technologies might be utilized as a supplement to the classroom teaching strategy to have an energetic environment in the class. It is nothing but the necessity of great importance to coordinate technologies to update the level of English educating. The modern innovations moderate the brain of the students to get into the subject with whole incorporation as opposed to a difficult task to do. New advances in language adapted by various intelligence and blended capabilities supplant with old techniques of teaching. These could enhance students’ communicative skills, because only, just in that way only students can express. In accordance with Nunan (1991) due to the inspiration students get from it and additionally because they are eager to be prosperous in doing a discussion into the second language. For this reason, a few students may get stressed, disappointed or even irate when not having chances to practice the language orally. An alternate reason is that speaking is viewed as essential in human correspondence and more utilized than other skills like writing. The verification is that the quantity of written correspondence done daily. Also, writing and listening are more habitually practiced in class than speaking. Hammer (1998) specifies that speaking could be rehearsed as a dynamic activity where students need to utilize the language not only for practicing certain
grammatical part which present to something exhausting and distressing for a few students additionally for performing an oral assignment.

2.39. Teaching Speaking

Teaching speaking attracted the attention of so many teachers in recent days. Some ways of teaching speaking skills is mentioned below:

- Making speech sound into English language

- Using suitable vocabulary as well stress and intonation pattern are very important.

- Assigning learners thoughts and opinions in a meaningful and logical sequence (Nunan, 2003).

2.40. Some Reason for Teaching Speaking

-Speaking is distinguished as a significant section in the area of second language learning and teaching.

-The proficiency of speaking ability in English is a preference for second language or foreign language learners.

-Our learners occasionally examine their achievement in language learning in order to know how much they enhanced the level of English language (Bahadorfar& Omidvar, 2014)”.

2.41. Suggestions for Teachers in Teaching Speaking

There are some suggestions for English language instructor while teaching speaking.

- Preparing a great chance for students in order to speak the second language by providing good area that includes cooperative work, true materials and knowledge.

- Attempt to bring students in speaking activities.
- Decrease the speaking time of teacher speaking tie in the class and increase the speaking time of students.

- Show affirmative signs when remarking on a student's answer.

- Express extracting questions for example: "What is the notion of …? How did you reach that result?" Just for forcing learners to speak more and more.

- Prepare suitable feedback such as presentation was best. I really acknowledged your attempts in presenting such a scorching lecture.

- Correcting learners’ pronunciation may cause distraction while speaking.

- Include activities out of classroom, discuss with family members and others.

- Move in the class due to make sure learners cooperates in group discussions.

- Preparing appropriate vocabulary prior students need in conversations.

- Determine difficulties that learners sometimes face while speaking to second language (Kayi, 2006).

2.42. Strategies for Improving Speaking Skills

Students frequently feel that speak in another language is nothing but the result of language learning, but speaking is additionally an essential part of the language learning procedure. Efficient teachers teach learners speaking approach: Using minimal answers, realizing scripts, and utilizing language to speak about language that they can use to assist themselves extend their knowledge into the language and their trust in utilizing it. These teachers help students figure out how to speak so that the students can utilize speaking to learn.
1. Using minimal responses

Language learners who need trust in their ability to contribute effectively in oral interaction regularly listen in quiet while others do the talking. One approach to motivate such learners is to start to contribute and assist them to develop a stock of minimal responses that they can use in diverse sorts of trades. Such responses might be particularly valuable for apprentices. Minimal responses are anticipated: Regularly idiomatic phrases that discussion member’s utilize shows understanding, agreement, uncertainty, and different responses to what other speaker is stating.

2. Realizing scripts

Some communications circumstances are connected with an anticipated set of spoken exchanges in a script. Greeting, apologies, compliments, welcomes, and different functions that are impacted by social and cultural norms frequently are the examples. So do the transactional trades included in exercises, for example, acquiring information and making a buy. Teachers can help students expand speaking ability by making them mindful of the scripts for diverse conditions with the goal that they can anticipate what they will hear and what they will need to say in reply.

3. Using language to speak about language

Language learners are frequently excessively humiliated or timid to tell anything when they don't comprehend another speaker or when they understand that a discussion partner has not comprehended them. Educators can aid students conquer this hesitance by assuring them that misunderstanding and the requirement for illumination can happen in any kind of interaction, whatever the participants' language skills levels. Teachers can also give students procedures and phrases to use for illumination and comprehension check. By encouraging students to utilize
illumination phrases within class when misapprehension happens and by replying positively when they do, educators can make a valid practice environment in the classroom itself. As they expand control of different clarification strategies, students will obtain confidence in their ability to deal with the different communication circumstances that they may experience outside the classroom.

2.43. The Roles of Technology in Developing Speaking Skill

Technology can empower learners and immerse them in an assortment of situations. Technology gives learners an opportunity to participate in self-directed activities, opportunities for self-paced communications, protection, and a safe environment in which mistakes get rectified and feedback is given. While technology opens the way to chances and access to individuals outside our quick social circle, the consequence of the virtual world frequently closes routes to real-world experiences. Technology has expanded the chances for long-distance communication, but in exchange diminishes our capability to convey capably in face to face experiences. The impact on students may be that, they are not realizing some crucial social skills. This especially applies to ESL/EFL students, who need face to face experiences to learn the social subtleties and implicit social principles of another culture. In fact in teaching and learning a foreign language speaking assumes a pivotal role. The most critical part of teaching speaking to foreign language learners is interaction. The educators need to make a communicative environment based on real circumstances, legitimate exercises, and comprehensive tasks that progress oral language. By utilizing this strategy, students will have the chance of speaking with one another in the target language. By teaching speaking instructors ought to enhance students’ communicative skills, in light of the fact that, just in that way, students can communicate and figure out how to adjust to social and cultural rules particular to
each communicative condition. With practicing speaking, students enhance fluency, pronunciation, and colloquialism obviously.

In accordance with Mirabela & Ariana (2012) fluency could be enhanced through discourses or presentations, bunch dialogs, role play negotiations and verbal confrontations, meetings and chatting. Pronunciation is the ability to say words appropriately with the right sounds in the right places. For instance, business students need to listen to native English businessmen and after that practice the pronunciation of particular vowels and to attempt to comprehend movement and area of mouth and tongue when making sounds. Colloquialism is an exceptionally paramount part of speaking in that poor colloquialism can make somebody very nearly difficult to get it.

2. 44. Previous Studies

2.44.1. Studies Related to CALL and Collocation

Sun, & Wang (2003) investigated on concordancers in the EFL classroom: cognitive approaches and collocation difficulty. The subject of teaching grammatical rules with either an inductive, or with a deductive approach was one of the most attractive topics among researchers and teachers along with developed much debate over the past few decades. The main aim of this article is the relative efficient of inductive and deductive approaches to learning collocations by using a concordancer. Moreover the relationship between cognitive approaches and levels of collocation complexity is analyzed. The researchers selected eighty-one second-year students from a Senior high school in Taiwan. The result revealed that the inductive group amended meaningfully better than the deductive group in the performance of collocation acquiring and simple collocations look to be more appropriate in the concordancer learning setting.
Lin & Chiu (2009) scrutinized on the impact of an online explicit lexical program on EFL vocabulary gains & listening comprehension. In accordance with Goh, (2000) vocabulary ability has been recognized as one of the most powerful predictors of EFL listening comprehension. Based upon the EFL learners self-report, the absence of listening vocabulary is recognized as a severe problem in EFL listening hardships. The aim of this study is the influence of an explicit vocabulary program on the gains of EFL lexical as well as listening abilities. Two sets of 4-week-selflearning lessons were formed (http://formoosa.fl.nthu.edu.tw/moodle2/). The experimental group with 11 EFL college freshmen was given: a weekly listening clip, and the explicit lexical lesson targeting word sounds, meanings, and collocations. The control group with 7 freshmen was given three clips per week (2 extra clips). The consequences revealed that the experiment group achieved better in the lexical and listening posttests. However, the control group did not. There was a significant correlation between the acquisitions of lexical along with listening competency.

Philip Durrant (2009) studied on investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. To date numerous scholars try to form listing of meaningful collocations for students of EAP (English for Academic Purposes). The objective of this survey is the generation of one listing of -variable academic collocations as well as investigates the scope to which it is probably to be practical for students from across a large scope of disciplines. A number of master key discovering emerges. Firstly cross-disciplinary collocations contrast in type from the collocations on which the majority of researchers have traditionally concentrated in that they are not eager to be combinations of two lexical words, however rather linking of one lexical and one grammatical word. Secondly, a large number of words that are common in academic collocations area is not found on Coxhead’s influential
Academic Word List. Thirdly, the words required of students in the arts and humanities field are particularly discrete from those of students in the other fields. Finally scholars along with teachers should take into account these learners independently.

The study of Chen (2011) included developing and evaluating a web-based collocation retrieval tool for EFL students and teachers. The development of collocational knowledge plays a significant role in learning language for nonnative speaker; notwithstanding, learners frequently face problems in producing appropriate collocations, the DDL (data-driven learning) approach motivates separate learning of collocations and permits students to use corpora along with tools to search for a proper collocations. The investigator proposed that concordancers have been one of the master key tools in the DDL approach. Nevertheless, based on the verdicts of the studies, many existing web concordancers have not been particularly helpful in retrieving collocations. In reality this survey commences a web-based collocation retrieval tool, Web Collocate, which is based on a large part of speech-tagged Gutenberg corpus. To find out if the new tool can accelerate the exploring of collocations, this tool and the Hong Kong Polytechnic web concordancer were applied by college EFL students which divided into two groups for finding suitable collocates in a translation task. The outcomes indicated that the students who used the Web Collocate tool found more proper English collocates. Additionally, 35 pre-service English teachers were asked to examine the effect of this collocation implement. EFL teachers disclosed that they could easily find appropriate English collocates with the help of Web Collocate Notwithstanding they recommended that the search preferences and the presentation of search results of this tool can facilitate collocation
teaching and learning. It looks that a more devoted collocation retrieval tool can promote collocation teaching and learning, while the role of it can be boosted.

Zaferanieh & Behrooznia (2011) scrutinized on the impacts of four collocation instructional methods: web-based concordancing vs. traditional method, explicit vs. implicit instruction. Collocation is a central component in the acquisition of a creative language system (Durrant, 2008). In point of fact collocations attracted the consideration of various researchers over the time. This paper concerned with this matter in a three dimensional way. Firstly it contrasted the competency of teaching collocations through web-based concordancing applications along with through traditional methods. Secondly it probed as well as collated the impact of implicit and explicit collocation teaching on the students’ learning. Thirdly it considered the impact of L1 (Farsi) on collocation learning; leads to cause, the effect of congruent and non-congruent collocations. Fifty-four EFL students selected for this survey. Initially scholars gave the contributors a Michigan test to choose those with the same level of proficiency. In both treatments, learners were arbitrarily classified into two groups: experimental and control. The design of study was a pre-test and a post-test in order to discover the influence of treatments. In search of attaining data, some statistical analyses (t-Tests) were conducted. The consequences disclosed that concordancing approach was tremendously effective in teaching and learning collocations, in addition the participants’ scores acquiring collocations through these techniques were better than learners’ scores in traditional method; additionally learners’ performance in the group acquiring explicit instruction of collocations was significantly greater than those getting implicit instruction through more exposure.

Pirmoradian & Tabatabaei (2012) worked on the enhancement of lexical collocation learning through concordancing: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners. In
second language learning collocation take in to account as one of the complicated areas as well as it appears that whether a learner wants to elevate his/her communication in second language the collocational proficiency should be amended. The intention of this paper was to investigate the impact of Collins Collocation Dictionary as a concordancing tool on learning lexical collocations. Thirty students selected for this survey and divided into experimental and control group. A pretest was taken from both groups simultaneously. In the preceding week the researchers gave concordancing practice to the students in the experimental group besides they were demanded to exercise with 10 lexical collocations along with realized (mis)collocations. The scholars gave some text to control group and they were appealed to observe the lexical collocations. Subsequently posttest1 was given to the participants in both groups. The outcomes revealed that the experimental groups operated so much better on lexical collocations than the control group.

The studies of Sun & Wang (2003), Harper & Tillett, (2007), Lin, & Chiu (2009), Chen (2011), Zaferanieh, & Behrooznia (2011); Pirmoradian, & Tabatabaei (2012), Philip Durrant (2009) concentrated on the enhancement of learning collocation and vocabulary through CALL. Numerous scholars are eager in utilizing computers for teaching and learning. In this reason a great number of studies were administered on using CALL (computer assisted language learning), web-based, online dictionaries and concordancers for teaching English. In fact the development of technology has a great effect on second language learning.

2.44.2. Studies Related to Collocation and Writing

Ghonsooly & Pishghadam (2008) studied on the impact of collocational instruction on the writing skill of Iranian EFL learners. Numerous applied linguists have
accentuated the significance of attracting EFL/ESL learner’s concentration to standardized multiword declarations like: collocations and idioms. The purpose of the scholar was that examining collocational instruction, on students writing through qualitative and quantitative methods: product phase and process phase. 30 students participated in this survey that divided into two groups: 13 contributors in control and 17 contributors in experimental group group. Treatment was administered on experimental group that include: 21 teaching sessions (audio, video and textual input). The scholars taught word combinations, collocations through different techniques to the experimental group while they taught conventional slot and filler approach. The outcomes of statistical analysis revealed that process phase; experimental group got better results in collocation achievement test and writing as well as at the process phase, statistical analysis showed that vocabulary and accuracy noticeable promotion each writing.

Oskuee, Pustchi & Salehpour (2012) worked on the effect of pre-teaching vocabulary and collocation on the writing development of advanced students. As a matter of fact pre-teaching vocabulary and collocations plays a significant role on ameliorating writing task. Researchers stated that second language learners are able to expand their writing by instruction, feedback and practice. For this research scholars selected 40 advanced students who study in Goldis institute. They divided student into two groups: control and experimental group. For homogenizing students scholars administered pretest in both groups. Treatment was done on experimental group that include: 20 sessions instructions and 5 writing test at regular time. After treatment scholars realized that experimental group students acted very better than control group who utilized traditional methods. To conclude statistical analysis
revealed that there was a significant contrast between the results of writing in both groups.

Bahardoust (2012) studied on lexical collocations in writing production of EFL learners. As a prominent area of language instructing, it is obvious that the lexical approach has attracted numerous attention of linguists and educators in recent years which accentuated on expanding EFL/ESL learners proficiency with lexis, chunks and word combination. The aim of this research was twofold: 1) assessing the rate of lexical collocation in Iranian EFL learners writing across first language and second language. 2) examining the impact of first language on second language collocational use in the learners writing. 200 students at BA level participated in this study. Students passed paragraph writing along with essay writing courses in two consecutive educational years. For examining research questions mid-term, final exam, and assignments were evaluated. The scholars used chi-squire test for analysis data. The rate of lexical collocations was calculated as well as different categories of lexical collocation were contrasted in order to their frequencies in EFL writing. Students used verb+noun and adj+noun much more than other categories, along with student use noun+verb very few in their writing. Furthermore frequency and rate of collocational use were compared that revealed first language collocations were at higher frequency and rate.

Eidian, Gorjian, & Aghvami (2013) worked on the impact of lexical collocation instruction on developing writing skill among Iranian EFL learners. The aim of scholars in this study was that to measure the impact of lexical collocation instruction on pre intermediate Iranian language learners writing proficiency. 50 male and female students from Azad University contributed in this survey. Proficiency test was done for homogenizing students. Then students randomly classified into two groups:
experimental and control group. The purpose of this study was to measure up the impact of lexical collocation instruction on pre intermediate Iranian language learners' writing proficiency. For the purpose of this study, 50 male and female were selected through non-random convenient sampling procedure. The results of the proficiency test underlined the homogeneity of the groups. The principal of teaching in control group was based on conventional method. The principal of the treatment include: 1) pretest and post test on a lexical collocation test 2) pretest was done before treatment for group’s homogeneity on lexical knowledge in writing paragraphs. 3) Lexical collocation instruction in writing one paragraph essays. 4) Writing one paragraph essay for five topics. After administrating post test scholars utilized statistical analysis of Independent Samples t-test. The consequences showed that there was a significant difference after treatment between the mean scores of control group and experimental group.

The surveys of Ghonsooly & Pishghadam (2008), Oskuee, Pustchi, S., & Salehpour (2012), Bahardoust, M. (2012), Eidian, Gorjian, & Aghvami, (2013) focused on ameliorating writing ability by using collocations. In these studies students first acquire collocations then the teacher asked them to write an essay or a paragraph. Indeed students are able to amend their mistakes and gradually make better their writing style by applying collocation. As a matter of fact collocation is a pervasive feature of a language and plays a crucial role in learning a language.

2.44.3. Studies Related to Collocation and Speaking

Sung (2003) investigated English lexical collocations and their relation to spoken fluency of adult non-native speakers. Collocations as kind of prefabricated parts are exceedingly significant for teachers as well as learners to be pondered seriously in the procedure of language learning. A total of 72 non-native English speakers and 24
native English speakers participated in this study. The outcomes demonstrated that there was a significant correlation between the knowledge of lexical collocations and speaking proficiency.

**Hsu & Chiu (2008)** worked on the knowledge and use of lexical collocations and their relation to the speaking proficiency of Taiwanese EFL college learners. The scholars gathered data from 56 students. Each student participated in three tests that include: 1) lexical collocation test in order to measure the subjects knowledge of lexical collocations; 2) English speaking test for the purpose of gathering the subjects use of lexical collocations and estimate speaking proficiency; 3) Phone Pass spoken English test, as a kind of standardized oral test, that integrated with the speaking test to evaluate the students’ speaking proficiency was administered. Significant correlation was so obvious between knowledge of lexical collocations and their speaking proficiency. Be that as it may, no significant correlation existed between the subjects' utilization of lexical collocations and their speaking proficiency.

**Ganji & Beikian (2013)** scrutinized on knowledge of lexical collocations: Its relationship with speaking and writing proficiency. A great number of EFL/ESL learners accept that one of the real issues of acquiring a language is to utilize Proper word chunks. What’s more, numerous EFL/ESL educators have perceived that their students do have issues with producing like a native speaker expression or a part of writing. The aim of this study was that to realize whether there is any relationship between the collocational knowledge and students writing and speaking abilities. 43 students participated in this survey. Scholars administered three tests which encompass: 1) a kind of fill in the blank test of collocation in order to measure lexical collocational knowledge. 2) one week later speaking test 3) in three continuous weeks writing three essays on different topic .Analysis (Pearson Product-Moment
Correlation) showed that there was a meaningful correlation between writing and speaking test but significant correlation was not seen between speaking and the scores of collocational test.

**Attar & Allami (2013)** studied on the effect of teaching lexical collocations on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. Utilizing collocations precisely is fundamental in order to create language with native-like precision or close native competency. Despite that, even advanced ESL/EFL learners experience difficulty with collocations. The purpose of this survey was:

Firstly, examining the impact of teaching collocations on the speaking ability.

Secondly, inspecting the relationship between the students’ collocational knowledge and their collocational use.

Thirdly, researching about the students’ attitude towards teaching collocations.

Quick Placement Test (QPT) was taken from students in order to assess English language proficiency. 80 students participated in this test but 40 students were chosen for treatment. Students divided into two groups: experimental and control group. In both group collocation test and interview were administered for pretest and post test, as well as the scholars used collocation in use book for teaching to the experimental group. The consequences indicated that students speaking ability in the experimental group increased in post test along with students performance in interview improved. Additionally students had positive attitudes regarding explicit instruction of collocations.

proficiency. Recent studies showed that collocation has a great impact on improving speaking ability. A lot of non-native speaker suffer from lack of ability to speak fluently and accurately. By applying these methods which introduced by scholars non-native speakers be able to increase their speaking ability. Generally, the students have a right to be aware of collocations and their patterns, as well as awareness rising of collocation turns to be crucial for having a good mastery of English.

2.44.4. Studies Related to Collocational knowledge

Zhang (1993) is known as a pioneer scholar that explores correlation between collocational knowledge and writing ability. The area of his study include: examining and describing possible correlation between knowledge and use of collocations and the level of college freshmen writing. At a medium size state funded university in Pennsylvania, in the United States, the 60 college freshmen in his study were arranged into two groups: 30 native and 30 non-native speakers of English. Inside each group, two subgroups, i.e., Good writers and Poor writers, were set based on writing test. Each one subject finished one fill-in-the-blank collocation test and one writing assignment. The collocation test was utilized to measure the subjects' collocational knowledge; the writing task was utilized to obtain the subjects' use of collocations and writing proficiency. In this examination, Zhang realized that (1) native English writers performed significantly better than non-poor writers; (2) concerning the utilization of collocations in their written work, native writers surpassed the non-local writers, and Good writers inside either gathering surpassed Poor writers; (3) as far as writing performance, a meaningful contrast was discovered between non-native good and poor writers. Zhang reached two inferences based on the survey finding. Collocational knowledge is a source of proficiency in writing among college freshmen. In addition, quantity, yet more essential, quality for utilization of
collocations recognize native and non-native college freshman writing and additionally between good and poor college freshman writing.

After Zhang, Al-Zahrani (1998) scrutinized the knowledge of English lexical collocations among male Saudi college students majoring in English at a Saudi university. The scholar selected four groups of Saudi EFL students that comprise: freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior. The purpose of this survey was the contrasts in the knowledge of English lexical collocations among four groups of Saudi EFL students along with the relationship between knowledge of collocations and the students' general language proficiency. The collocational knowledge of participants was estimated by a cloze test, consisted of 50 “verb+noun” lexical collocations. Moreover, the participants’ general English proficiency was measured by a writing test and a paper-and-pencil TOEFL test. Outcomes indicated that there was a significant contrast in subjects’ knowledge of lexical collocations among four academic years, besides the knowledge of lexical collocations elevates with the subjects’ academic years. At last he stated that there was a strong correlation between the subjects’ knowledge of collocations and their overall language proficiency.

Balcı & Çakir (2011) inquired on teaching vocabulary through collocations in EFL Classes in Turkey. Nowadays it’s widely accepted that vocabulary learning is one of the essential elements both of acquisition of one’s native language and of learning a foreign language (Morra and Camba 2009). In reality learning vocabulary is identified as a master key to attain a high level of competence in the second language by a great number of theorists. The objective of this survey was to discover the impact of a comparatively new vocabulary teaching method. The scholars selected 59 seventh degree students from two classrooms in Konya, Turkey. The experimental group was trained in new words through collocation technique; the control group was instructed
with new words through classical techniques for instance: synonym, antonym, definition. The statistical analysis disclosed that teaching vocabulary through collocations was worthier than teaching them through classical method. The scholars found that teaching vocabulary through collocation as a successful factor for students in primary school EFL classes.

Nasri, Dabbaghi, & Kassaeian (2013) scrutinized on the effect of task type on learning English collocations. The background on collocations indicates harmony among scholars along with language teaching as to the prominence of collocation for second language learning. It has been recommended that an extension of the students knowledge of collocation will elevates their oral skills, listening comprehension as well as reading skills. The intention of this survey is to explore the influence of two kinds of tasks; namely, receptive and productive, on acquiring collocations. The researchers chose sixty advanced EFL students and divided them into two groups. One group was given a receptive task while in the second group productive tasks were performed. The consequences disclosed that even though both tasks caused significant acquires in the receptive tests, the productive task group meaningfully performed on the productive tests. The observation is pedagogically beneficial for EFL teachers, as they proposed the application of productive tasks for teaching collocations.

The studies of Zhang (1993), Al-Zahrani (1998), Balcı & Çakir (2011), Nasri, Dabbaghi, & Kassaeian (2013) concentrated on collocational knowledge. So many Scholars believed that collocational knowledge is a key factor for making better English language. Consequently teachers and educators should modify their syllabuses to raise the instructing of collocations along with propose the notion of collocation into classroom activity. Scholars identified three main sources for instructing and acquiring collocation; textbooks, dictionaries and corpora.