

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides general information about the idea of the proposed topic. The information is about background of the study, research question, purpose of the study, limitation of the study, and significance of the study.

1.1 Background of the study

The term “collocation” has become the center of interest since Michael Lewis published *The Lexical Approach* in 1993 as the alternative of grammar-based approach. J.R Firth (in Lewis 2000: 48) defined collocation as the way words combine in predictable ways which is recognized as one of the ways that differentiate native speaker and non-native speakers. Lexical collocation itself is a type of the two well-known collocation types besides grammatical collocation. When a non-native speaker wants to help someone he/she will say, “Can I help you?” while a native speaker might say, “Can I give you a hand?” What’s the difference between “wound” and “injury”? Why is the opposite of “heavy cold” “slight cold”, not “light cold”? And if we can say “an open-air restaurant”, why can’t then “a fresh-air restaurant”? (Lewis 2000: 13,37,49). The reason behind these all is collocation. Lewis pointed out that knowing the meaning of a word doesn’t merely know its dictionary definition

but wider than that, one should also master the type of its collocational range and restrictions on that range (2002: 119) as along with the knowledge of orthographical and phonological form, grammatical behavior, associations, frequency and register, it constructs a complete mastery of word (Nation and Richards in Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997: 4).

For the native speakers, knowledge of acceptable and unacceptable collocations is largely instinctive. They acquire it from many years of habitual use of English language in their life. It is believed that automation of collocations help them to communicate effectively and express an idea with a precise lexical phrase and correspondingly little grammar (Lewis, 2000: 16, 74). Unlike native speakers, foreign language learners lack of this automation. As the result, they may make errors when producing utterances and possibly create longer grammatical words to express the idea which can lead to greater chance of grammatical error. For example, the learner who doesn't know the natural collocation *set yourself a realistic objective* is forced to construct something like: *You must know what you want to do but it must not be too much for it to be possible for you to do*. From this case, it can be seen that collocation is one of the important aspects in English teaching and learning especially English vocabulary teaching and learning that necessarily need to be focused on in order to achieve native-like competence and fluency.

As mentioned before, collocation teaching is crucial for foreign English learner. Yet, due to the limited time available and the big amount of another language items to be taught and learned the teaching and learning of

vocabulary and its item such as collocation above elementary levels like in universities is mostly incidental, limited to exposing new items as they appear during lecture, in reading or sometimes listening texts. If so, collocation then is acquired by learners from their learning experience. Concerning to this issue, Mackin (in Bahn 1993: 56) said when teachers bring a selection of collocation to their class, it shorten the long and the laborious process of acquiring collocational competence through years of study, reading, and observation of the language. Implicitly, here he proposed three different ways of acquiring collocational competence. They are years of study, reading, and observation of the language.

In *Buku Pedoman Akademik* (2010: 172-173) it is mentioned that one of the goals of the English Department of Jakarta State University is to produce students with both oral and written communicative competence in English, the graduates should master a variety of discourse by doing various activities in English and have a broad and deep understanding of the processes of effective communication in that language. However, as a matter of fact, Pardede (2011) in her thesis entitled *The Profile of English Department Students' Speaking Skills of State University of Jakarta* found that in terms of the lexical source, their speaking skill is not really satisfying. Most of them can only convey basic meaning, make frequent errors in word choice, and use long words without really knowing what they mean. It is assumed then, the last point of her finding indicates that there might be a correlation between the result of the research and the students' collocational competence.

The information and fact above become a reason for the writer to conduct a study in collocation field to investigate how far the students master the lexical and grammatical collocation through years of their study in the English Department of State University of Jakarta in order to get more detail and obvious view on what the previous researcher found.

1.2 Research Question

Based on the background above, the writer is interested to find out the answer for the following questions:

1. How is the lexical and grammatical collocational competence of the third year students of ED UNJ?
2. Which type of collocations that the students mostly get difficulties with?

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the collocational competence of the ED UNJ third year students and to identify which type of collocations that the students mostly get difficulties with.

1.4 Limitation of the Study

Considering the capability of the researcher and the effective time to cope with the large number types of lexical and grammatical collocation exists, the researcher focused only on several types of them. In addition, this study has some weaknesses which later can be anticipated by the next

researchers who are willing to conduct the study in the same field. First, this study merely picked up the items of the test without considering students' familiarity with the words being tested. Second, while this study revealed some plausible factors causing students' deficient competence in collocation, it did not investigate thoroughly which factor corresponded to which collocation error and which factor mostly and least dominate the cause of errors. Third, the findings of this study are limited to what are shown by the result of collocational test as there was no follow-up investigation using an interview or observation.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The result of this study is expected to be an additional collection of research in language teaching and learning, especially in vocabulary teaching. It is also hoped that this study can provide groundwork information to other researchers who are interested to conduct some related researches in deeper, further, and better method. For students, the result of this study is expected to give them a valuable input about their collocational competence. The students would have better understanding of the importance of collocation thus pay more attention to it in the process of learning English as a foreign language. For the English Department, this study might become a consideration in their future planning in teaching English as well as give information about their students' competence in order to improve the competence.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses related theories and terminologies concerning to the topic of the research proposed, they are: collocation, collocational competence, learners' problem with collocation, testing breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge, approaches in testing collocational competence, and ED UNJ third year students.

2.1 Collocations

The word 'collocation' has its origin in the Latin verb 'collocare' which means 'to set in order/to arrange (in Martyńska, 2004: 2). Lewis defined collocations as "the way in which words co-occur in natural text in statistically significant ways" (2000: 132). For Firth (in Lewis 2000: 48), collocations are defined as "the way words combine in predictable ways". Likewise, Hill (2000: 51) described collocations as "a predictable combination of words: *get lost, make up for lost time, speak your mind.*" It is said predictable because when someone hear the word "commit" automatically (s)he may predict the next word to come should be "suicide" or when hearing the word "shrug", the first words which across in someone's mind might be "your shoulder". While for Nation (in Said and Setiarini, 2009: 175) collocation is a term employed to refer to "a group of words that belong together". In brief, above all of the definition proposed by some

researchers, it can be concluded that collocation is the way one word frequently or always comes together with another word(s) for no specific reason.

2.1.1 Types of Collocation

Generally, there are four major collocation categories. According to Lewis (2000: 133-134) if collocations are believed as the way words occur together, this definition is very wide and will cover many different kinds of item. He argued all of the following are collocation in the sense that these groups of words are regularly found together. They are: 1) *a difficult decision* (adjective + noun), 2) *submit a report* (verb + noun), 3) *radio station* (noun + noun), 4) *examine thoroughly* (verb + adverb), 5) *extremely inconvenient* (adverb + adjective), 6) *revise the original plan* (verb + adjective + noun), 7) *the fog closed in* (noun + verb), 8) *to put it another way* (discourse marker), 9) *a few years ago* (multi-word prepositional phrase), 10) *turn in* (phrasal verb), 11) *aware of* (adjective + preposition), 12) *fire escape* (compound noun), 13) *backwards and forwards* (binomial), 14) *hook, line, and sinker* (trinominal), 15) *on the other hand* (fixed phrase), 16) *A sort of....* (incomplete fixed phrase), 17) *Not half!* (fixed expression), 18) *See you later/tomorrow/on Monday.* (semi-fixed expression), 18) *Too many cooks....* (part of proverb), and 19) *To be or not to be....* (part of quotation). He added, from the perspective of language teaching, many of these types of multi-word item are well-known and have formed a regular part of classroom teaching materials. So, it can be seen that collocation is divided into

twenty groups of words where every single group comprises word items which often co-occur together to produce certain unified meaning.

In contrast, some researchers simply distinguished between lexical collocation and grammatical collocation as another collocation category. Sinclair, Jones, and Daley (in Said and Setiarini, 2009: 176) pointed out that lexical items are words belonging to open classes such as noun, verbs, and adjectives. Therefore, lexical collocation is composed of two equal lexical components (open class words), whereas grammatical collocation consists of a lexical word (noun, verbs, and adjective) and a grammatical word, or in other words, grammatical collocation is formed by one open class word and one closed class word. In addition, Bahn (1993: 57) wrote *account for*, *advantage over*, *adjacent to*, *by accident*, and *to be afraid that* as the examples of grammatical collocation which he claimed consists of a noun, an adjective, or a verb, plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause. On the contrary, unlike grammatical collocation, lexical collocation does not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses but consists of various combinations of noun, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Lewis (2000: 51) gave word combinations like *a huge profit*, *a pocket calculator*, *half understand*, and *completely soaked* to be considered as the examples of lexical collocation. He also added, sometimes collocation can be much longer than what has been mentioned above. For instance, the combination of adverb + verb + article + adjective + noun + preposition + noun = *seriously affect the political situation in Bosnia*. Related to this exception, he commented

“the term collocation should help bring all these chunks of language to students’ attention as single choices.

The third category is promoted by EnglishClub.com (2011) as cited in <http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/collocations-advanced.htm> that broke collocations into two major parts: strong and weak collocation. It is said that in an in-depth sight, actually the words not only “go together” but there is a degree of predictability in their association. Naturally, in any collocation, one word will “call up” another word in the mind of a native speaker. Therefore, when someone hear a word, (s)he can predict the other word, with varying degrees of success. This predictability is not 100%, but it is much higher than with non-collocates. The predictability may be strong: for example "auspicious" collocates with very few words, as in: auspicious occasion, auspicious moment, and auspicious event. Or the predictability may be weak: for instance, "circuit" collocates with many words, as in:

Table 2.1 List of words which the word “circuit” collocates with.

Circuit collocates left with....	Circuit	Circuit collocates right with....
racing	Circuit	
lecture	Circuit	
talk-show	Circuit	
short	Circuit	
closed	Circuit	
integrated	Circuit	
printed	Circuit	
printed	Circuit	Board
	Circuit	Board
	Circuit	Breaker
	Circuit	Training

	Circuit	Judge
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Further from the three previous collocation categories, Howarth (in Keshavarz, 2007: 84-85) developed his own category of collocation by classifying it into: free combinations, restricted collocations, figurative idioms, and pure idioms. Free combinations derive its meaning from composing the literal meaning of individual elements, and its constituents are freely substitutable. A restricted collocation is more limited and usually has one component that is used in a specialized context. While for idioms Howarth further divided them into figurative idiom and pure idiom. Figurative idioms have a metaphorical meaning as a whole that can somehow be derived from its literal interpretation. In contrast, a pure idiom has a unitary meaning which is completely unpredictable from the meaning of its components.

2.1.1.1 Lexical Collocation

As mentioned before, Lexical collocation consists of various combinations of noun, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs. Different writers have their own particular version of its categorization. Benson, Benson, and Ilson in Bahn (1993: 57) proposed several kinds of lexical collocations are: 1) verb + noun (*inflict a wound, withdraw an offer*), 2) adjective + noun (*a crushing defeat*), 3) noun + verb (*blizzards rage*), 4) noun1 + noun2 (*a pride of lions*), 5) adverb + adjective (*deeply absorbed*), and 6) verb + adverb (*appreciate sincerely*). Here, it is clearly seen that lexical collocations comprises one verb, noun, adjective, or adverb as

well as another one word comes from the same type but mostly from the different type of words under the scope of the open classes. Additionally, on the basis of Howarth' collocation classification, along with grammatical collocation, lexical collocation is further categorized into free combinations, restricted collocations, figurative idioms, and pure idioms. For verb + noun combination the verb “*blow*” can collocates with certain noun and yield a collocation ranging from free combination to pure idiom. The table below is provided to give a clear view on this idea.

Table 2.2 Collocation as categorized by Howarth

	Lexical composites	Grammatical Composites
	verb + noun	preposition + noun
Free combinations	blow a trumpet	(the ball rolled) under the table
Restricted collocation	blow a fuse	Under attack
Figurative idioms	blow your own trumpet	Under the microscope
Pure idioms	blow the gaff	Under the weather

In accordance with Sinclair, Jones, and Daley (2009), Bahn (1993), and Benson, Benson, and Ison in Bahn (1993) English.Com (2011) also defined lexical collocation as a type of construction where a verb, noun, adjective, or adverb forms a predictable connection with another word. Its lexical collocation category covers four types only. They are: 1) adverb + adjective: completely satisfied (NOT ~~downright~~ satisfied), 2) adjective + noun: excruciating pain (NOT excruciating joy), 3) noun + verb: lions roar (NOT lions ~~shout~~), and 4) verb + noun: commit suicide (NOT ~~undertake~~ suicide).

Among those three divisions of lexical collocation categorization, the writer will use the categorization proposed by Benson, Benson, and Ilson in Bahn (1993) in conducting this study.

2.1.1.2 Grammatical collocation

Supporting Bahn's (1993: 57) grammatical collocation categorization which he claimed consists of a noun, an adjective, or a verb, plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause, Benson, Benson, and Ilson as written in *The BBI combinatory dictionary of English* (in Said and Setiarini, 2009: 175) proposed eight categories of grammatical collocation: 1) noun + preposition, 2) noun followed by to + infinitive, 3) nouns + that clause, 4) preposition + noun, 5) adjective + preposition, 6) predicate adjectives and a following to + infinitive, 7) adjectives + that clause, 8) the nineteen English verb patterns.

However, only two grammatical collocation categories were involved in this study, they were noun + preposition such as *blockade against*, *apathy against*, and preposition + noun category like *by accident*, *in advance*, *to somebody's advantage*, *in agony*.

2.1.2 The Importance of Collocation

Collocation is crucial from a pedagogical point of view for many reasons. Hill (2000: 53-56) suggested nine reasons which are important for language teachers. Five among them are discussed in the following paragraphs.

First, people do not speak or write as if language were one huge substitution table with vocabulary items merely filling slots in grammatical structure. To some extent vocabulary choice is predictable. For example, when a speaker thinks of drinking, he may associate it with a common verb like *have*. The listener's expectations predict a large number of possibilities: *mineral water, tea, coffee, milk, orange juice*, even *wine*, but there would be no expectations of *shampoo, engine oil, or sulphuric acid*. Linguistically, the latter liquids are not 'probable' in the way that the former are. They are drunk by accident. As the comparison, the verb *enhance*, the possible objects are limited to a relatively small number of noun or noun pattern, such as *his reputation, the standing of the company*. If the verb is *do*, the choice of objects is greater yet still restricted such as *his best, the honorable thing*, but not *a mistake*. Therefore, Hill said that the definition of collocation as the way words combine can't be denied.

Second, language teachers may not underestimate the role of memory in language learning as native speakers acquire collocation from a huge store of memorized text ranging from poetry, addresses, proverbs, idioms, sayings, clichés, to catchphrase, advertising slogans and jokes. They then retrieve them from their mental lexicon when required. The implication is that the most crucial

element in a learner's acquisition of a lexical item is the number of times it is heard or read in a context where it is at least partially understood. Therefore, what the language learners are exposed to from the earliest stages is important. Good quality input should lead to good quality retrieval.

Third, one of the main reasons the learners find reading or listening difficult is not because of the density of new words, but the density of unrecognized collocations. Native speakers have met far more English and so can recognize and produce the 'ready-made chunks', which enable them to process and produce language at a faster rate than non-native speakers.

Fourth, simple language is ideal for the expression of simple ideas. With the same way of thinking, complex language is ideal for the expression of complex ideas. However, complex ideas are difficult to express in complex language, they are even more difficult to express in simple language. But what is meant by complexity needed here is not complicated grammar, it is lexical-complex noun phrases commonly made of supposedly easy words. When students get more exposure to good quality input and they develop the awareness of the lexical nature of language, they will recognize more and eventually be able to produce longer chunks themselves.

Fifth, the reason why people can think new things and speak at the speed of thoughts is because collocation allows them to name complex ideas quickly so that they can continue to manipulate the ideas without making big effort to think about the word form.

2.2 Collocational Competence

The term collocational competence was coined by Hill (in Lewis) who said “we are familiar with the concept of communicative competence, but we need to add the concept of collocational competence to our thinking” (2000: 49). Specifically, Lewis (2000: 177) defined collocational competence as the ability to produce fluent, accurate, and stylistically appropriate language. Having this kind of competences, students can communicate anything they wish without communicating things they do not intend. While according to Partington (in Yunus 2011: 155-156) collocational competence is “the knowledge of what is normal collocation in a particular environment”. Students who are competent in collocation are regarded as those who have achieved an advance level of English fluency or communicative competence (Hill in Lewis, 2000: 47- 70). Collocation knowledge becomes the determinant factor for students’ success in their academic and professional careers (Howart in Yunus, 2011: 155).

From the explanation about collocational competence above and the definition of lexical and grammatical collocation in the previous part of this paper, it can be inferred that what is meant by collocational competence in this study is the knowledge of the combination of verb, noun, and adjective, and the combination of verb, noun, and adjective plus a preposition to produce appropriate language in a certain context or environment.

2.3 Learners' problem with collocation

Although the term collocation might be new to some students and teachers, Hill (in Lewis) underlined that the problem of collocational error is as old as language learning itself. Furthermore, he added, any analysis of students' productive skill shows a lack of collocational competence. Lack of this competence leads students into grammatical mistake because they are forced to create longer utterances since they do not know the collocations which precisely express what they want to communicate (2000: 49). As an example, a student could easily invent the inefficient *a new book which is very similar to the old one but improved and up-to-date* because (s)he lacks collocation *revised edition*.

In addition, a study of Chinese college freshmen's collocational competence conducted by Liu in 1999 (as cited in Chia-Chuan, 2005: 24-26) revealed that the EFL students had difficulties in producing acceptable collocation. He further summarized that the causes of producing unacceptable English collocation were as follows: 1) Overgeneralization: is the creation of deviant structure in place of two regular structures on the basis of students' experience of the target language. For example: the students would use *I am worried about* instead of *I am worried* and *I worry about* since they were unable to distinguish the two clearly. 2) Ignorance of rule restriction: is the result of analogy and failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures. For example: *ask you a favor* is a false analogy of the construction of verb + object + object. 3) False concept hypothesized: result from students' faulty comprehension of

distinctions in the target language. For instance: *do something breakthrough* instead of *achieve a breakthrough*. 4) The use of synonym, for example: *broaden your eyesight* instead of *broaden your vision*. 5) Interlingual transfer: students' native language influences their production on collocation, such as: *listen some classical music*. It is not an acceptable collocation in English since it is an intransitive verb which cannot be directly followed by a noun, but many Chinese college students produced that error as this rule doesn't exist in Chinese.

Items one to four are categorized as errors resulting from intralingual transfer, along with interlingual transfer they are considered as errors caused by cognitive strategies. The next source of errors comes from communication strategies: word coinage and approximation. 6) Word coinage: a type of paraphrase to make up a new word to communicate the desired concept that they don't know exactly how to say it in English. For example: *see sun-up* instead of *see the sunrise*. 7) Approximation: is the use of incorrect vocabulary item or structure which share similar semantic features with the desired item. For instance: *middle exam* instead of *mid-term exam*. Word coinage and approximation are included as errors resulting from paraphrase. Moreover, the lack of cultural knowledge was also found as one of the sources of collocational competence deficiency. Shokouhi and Mirsalari (2010: 12) argued that cultural knowledge has an impact on collocational knowledge. A failure in understanding certain cultural stereotypes can result in the poor collocational competence.

2.4 Testing breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge

Being one of the parts of vocabulary, testing collocation is more or less similar to testing collocation. Generally, there are two areas of interest in vocabulary testing as proposed by Schmitt and McCarthy (1997: 311): estimating vocabulary size (*breadth* of vocabulary knowledge) and assessing quality of word knowledge (*depth* of vocabulary knowledge). The former test involves estimating the amount of words known by particular groups of language users as well as by individual learners whereas the latter test measuring how well particular words are known. In order to design such test, it is necessary then to have concepts of the scope of vocabulary knowledge. Regarding this, Richards (1976) (in Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997: 315) specified multiple dimensions of word knowledge. It includes knowledge of the relative frequency of a word, its syntactic properties, its underlying form and derivatives, its network of associations with other words (collocation), and its connotations. According to this division, testing collocational competence is regarded as testing depth of vocabulary knowledge.

2.5 Approaches in testing collocational competence

Information on the collocational competence of English learners can be taken from various sources. Lesniewska (2006: 95) mentioned several ways of directly investigating the use of collocation by learners. Data on how they use collocation can be obtained by analyzing their production of language, either written or spoken. In comprehensive measure, particular samples of English writing or speech are analyzed with respect to all the collocations which occur in

the available texts. Another method is to use corpora of English writing, which enables the researcher to analyze only specific, pre-selected collocations as they occur in a range of texts. By having concordances for the investigative items, the collocational patterns of L2 texts can be compared to those in texts produced by native speakers. Another possibility is to elicit the collocational decisions (accuracy in the uses of collocation) of learners for specific test items where pre-selected group of collocations is the focus of the study. This can be done in the form of open elicitation procedures such as gap-filling tasks, or in the form of closed tasks (multiple choice). Besides, other testing techniques can be used as indirect measure of collocation knowledge. For example, psycholinguistic tests based on word association patterns could be use to indirectly investigate the learner's structure of mental lexicon with respect to collocational links.

2.6 ED UNJ third year students

These students were in the 6th semester which was normally the last semester they had intensive lecturing in class to finish the semester credits. Their age ranging from 19-21years old and have been learning English for about nine to twelve years since they were in elementary school. Apart from the question when each student began his/her first time learning English, in ED UNJ they spent equal period of time learning this foreign language: three years or six semesters. It was assumed that during their years of study they had acquired the collocational competence and this acquisition might be better compared to the first and second year students. As the non-native advance learners, despite their ability to

communicate well and having learnt all the basic structures of the language, Moras (2011: 1) pointed that they still need to broaden their vocabulary to express themselves more clearly and appropriately in a wide range of situations. They might even have a receptive knowledge of a wider range of vocabulary, which means they can recognize the item and its meaning. Nevertheless, their productive use of a wide range of vocabulary is normally limited. This study is concerned about students' production of appropriate word especially word combination in several contexts.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides general information about the context of the study, the research method, the place and time, data and data source, the instrument, the pilot study, the participant, data collection procedure, and data analysis of the study.

3.1 Context of the study

This study was related to a description of the third year students of English Department in State University of Jakarta in terms of their collocational competence. The students were assumed to acquire this competence during their years of study. For that assumption, the writer designed this study to investigate how their collocational competence is.

3.2 Method of the Study

The method of this study was survey as Babbie (1998: 51) elaborated that frequently survey are conducted for the purpose of making descriptive assertion about some population in the sense that it discover the distribution of certain attributes. In this regard, the focus of the researcher is not with why the observed distribution exists but merely with what that distribution is. Moreover, Seliger (2000: 125) emphasized that descriptive research such as survey is used to

establish the existence of phenomena by explicitly describing it, and though this kind of research may begin with a question or hypothesis, the phenomena it describes are not manipulated or artificially elicited in any way. Burns (2000: 567) proposes five main characteristics of the survey. They are:

- 1) It requires a sample of respondents to reply to a number of standard questions under comparable conditions.
- 2) It may be administered by an interviewer, by mailing the respondent a form for self-completion, or by telephone.
- 3) The respondents represent a defined population. If less than 100 per cent of the defined population is sampled then a sample survey has been conducted; a 100 per cent survey is a census.
- 4) The results of the sample survey can be generalized to the defined population.
- 5) The use of standard questions enables comparisons of individuals to be made.

Since this study was aimed at finding the representative objective fact concerning the collocational competence of the students, then the writer employed survey as the best possible method for this study.

3.3 Place and Time of the Study

This study was conducted in the English Department of Jakarta State University on May-June 2011. The test was administered to the target participants in a self-access class.

3.4 Data and Data Source

The data for this study were scores obtained from the collocation test completed by the third year students of English Department.

3.5 Instrument

The writer used test as the instrument in this study to investigate the collocational competence of the students. Seliger (2000: 127) explained that test is used in descriptive research in a variety of ways like formal language tests or test-like activities such as writing assignment or communicative activity. The test technique was gap filling as Hughes (2003: 80-81) said that gap filling item is a valuable technique which can work well in tests of vocabulary. Besides, he added (2003: 182) unlike multiple choices, gap filling is a form of production ability test rather than recognition ability test. The test comprises two parts. Part one consists of forty items investigating lexical collocation and part two consists of twenty items investigating the grammatical collocation. These 60-item gap filling test was adopted from a research developed by Hossein Shokouhi, Ph.D and Golam-Ali Mirsalari, M.A. as published in TESL electronic journal 2010 entitle Collocational Knowledge versus General Linguistic Knowledge among Iranian EFL Learners. They culled the test items from the *Oxford Collocation Dictionary*, *Collins COBUILD Dictionary*, and *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. This test, which is made up of both lexical and grammatical collocation, is divided into six parts. Each part offers ten items on these types of collocation: 1) noun+noun, 2) noun+verb, 3) verb+noun, 4) adjective+noun, 5) noun+preposition, and 6) preposition+noun. All collocations in the 60-item gap filling test was then checked by a native speaker of English to verify the correct formation of collocations.

3.6 Pilot Study

As the instrument, the test was tried out to two-three students from each class who were not the target participant of this study but had the same characteristics of the target participants to find the validity and the reliability of the instrument. There were 8 classes that participated in this pilot study with the total participants of 20 students.

3.6.1 Validity

The instrument is seen from the point of view of content validity. Hughes claimed a test is said to possess content validity when its content constitutes a representative sample of the language skills, structures, etc with which it is meant to be concerned (2003: 26). As this study was aimed at finding how the collocational competence of ED UNJ third year students and finding which types of collocation are most or least noticeable, therefore the suitable instrument is a test that investigates each type of collocations. The writer adopted the test from Hossein Shokouhi, Ph.D and Golam-Ali Mirsalari, M.A. as published in TESL electronic journal 2010. (Tmbhn dr skripsi inne lestia: Azwar (2009: 45) also explains, the answer of the question in this validity is “how far the items in the test include the whole area of the measured object”. The questionnaire employed here is involving the whole area of teacher competences, as the target area. Supported by those statements, it can be concluded that the questionnaire employs here are quite valid.)

3.6.2 Reliability

The reliability of instrument measured in this study is the internal-consistency reliability which examines the consistency of the answer to questions within a single form of survey administered on a single occasion (Brown, 2005: 173). The writer uses *KR 21 (Kuder Richardson 21)* to calculate the reliability of the test with the formulation below:

$$r_i = \frac{k}{k-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{M(k-M)}{k \cdot st^2} \right\}$$

Where:

k= the total number of items in the instrument

M= the total mean scores

$$M = \frac{\sum X_t}{n}$$

n= the number of respondents

st²= the total variants

$$st^2 = \frac{\sum X_t^2}{n}$$

$$\sum X_t^2 = \sum X_t^2 - \frac{(\sum X_t)^2}{n}$$

While it is known that M= 39.4 and st²= 56.64, the internal consistency reliability of this instrument can be calculated as follow:

$$\begin{aligned} r_i &= \frac{60}{60-1} \left\{ 1 - \frac{39.4(60-39.4)}{60(56.64)} \right\} \\ &= \frac{60}{59} \left\{ 1 - \frac{39.4(20.6)}{3398.4} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{60}{59} \left\{ 1 - \frac{811.64}{3398.4} \right\} \\
&= \frac{60}{59} \{ 1 - 0.238 \} \\
&= \frac{60}{59} \{ 0.762 \} \\
&= 0.7749
\end{aligned}$$

The calculation above shows that that r_i is included in range 0,600 – 0,800 which is considered as having high reliability. Therefore, it proves that the instrument of this study is reliable.

3.7 Participants

The participants of this study were the third year students of the English Department majoring in education and non-education program in State University of Jakarta. They were from 08 Dik A Reg, 08 Dik B Reg, 08 SA Reg, 08 SB Reg, 08 MDR DA, 08 MDR DB, 08 MDR SA, and 08 MDR SB with total 195 students. The total participants of this study were 144 students, where 124 students took part in the collocation test and 20 students were involved in the pilot study. These students were in the 6th semester which was normally the last semester they had intensive lecturing in class to finish the semester credits. It was assumed that during their years of study they had acquired the collocational competence and this acquisition might be better compared to the first and second

year students. This consideration was the basis for the writer to choose the third year students as the participants of the study.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

To answer the research questions, there were some steps designed by the writer. The first step was finding the resources related to the issue. Next, was defining and analyzing the problem with the resource. So, the writer could find the appropriate method with the hypotheses. The third step was making the instrument: questions for the test. The design of the questions test was based on Hossein Shokouhi, Ph.D and Golam-Ali Mirsalari, M.A. collocation test as published in TESL electronic journal 2010. Around end of May, the writer tried out the test to know whether the test valid and reliable or not. After the data proven valid and reliable, in early June the writer started collecting the data by testing the students. There were eight classes which participated in this study: 08 Dik A Reg, 08 Dik B Reg, 08 SA Reg, 08 SB Reg, 08 MDR DA, 08 MDR DB, 08 MDR SA, and 08 MDR SB. The students were asked to complete the test to the best of their knowledge and were told that the purpose of the test was to help them investigate their difficulties with collocation. They were given an hour to do the test and they did not have access to any reference materials. In the midst of June, all data needed were completely collected.

3.9 Data Analysis Procedure

When the test was completed, the writer calculated the total of correct answer by using an answer key which was made in reference to Oxford Collocation Dictionary and was validated by two native speakers of English. For each correct answer 1 score is given, 0 score for each wrong answer. The students' answers were counted as correct if they provided an English collocation that matched a collocation mentioned in one of the references stated above. Spelling and grammar mistakes were not counted as incorrect responses. The sum of correct answers was then divided by six since there were total sixty items in the test. After that, the data obtained was classified by the writer using rating scale to grade students' collocational competence as it was suggested by Heaton (1990: 68) that using a scale is highly recommended than using a marking scheme. Therefore, this study proposes to use a rating scale. The rating was a four-point scale which descriptions in the scale were provided in the form of percentage. Students collocational competence was considered as very good when they made 80-100 % correct answers, good as they made 70-79 % correct answers, fair if they made 50-69 % correct answers, and poor when they made less than 50 % correct answers. The description in the scale was made to suit the writer' purpose, not taken from other scales in any book. This personal design of rating scale is supported by Heaton (1990: 69) who argued that it is much better to produce our own scale instead of copying a particular scale as such a scale will be far more suitable for our own purpose. Next step, the writer presented the amount and the percentage of students whose collocational competence are considered very good,

good, fair, and poor based on the rating scale. Besides, the writer also examined which type of lexical and grammatical collocation that the students mostly get difficulties.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the previous chapters outlining the theoretical perspectives and the method of data collection, the results of this study are presented in this chapter. This chapter answers and elaborates the two research questions as previously mentioned:

1. *How is the lexical and grammatical collocational competence of the third year students of ED UNJ?*
2. *Which type of collocation that the students mostly get difficulties with?*

4.1 Students' Collocational Competence

From the total 124 test paper, the writer counted the test score from each participant and displayed the result in the frequency table as follow.

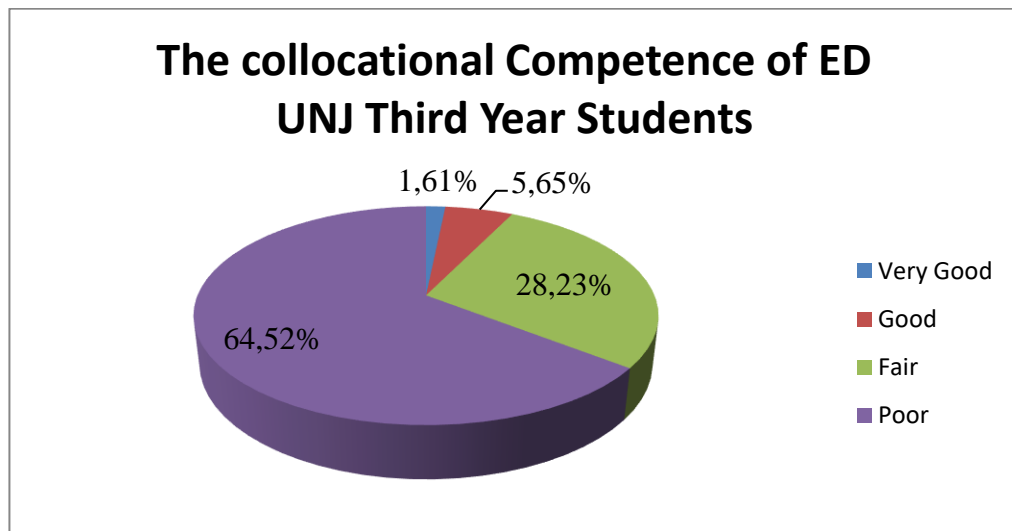
Table 4.1 The frequency table of collocation test

Score	Frequency
10	1
11.67	1
16.67	4
18.33	4
20	6
21.67	7
23.33	6
25	6
26.67	7
28.33	5
30	5
31.67	4
33.33	4
35	5
36.67	4

38.33	1
40	2
41.67	4
43.33	4
45	1
50	1
51.67	4
53.33	3
55	3
56.57	3
58.33	1
60	2
61.67	2
63.33	4
65	3
66.67	4
68.33	4
70	3
71.67	1
73.33	1
75	1
76.67	1
81.67	1
83.33	1

From table 4.1 above, it can be seen that the students' score are varied from 38.33 (six correct answers out of sixty questions) as the lowest score to 83.33 (fifty correct answers) as the highest score. As the writer classified these data based on the rating scale, it was found that among 124 test-takers, there were eighty students (64.52 %) whose collocational competence were considered poor, thirty five students (28.23 %) were considered fair, seven students (5.65 %) were considered good, and only two students (1.61 %) were considered very good. Therefore, it can be concluded from this study that the overall collocational competence of ED UNJ third year students were poor as shown in chart 4.1 below.

Chart 4.1 The collocational competence of ED UNJ third year students



Referring to the discussion of learners' problem with collocation in chapter two, it seems that the students' deficient competence in collocation is likely caused by four factors. Those four factors are: interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, paraphrase, and lack of cultural knowledge.

1. Interlingual Transfer

One probable reason for the students' lack of competence in collocation may be due to interlingual error. As discussed in literature review, an interlingual error is caused by the students' native language, in this case Indonesian language. Martelli (1998 in Shokouhi and Mirsalari, 2010: 11) believes that L1 interference accounts for misunderstanding and the occurrence of wrong collocation. He said that although there is no way of guaranteeing whether L1 influence actually occurred, similarity or approximation may be an indication of such influence. For example, for item 6 of the noun + verb collocation ("This **color** _____ so wash the shirt separately") the students wrote *spreads*, *dissolves*, and *contaminates* instead of *runs* as they probably thought that in Indonesian language the concept

of *runs* is equal to *menyebar, larut, and mengotori*. Table 4.4 shows the collocational errors found in students' test papers resulting from the interlingual factor.

Table 4.4 Collocational Errors Resulting from Interlingual Factor

Type	Learner Collocations	Target Collocation
Interlingual Factor	This <u>color spreads</u> so wash the shirt separately.	This <u>color runs</u> so was the shirt separately.
	The <u>clock</u> on the mantelpiece <u>pointed</u> twelve o'clock.	The <u>clock</u> on the mantelpiece <u>said</u> twelve o'clock.
	She <u>ate a bite</u> out the slab of cake.	She <u>took a bite</u> out the slab of cake.
	We have to <u>follow a vocabulary test</u> every Friday.	We have to <u>take a vocabulary test</u> every Friday.
	A teacher who constantly <u>cancel his/her promises</u> cannot be a reliable one.	A teacher who constantly <u>breaks his/her promises</u> cannot be a reliable one.
	The college loses a lot of money through <u>bad administration</u> .	The college loses a lot of money through <u>poor administration</u> .
	He took the next left turn as he had been told, but found himself in a <u>dead-end alley</u> .	He took the next left turn as he had been told, but found himself in a <u>blind alley</u> .
	As expected, <u>the leader of the faculty</u> rejected the proposal.	As expected, <u>the dean of the faculty</u> rejected the proposal.
	The extension will provide 600 square meters of new <u>gallery room</u> .	The extension will provide 600 square meters of new <u>gallery space</u> .
	There was enough evidence	There was enough evidence that

	that he broke the cup <u>with</u> <u>purpose.</u>	he broke the cup <u>on purpose.</u>
	Her <u>faith for</u> human nature had been badly shaken.	Her <u>faith in</u> human nature had been badly shaken.

From Table 4.4 it can be seen that the students' production of collocations seems negatively interfered by Indonesian language which is their mother tongue. However, the influence of L1 is not always negative. There could be positive transfer that helps the students make the correct combination of collocations (Shokouhi and Mirsalari, 2010: 11). In some items of the collocation test it seems that the students' L1 affected their production of collocation positively, thus prompting them to write *heavy* in sentence (2) of the adjective + noun collocation, *golden* in sentence (6) of the adjective + noun collocation, and *under* in sentence (7) of the preposition + noun collocation, which are the appropriate answers.

- 2) She is a _____ **smoker**. That's why she always stinks of smoke.
- 6) Polytechnics present _____ **opportunities** to a bright young lecturer.
- 7) If a liquid or gas is kept _____ **pressure**, it is forced into a container so that when the container is opened, the liquid or gas escape quickly.

They also added (2010: 12), positive transfer can occur when the target collocations match those of the L1, in other words, when the collocations have a direct translation equivalent in students' L1. On the contrary, negative transfer occurs when patterns in the target language do not exist in the L1, or when the patterns in the two languages are different.

2. Intralingual Transfer

Another reason responsible for learners deficient competence in collocation may be caused by intralingual error. Liu (1999 in Chia-Chuan, 2005: 24) defined an intralingual error as one which results from faulty or partial learning of the target language. The use of synonym and ignorance of rule restrictions are the examples of this type of error. She further explained that the use of synonym for an item in collocation is seen as a straightforward application of the open choice principle. Whenever students can't find a semantically appropriate counterpart of a collocation in their L1, they will tend to use its synonym to replace it. For instance, for item 7 of the noun + verb collocation (“**Complications** _____ if the drug is not used properly”) some students wrote *happen* and *appear* in place of *occur* and *arise* as both the words *happen* and *occur* have the same equivalent meaning in Indonesian language: *terjadi*. Similarly, both the words *appear* and *arise* also have the same equivalent meaning in Indonesian language: *muncul/timbul*.

The second type of intralingual error, ignorance of rule restriction is the result of analogy and failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures (Richards, 1973 in Chia-Chuan, 2005: 25). For example, for item 10 of noun + preposition collocation (“The stereophonic earphones can be used **in connection** _____ the new sound system”) several students wrote *between* instead of *with*. This error revealed that probably those students did not think about collocational restrictions. Though the noun + preposition collocation *connection between* do exist, they ignored the fact that the noun + preposition collocation written on the test paper was *in connection* not only *connection*, therefore the

correct answer for this question is not *between* but *with*. In addition, it seems that those students misuse the preposition *between* as this preposition usually followed by two different nouns (Ex: The connection between crime and alcohol) or plural form (Ex: What is the connection between the two ideas?) whereas in the question, the gap is followed by singular noun: the new sound system.

Table 4.5 below shows the collocational errors found in students' test papers resulting from the intralingual factor.

Table 4.5 Collocational Errors Resulting from Intralingual Factor

Type	Learner Collocations	Target Collocation
Intralingual Factor	After the bomb, an uneasy <u>calm stayed</u> on the city.	After the bomb, an uneasy <u>calm settled</u> on the city.
	<u>Complications happen</u> if the drug is not used properly	<u>Complications occur</u> if the drug is not used properly
	Can you <u>save an eye</u> on my car while I go in the shop?	Can you <u>keep an eye</u> on my car while I go in the shop?
	The results of the research should be used for the <u>together good</u> rather for individual profit.	The results of the research should be used for the <u>common good</u> rather for individual profit.
	He has survived several <u>assassination trials</u> .	He has survived several <u>assassination attempts</u> .
	I was aware of a real <u>generation distance</u> between us.	I was aware of a real <u>generation gap</u> between us.
	Many species are threatened in the wild due to <u>habitat destroying</u> by man.	Many species are threatened in the wild due to <u>habitat destruction</u> by man.

	The Soviet Union deployed an anti-ballistic missile system <u>on violation</u> of the 1972 treaty.	The Soviet Union deployed an anti-ballistic missile system <u>in violation</u> of the 1972 treaty.
	I had great <u>admiration with</u> her as a writer.	I had a great <u>admiration for</u> her as a writer.
	She now has <u>authority above</u> the people who used to be her bosses.	She now has <u>authority over</u> the people who used to be her bosses.
	She had a little <u>success for</u> getting new customers.	She had a little <u>success in</u> getting new customers.
	The stereophonic earphones can be used <u>in connection between</u> the new sound system.	The stereophonic earphones can be used <u>in connection with</u> the new sound system.

3. Paraphrase

Besides interlingual and intralingual factor, the use of paraphrase can also lead to poor performance in collocation test. Liu (1999 as cited in Chia-Chuan, 2005: 24) categorized paraphrase into two parts: One is word coinage, which means making up a new word to communicate the desired concept, and the other one is approximation. As there were no errors which belong to word coinage found, here the writer discussed the errors which belong to approximation. Approximation means that students use an incorrect vocabulary item or structure, which “share enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker” (Tarone, 1981 as cited in Liu, 1999: 491 as cited in Chia-Chuan, 2005: 66). While native speakers of English usually express an idea lexically by

means of collocation, non-native speakers of English such those students, not knowing the lexical item, are forced to use grammar to express the idea in a way which they have not heard in that context (Lewis, 2000: 16). For example, for item 2 of the noun + verb collocation (“The **blame** _____ the police, who failed to act quickly enough”) a number of students wrote *would be put on* in place of *lies with* as plausibly they didn’t know that the word *blame* collocates with the words *lies with*, hence, they paraphrase it with the help of their grammar knowledge. Some other collocational errors found in students’ test papers resulting from paraphrasing are shown in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.5 Collocational Errors Resulting from Paraphrase

Type	Learner Collocations	Target Collocation
Paraphrase	The <u>blame would be put on</u> the police, who failed to act quickly enough.	The blame <u>lies with</u> the police, who failed to act quickly enough.
	This <u>color is easy discolored</u> so wash the shirt separately.	This <u>color runs</u> so wash the shirt separately.
	<u>Complications will be faced if</u> the drug is not used properly.	<u>Complications occur</u> if the drug is not used properly.
	A teacher who constantly <u>can’t maintain his/her promises</u> cannot be a reliable one.	A teacher who constantly <u>breaks his/her promises</u> cannot be a reliable one.

4. Lack of Cultural Knowledge

Moreover, the lack of cultural knowledge was also found as one of the sources of collocational competence deficiency. Shokouhi and Mirsalari (2010: 12) argued that cultural knowledge has an impact on collocational knowledge. A failure in understanding certain cultural stereotypes can result in the poor collocational competence. For instance, for item 3 of noun + noun collocation (“In the US, poor people are given **food** _____ with which they get something to eat”) many students produced words such as *ticket*, *voucher*, and *coupon*, instead of its appropriate counterpart *stamp*. The word *coupon* was frequently found due to the fact that in Indonesia, *coupon* is widely used to represent almost anything that is rationed, while the word *stamp* is associated with correspondence and official approval. Being not aware of this cultural stereotype, the students made an unacceptable collocation.

4.2 Lexical Collocation versus Grammatical Collocation

To answer the second research question, the total number of correct answers in each subcategory of lexical and grammatical collocation was counted. After that, the writer calculated its percentage and average for comparison. The result of the calculation is shown in the following table:

Table 4.2 The percentage of correct answers per category

Type of Collocation	Subtypes	Correct Answer (%)	Total Correct	Mean (10%)
Lexical	Noun + Verb	29.44	150.65	37.66
	Verb + Noun	63.87		
	Adjective + Noun	31.13		
	Noun + Noun	26.21		
Grammatical	Preposition + Noun	46.53	93.46	46.73
	Noun + Preposition	46.93		

Table 4.2 shows that the mean percentage for grammatical collocations is 46.73 and for lexical collocations is 37.66. It indicates that the comprehension of lexical collocations proved to be more difficult than grammatical collocations. Among the four subtypes of lexical collocation, *verb + noun* appears the easiest to acquire and *noun + noun* collocations the most difficult. Based on the percentage of correct answer per category in Table 4.2, the continuum from the easiest to the most difficult ones are: *verb + noun* → *adjective + noun* → *noun + verb* → *noun + noun*. For grammatical collocation, although the test-takers' performances on the two subtypes of it is not statistically significant, *preposition + noun* appears easier for them than *noun + preposition*.

As previously mentioned, this study shows that comprehension of lexical collocations proved to be more difficult than lexical collocations. In relation to this fact, Wang and Zhou (2009: 49) argued that students' poor knowledge of lexical collocation may be partly illustrated by the fact that this type of collocation and collocations as a whole have been neglected in university classroom language instruction, thus learners are not aware of collocations as a potential problem in language learning. In addition, Shokouhi and Mirsalari (2010: 12) said that such problem arise partly because of the arbitrary and unpredictable nature of collocations. On a more idiomatic level, collocation demands that one word is used rather than another in particular contexts and this idiomaticity often challenge people's logic. For example, one can say: *keep her child* and *take care of her child*. However, one can only say *keep an eye*, not *take care of an eye* for item 3 of verb + noun collocation ("Can you _____ an **eye** on my car while I go in the shop?"). In this item, some students wrote the words like *give* and *put* which indicated that basically they could figure out the concept of this sentence is equivalent with the word *menjaga* or *mengawasi* in Indonesian language. As in their mother tongue help = give a hand (*menolong* = *mengulurkan tangan*), they probably thought this rule is applicable in all contexts, they didn't realize the restriction that in English, the word *eye* strongly collocates with the word *keep* to represent the meaning of *menjaga* or *mengawasi* in Indonesian language.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

The finding of the study reveals that the third year ED UNJ students' collocational competence is relatively poor. As the present study has shown, even the advanced university English major has considerable difficulties in coping with collocations, especially lexical collocations which were found as the more difficult type compared to grammatical collocations. This deficiency of collocational competence was caused by several factors such as interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, the use of paraphrase, and the lack of cultural knowledge. The study thus underlined what has been suggested by a number of researchers and linguists, that collocations do deserve a place in foreign language teaching.

5.2 Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study, some suggestions can be made as follows: First, collocation is one of the important parts of vocabulary, therefore particular attention need to be paid to the teaching of all types of collocation especially lexical collocations due to the students' general weakness in this type of collocation. The most useful role of lectures here is to engage in consciousness-raising in encouraging students to notice the correct use of collocations and the potential benefits of collocations in learning English, which would arouse the

students' interest and motivation to learn collocation. Second, collocations that do not have direct translational equivalence are recommended to be emphasized in the teaching of English to prevent collocational errors resulting from interlingual factor. Third, it is also recommended that the students need to be exposed to a massive amount of vocabulary and collocation through teaching materials and tasks such as workbooks and extensive reading. It is hoped that by doing so, the students will acquire collocational competence which will prevent them from producing collocational errors resulting from paraphrase, intralingual factor, and lack of cultural knowledge.