



Lexical collocations in English: a comparative study of native and non-native scholars of English

Cüneyt Demir^{a*}

^a*Siirt University, Siirt, 56100, Turkey*

APA Citation:

Demir, C. (2017). Lexical Collocations in English: A Comparative Study of Native and Non-native Scholars of English. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 13(1), 75-87.

Submission Date:10/07/2016

Acceptance Date:20/12/2016

Abstract

In the field of ELT, a growing awareness has been paid to the use of correct and appropriate word combinations. Of methods and techniques existed in the literature, the issue of lexical collocation gets a great deal of attention. However, one of the main obstacles, particularly for non-native writers (NNW), is indeterminate knowledge of word combinations. Through the acquisition of collocation, it may be possible for NNW to increase their lexical competence. The present study attempted to investigate the use of English lexical collocations in the texts written by native writers of English (NW) and non-native writers of English (NNW), and to examine whether there are any statistically significant differences between NW and NNW in terms of employing collocations in their written productions. The corpora for the current study consisted of 40 research articles (RAs) published in leading journals in ELT, 20 of which belong to native speakers of English while the rest to non-natives. Only RAs published in ELT discipline were included in the corpora because lexical collocation may show difference across disciplines. Before analysing, the data were categorized according to a taxonomy divided into seven: *verb+noun*, *verb+adj./adv.*, *noun+verb*, *noun+noun*, *adjective+noun*, *adverb+adjective*, and *adverb+verb*. To able to explore the data, Independent Samples T-test was employed. The findings yielded significant results. Further, the current study sheds light on whether to include lexical collocations for a better writing. At the end, based on the research findings, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research and collocation awareness were discussed.

© 2017JLLS and the Authors - Published by JLLS.

Keywords: Collocation; native; non-native; writers; writing

1. Introduction

Writing proficiency is an essential component of language competency as well as an aspiration of NNW. In addition to the fact that writing proficiency has an important place in every sphere of life, it is a leading ability particularly in scholarly writing. On the other hand, linguistic literature shows that there are some basic requirements in order to have writing fluency, one of which is the knowledge of collocations. There are some definite evidences that establish a link between native-like writing fluency and collocation knowledge of the author. One reason of foreignness in the scientific texts of NNW is shown as the lack of collocation knowledge, which NW could easily and intuitively acquire.

*Corresponding author. Tel.: +0-484 212-1111 / 3852
E-mail address: ardgelen@hotmail.com

Literally, collocation is a term used to address the possibility of occurrence of largely two or more words in lexical or syntactic relations. Although it sounds as if it was a recent and fashionable term to the linguistic literature, the importance of collocation for foreign language learners was mentioned long before any other linguistic components and terms emerged. It seems that the issue of collocation was first highlighted in 1933 by Palmer in his book titled *Second Interim Report on English Collocations*.

Collocations are crucial in a variety of ways, one of which is the lexical contribution that it provides to the authors. To be more precise, there exist some studies that create a strong establish a link between lexical diversity and collocation knowledge (for example see Laufer, 2003), which further enables and make an opportunity for authors to have more academic writings strived for (for example, Hyland , 2008; Durrant, 2009). That important link between lexical diversity and collocation has led to many studies to investigate collocations which are used in academic texts by authors consciously or unconsciously. The common results indicated that collocations have been widely employed from the most basic English courses to the extreme English proficiency levels. There is nearly no way of using a language without referring to collocations because they are intricately interwoven with the language itself. That is why; you absolutely have a high chance of encountering collocations whether you are a reader, speaker, or writer.

The frequency of occurrence of collocations does not make it an apparent issue for the language producers. In contrast, it is a convoluted issue requiring a huge amount of attention. The very first reason that makes collocations so indispensable for academic scholars lies behind the absolute power of collocation that allows a potential native-like written production. Because native speakers of English use “ready-made chunks” (Robins, 1967, p. 21), it is sure that a large many of non-native writers aspire to have native-like written productions, which would be impossible or at least too arduous with insufficient collocational knowledge in the process of composing a text. In order for that, not to create a scientific paper crammed with odd expressions, the author must be aware of collocations that native writers of English use in their texts. But for that, there may be no point of mentioning an academic paper which is free of inappropriate lexical bundles. The authentic detrimental effect of that would be language inappropriateness, stylistic infelicities, and foreignness to native readers. That highly possible case for non-native writers is the key problem as Fox (1998) reported. Further, Fox indicated that the fundamental trouble regarding an academic writing with full of odd expressions is of collocations but nothing else. What is more, it is a rigour issue for even very proficient non-native writers.

The literature provides insight about that errors concerning inappropriate use of collocations, among all error types, have been experienced as the most commonly by non-native speakers (Gitsaki, 1999). Undoubtedly, these troublesome errors disrupt the transmission of knowledge to the reader, which is a situation that mars the persuasion or convincing power of the author. On account of that key fact, they must be studied if writing fluency is demanded (Sung, 2003). Nation (1990), pertaining to low proficiency learners, stated that they have a tendency to “encode words in memory on the basis of sound and spelling rather than by association meaning” (p.3). The situation is not different for non-native writers. A paucity of collocational proficiency is associated with lexical proficiency of the writer. Similarly, collocations tie in with lexical development, says Ellis (1996). For this, the reason why non-native writers are not able to use collocations as proficient as native writers may be because non-native writers fail to correlate words on the basis of true and specific word partnership (Sung, 2003). Despite the obvious significance of collocations for scholarly writing and covetable need from the aspects of non-native scholars of English, it was not studied in a way that would show the differences and similarities between native and non-native academics, hence would provide valuable suggestions on how to use collocations in order for more native-like written products.

Despite the fact that there are a number of linguistic components which are inevitable for writing fluency, collocations are likely to occupy the top rank in significance. As they are for L2 learners (McCarthy, 1990), correct use of collocation -collocation appropriacy- is an aggravating process from which non-native writers cannot refrain. In that sense, possibly, it will not be assertive to have a claim that each author writing for academe should acknowledge the troublesome that inappropriate collocations have prompted, and act accordingly, which is a process that will take non-native writer to the ashore of being native-like at the very end. What makes collocational knowledge indispensable for writing fluency is that any miscollocations would be considered as “a major indicator of foreignness” (McArthur, 1992, p. 232). To be able to have native-like academic texts and get rid of foreignness, non-native writers should adapt their stylistic appropriateness to the native writers’. In the thick of such a competitive academe, those who get the advantage of scholarly writing through efficient use of collocation are going to have a strong place in substantiation of their writings and in making their names throughout scientific world. That is why studies comparing native and non-native writers’ academic written productions will be of utmost significance in two ways; one of which is to pinpoint the matter with non-native writers in using lexical collocations; the latter is to find possible solutions and suggestions regarding inappropriate use of collocations.

The general purpose of the present study is three-fold: (1) descriptive investigations, (2) pedagogical implications, and (3) statistical investigations. The first purpose aimed to provide window on to what extent native and non-native writers of English employed collocations in their articles. More specifically, the common patterns as regards the use of lexical collocations were investigated. The second purpose aims to highlight the significance of collocations in academic text; hence to increase academic authors’ awareness on collocations while writing their articles or other types of academic texts. The last objective was achieved through making comparisons between NW and NNW of English in the discipline of ELT. The study largely meant to elicit on the similarities and differences between research articles of native and non-native writers of English.

1.1. Literature review

Collocations are a single title but instead they are divided into four different subcategories which are as follows:

1) Lexical collocations: As indicated by Bahns(1993) lexical collocations do not contain clauses, infinitives, or prepositions; instead, various combinations of nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives. Again, if you compare lexical collocations to closed class structure of grammatical collocations, it can be easily seen that lexical collocations include no subordinate element, and are composed of two equal open-class lexical items (Fontenelle, 1998).

2) Grammatical collocations: Grammatical collocations, different from lexical ones, include a verb, a noun, and an adjective, plus a preposition, an infinitive, or a clause. The patterns of a phrasal grammatical collocations form from a lexical unit and a pattern that specifies the sub-categorization property of the head (Bentivogli & Pianta, 2003).

3) Solid lexical collocations: When they are compared to lexical collocations, the occurrence possibility of two words is much more rigid in solid lexical collocations while constructing a lexical word combination. In here, the lexical items have a strong bound to one another. There is such a powerful interconnection between lexical items that the native speaker hardly regards them as free combinations or separate items. *Acute pain, high winds, light drizzle* can be considered as common examples of solid lexical collocations.

4) Mis-collocations: In contrast with well-established collocations, mis-collocations are in contravention of the co-occurrence restrictions (Cruise, 1990). Though, they are rather frequently

encountered NNW writings. For example, a native speaker would say *a quick shower; rancid butter; or the fast train* but not *a quick shower; rotten butter; or the quick train*. Incorrect collocational lexical combinations are not acceptable in academic discourse at all, and they are considered as “a major indicator of foreignness” (McArthur, 1992, p. 232).

In addition to the four collocations types stated above, Hill (1999) further divided collocations into four as *unique collocations* (leg room), *strong collocations* (rancid butter), *medium-strength collocations* (Sun reader), and *weak collocations* (red wine). To inform, the present study does not make a distinction in accordance to Hill’s taxonomy, and investigated only lexical collocations.

Whether associate collocations to “ready-made chunks (Robins, 1967, p. 21)”, or to “mutual expectancy (Zhang, 1993, p. 1)”, collocations are the possibility of two or more words coming together in a native speaker’s memory in a well-linked way in order to construct word combinations (Aghbar, 1990). According to Fillmore (1979), the proficiency of collocations is a source of fluency, because an author with the knowledge of how to combine words in association with one another gain advantage over others who are with indeterminate knowledge. That knowledge, no question, provides opportunities to non-native writers who desperately long for nativeness in the target language.

The literature review illustrates that the direct correlation between collocation proficiency and nativeness is nearly for sure. According to Sung (2003), collocations are word combinations that take place in a native speaker’s mind intuitively. In other words, a native speaker does not restore to the words in the memory on purpose but instinctively. What is more striking to know is that the intuitive word combinations formations in a native speaker’s mind is something which may be attributed to its relation with nativeness, because it can be mentioned about a strong positive correlation between nativeness and automation on a linguistic component (Nation, 2001). According to Allerton(1984), words, different from native writers’, do not co-occur freely in non-native writers’ minds; but they give rise to co-occurrence restrictions. Hill (2000) evaluated the natural way of word combinations occurring in mind and commented that “within the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally occurring text” (p. 49). Concerning characterization of collocation fallacies of non-native writers, Korosadowicz-Struzynska(1980) quoted that “Errors in the use of word collocations surely add to the foreign flavour in the learner’s speech and writing and along with his faulty pronunciation they are the strongest markers of ‘an accent (p. 115).” On the other hand, Stubbs (2001) emphasized the relation between collocation and nativeness with his own words: “Native speakers’ unconscious knowledge of collocation is an essential component of their idiomatic and fluent language use and an important part of their communicative competence (p. 73).” Until now, it is blatantly apparent that it is the collocation competence which differentiates native and non-native speakers (Wouden, 1997; Nation, 2001; Ellis, 2001; Koya, 2006). Due to the fact that knowledge of collocation is an essential component of communicative competence (Partington, 1998) and a source of fluency, non-native writers should endeavour to gain the competence of collocation, which will contribute them to have nativeness as native writers do (Coxhead, 2000; Olson, Scarcella, &Matuchniak, 2013; Sonbul& Schmitt, 2013).

The close bond between collocation and nativeness is clear-cut, but what about if a writer is not native? Is it coherent to assert that the competence of using collocation is not possible to gain by non-native writers because it is a skill that is intuitively acquired? It is obvious that collocations are ready-made chunks just like idioms and other fixed expressions (Benson, Benson, & Ilson, 1986), and it is possible to teach ready-made chunks to all types of learners including collocations (Approach, 1993). Similarly, Wray (2002) made a claim on that learning formulaic language like collocations through conscious effort is not impossible. That is why, any propositions about the relation between collocation and nativesness could be acceptable, but the claims that address to impossibility of

teaching collocations must be proven, because the literature shows that although collocations are intuitive word combinations by native speakers, they can be acquired by non-native speakers.

Now that collocations are considered to play a significant role in written language (Wei & Lei, 2011), and now that it is a skill gained intuitively by native speakers, it will not be difficult to guess that a non-native writer with insufficient collocation knowledge will have difficulties and some infelicities regarding their academic position while composing a scientific writing. One important problem that could rise due to insufficient collocation knowledge is inappropriate word combinations. McArthur (1992) stated that failure to use collocation appropriately is a principal indicator of foreignness in academic texts. Therefore, any collocational inappropriacies, i.e. wrong word combinations may give rise to lack of confidence to writer's language ability no matter how the content of the writing is unique. It is difficult for a non-native writer to escape seemingly inept and unnatural expressions in their written production without appropriate knowledge of collocation, because the knowledge of collocation is critical for L2 writers to be able to have full communicative mastery of English (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993). Therefore, writers who want to improve their writing fluency need to have a collocation knowledge at a certain extent (Sung, 2003).

1.2. Research questions and research questions

The present descriptive study mainly focussed on the contribution of studying lexical collocations to non-native writers' academic writing development. Specific research questions were delivered below, though it will be useful to state that the current study devoted itself to a central research question; 'Do native and non-native writers of English employ lexical collocations differently in their research articles, if so, how can the findings be interpreted to be able to make pedagogical implications to non-native writers in order to have native-like scientific texts?'

- 1- Are there any statistically significant differences between Anglophonic and Turkish writers in terms of using lexical collocations?
- 2- What are the most common lexical collocation types that Anglophonic and Turkish writers have employed in their articles?
- 3- Do results provide any insight about the close relation between nativeness and collocation while composing an academic text?

2. Methodology

2.1. Data

Benson, Benson, & Ilson (1986) categorized lexical collocations systematically into seven basic categories. Because two categories in the taxonomy are very similar to one another in meaning, this study put the two categories into one category. Furthermore, an extra category that did not exist in Benson, Benson & Ilson's taxonomy is *adverb/adjective+verb*. By leaving one subcategory and adding another one, the present study divided lexical collocations into seven categories. In brief, the data was analyzed with the taxonomy borrowed from Benson, Benson, & Ilson with slight changes, which are shown below:

- 1- *Verb + Noun (make a mistake)*
- 2- *Verb + Adverb/Adjective (to show clearly,)*

- 3- *Noun + Verb (results proved)*
- 4- *Noun + Noun (a ceasefire agreement)*
- 5- *Adjective + Noun (heavy traffic)*
- 6- *Adverb + Adjective (extremely generous)*
- 7- *Adverb + verb (simply show)*

A corpus of total 40 research articles (RAs) written by 20 Anglophonic authors and 20 Turkish authors of English constituted the data for the present study. Two groups of writers were chosen for two reasons: (i) there are very few studies conducted to investigate lexical collocations employed in RAs of Anglophonic and Turkish writers of English; (ii) there seem almost no studies investigating particularly lexical collocations of the two groups of writers who have different level of English proficiency. The RAs were gleaned randomly from leading journals on ELT. Again, only RAs written on ELT subjects were compiled for two reasons because collocations may vary depending onto the discipline they have been used, which is a situation that may disrupt reliability and validity of the research aims. RAs published after 2007 were gathered in order to see synchronical variations on the use of lexical collocations. The corpora are consisted of 167723 words in total. The total number of words covers only the main parts of the articles, and excludes titles, abstracts, acknowledgements, references and appendices. It was tried to compile the corpora from equi-length RAs so as not to lead any reliability concern (see Table 1). Verification about author nativeness was not ensured by contacting them. Authors' status of nationality was presumed based on their names or nationalities. In RAs where more than one scholar is involved, the corresponding author or the first author in the affiliation was regarded as the writer of RA, hence the nationality of the first or corresponding author determined the status of nativeness of all others.

Table 1. The corpus size

	Anglophonic	Turkish	Total
Tokens	87148	80575	167723
Words	6621	5817	12438

As seen from the table above, Anglophonic writers have a larger treasure of words both in tokens and words while Turkish authors have less word and token number. That the slight difference exists between Anglophonic and Turkish writers in terms of word and token numbers is not at a level that may disrupt the reliability of the study because the difference is not meaningfully significant.

2.2. *Data analysis and procedure*

First, the researchers categorized the corpus in line with the taxonomy stated above. Then, the categories were inserted into a statistics PC-based software program (SPSS) and the analyses were conducted. Finally, independent samples t-test was used in order to detect similarities and differences between Anglophonic and Turkish authors in terms of using lexical collocations.

2.3. Inter-rater reliability

In order to validate the analysis, both inter- and intra-rater agreement were tested. Two raters consisted of the researchers of the present study worked as the raters in evaluating the corpora. The first rater has a PhD degree in ELT, and has been on duty for over 10 years. As regards the second rater, he has an MA degree on ELT, and has been an instructor on duty at a university for 6 years. The taxonomy of lexical collocation composed of seven categories was given to both raters, and asked for categorizing the boosters in the corpora accordingly. To maintain consistency in scoring and to minimize any bias a rater could develop, each rater independently categorized and checked the entire count of boosting devices tied up to a certain evaluation criteria separated into seven. Both raters independently categorized the lexical collocations in the study and the results were compared. The results were almost equal. In other words, there existed a correlation or homogeneity between the raters in terms of categorizing the lexical collocations. Yet, the averages of both results were taken to constitute the data for statistical analyses.

3. Results

3.1. Overall lexical collocation usage

After the study corpus were examined and analysed, the overall numbers of lexical collocations throughout seven categories were shown in the Figure 1 with tabulation below. The figure illustrates the total number of lexical collocations native and non-native writers of English employed in their articles.

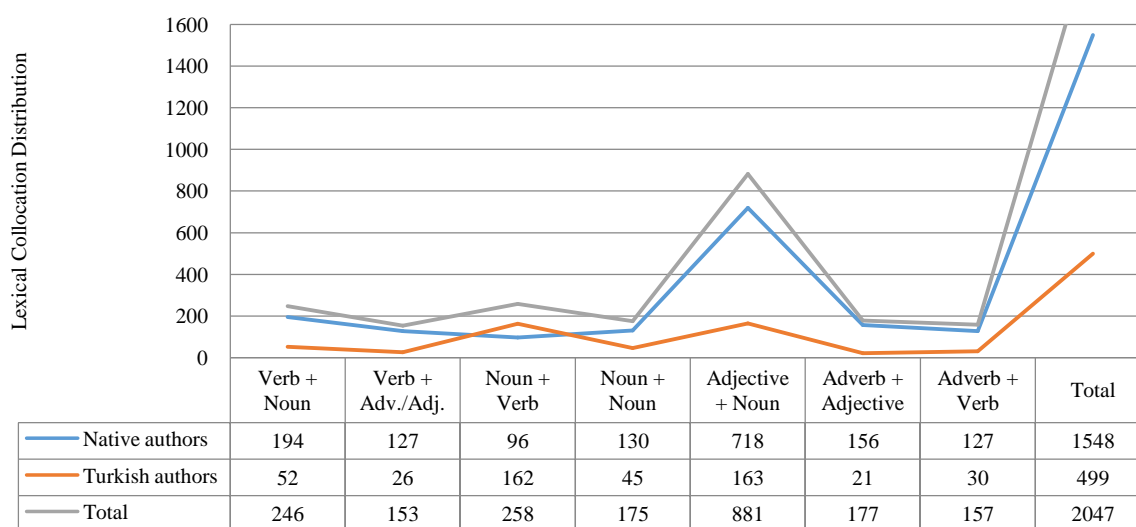


Figure 1. Overall lexical collocation distributions across categories

As obviously seen in the figure, native authors are superior to Turkish authors in numbers in total with 1548 lexical collocations. While *adjective + noun* is the category with the highest number of collocation usage (881), *verb + adv./adj.* is the category which holds the lower number of lexical collocations (153). It is clearly seen in the figure that native authors used more lexical collocations in all categories but *noun + verb*. That category is the only category in which Turkish authors included more collocations than Anglophonic authors. *Adjective + noun* is the category in which native authors used the highest number of collocations (718) while the results is the same for Turkish authors with a much lower number; 163. As for the lowest lexical collocation numbers, *verb + adv./adj.* is the

category including the least number of collocations for Turkish authors (26) while it is *noun + verb* for native authors (96). In the figure and its tabulation, it is apparent that Anglophonic authors construct much more word combinations than Turkish author. But, whether the clear difference in numbers is significant or not can be emerged through statistical analyses. In the subtitles below, the statistical outcome of each collocation category was provided.

3.2. Statistical outcomes

Independent samples t-test was employed in order to detect whether there were any statistically significant differences between native and non-native authors. The analysis results were provided in the table 2.

Table 2.The outcomes of statistical analyses.

Variables	t	df	Sig.
Verb + Noun	6,794	27,917	,000
Verb + Adj./Adv.	6,005	26,926	,000
Noun + Verb	5,897	38	,000
Noun + Noun	4,118	27,795	,000
Adjective + Noun	5,711	24,273	,000
Adverb + Adjective	10,208	27,266	,000
Adverb + Verb	2,560	3,007	,000

As partially seen in the table, test results indicated the findings below:

- 1- *Verb + Noun* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=9.70$, $SD=4.181$) than for non-native writers ($M=2.60$, $SD=2.088$), ($t(27,917)=6.794$, $p<.001$).
- 2- *Verb + Adj./Adv.* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=6.35$, $SD=6.407$) than for non-native writers ($M=1.30$, $SD=1.593$), ($t(26,926)=6.005$, $p<.001$).
- 3- *Noun + Verb* the scores were significantly higher for non-native writers ($M=8.10$, $SD=1.447$) than for native writers ($M=4.80$, $SD=2.042$), ($t(38)=-5.897$, $p<.001$).
- 4- *Noun + Noun* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=6.50$, $SD=4.136$) than for non-native writers ($M=2.25$, $SD=2.049$), ($t(27,795)=4.118$, $p<.001$).
- 5- *Adjective + Noun* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=35.90$, $SD=20.339$) than for non-native writers ($M=8.15$, $SD=7.652$), ($t(24,273)=5.711$, $p<.001$).
- 6- *Adverb + Adjective* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=7.80$, $SD=2.668$) than for non-native writers ($M=1.05$, $SD=1.276$), ($t(27,266)=10.208$, $p<.001$).
- 7- *Adverb + Verb* the scores were significantly higher for native writers ($M=6.35$, $SD=2.700$) than for non-native writers ($M=1.50$, $SD=1.701$), ($t(32,031)=6.796$, $p<.001$).

As understood from the statistical results above, there are statistically significant differences between native and non-native authors in terms of using lexical collocations. It can be concluded that nativeness of authors have a significant effect on collocations usage. The only significant difference in favour of non-native was in the category of *noun + verb*. In that category Turkish authors used more lexical collocations than their Anglophonic counterparts at a significant level.

3.3. Lexical collocation examples

The scanning of the data indicated striking results regarding the use of lexical collocations. It seems that there are some rare lexical collocations which are never used by Turkish authors. According to the results, the lexical diversity of native writers is much more superior to non-native writers because Anglophonic writers succeeded a great many of word combinations than Turkish authors. Ten examples from each category of native and non-native writers' lexical collocations are provided in alphabetical order in the table below.

Table 3. Lexical collocation samples from native and non-native writers' texts.

Anglophonic Writers						
<i>Verb + Noun</i>	<i>Verb + Adv./Adj.</i>	<i>Noun + Verb</i>	<i>Noun + Noun</i>	<i>Adjective + Noun</i>	<i>Adverb + Adjective</i>	<i>Adverb + Verb</i>
Capture relationship	Addressed peripherally	Analyses show	Access to information	Additional benefit	Closely related	Better understand
Demonstrate a desire	Become marginal	Data elicit	Capstone experience	Baseline population	Dramatically different	Cognitively engage
Develop idea	Communicate successfully	Findings reveal	Effect size	Close resemblance	Equally important	Deeply steeped
Give insight	Flow uninterruptedly	Results indicate	Head start	Cumulative process	Hardly controversial	Fully exploit
Lack access	Go awry	The figure illustrate	Language minority	Full credit	Immediately striking	Jointly code
Make suggestion	Make covert	The study attempt	Reference material	Noticeable way	Overly modest	Naturally occur
Pose question	Post regularly	The study intend	Sense of dissatisfaction	Poignant analogy	Quite evident	Seriously confront
Raise concern	Set to stepwise	The study set out	Source of frustration	Steady flow	Probably insufficient	Subsequently inform
Serve (as a) baseline	Take serious	The survey reveal	Transmission of ideologies	Stratified sampling	Robustly significant	Vigorously debated
Unravel complexities	Vary widely	The survey show	Writing competence	Unique nature	Uniformly successful	Widely cited
Turkish Writers						
<i>Verb + Noun</i>	<i>Verb + Adv./Adj.</i>	<i>Noun + Verb</i>	<i>Noun + Noun</i>	<i>Adjective + Noun</i>	<i>Adverb + Adjective</i>	<i>Adverb + Verb</i>
Attract attention	Affect positively	Analyses include	Added variables	Available knowledge	Always available	Briefly stated
Cause anxiety	Answer sincerely	Change to practise	Answer key	Background information	Clearly important	Carefully listen
Complete task	Become trendy	Data demonstrate	Body language	Current situation	Disturbingly high	Dramatically increase
Create a ground	Chance quickly	Findings suggest	Career purposes	Daily activity	Easily accessible	Easily get

Deliver suggestion	Do poorly	Interviews elicit	Discussion group	Further work	Functionally confusing	Further highlight
Draw conclusion	Engage actively	Literature show	Education programme	General agreement	Generally sufficient	Generally focus
Follow rules	Function successfully	Outcomes reveal	Good excuse	Survival need	Pedagogically useful	Highly value
Gain insight	Go smoothly	Table present	Hierarchy of difficulty	Teaching strategy	Rapidly increasing	Increasingly become
Make research	Judge correctly	The goal is to achieve	Human learning	Utmost importance	Socially responsible	Repeatedly comment
Pay attention	Learn incidentally	The study examine	Lack of competence	Useful innovation	Statistically significant	Seriously high

Those in past participle verb form are the verbs generally used in passive voices.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

It can be clearly said that there are robust differences between native and non-native writers in terms of using lexical collocations. In all categories, considerable differences existed in favour of native writers who used much more collocations than Turkish authors. However, the situation was different in the category of *noun + verb* in which Turkish authors used more collocations than their counterparts. In other words, Turkish authors used *noun + verb* collocations like “the table shows...; the study reveals...; the data indicate...etc.”, more than native authors. Meanwhile, the results put forth that native writers have a tendency of using *adjective + noun* collocations like “prefer to use *booster* (assertive words) adjectives for nouns and adverbs for verbs like “effective ways, key research, intense criticism”. As seen from the examples, native authors preferred to increase their force of statements by using boosters such as “effective, key, and intense”.

The other thing that the present study revealed is the close relation between nativity of the authors and the number of collocation which were used. It is highly apparent that native authors used much more collocations than Turkish authors, which may be refer to a sign of strong correlation between being a native speaker and non-native speaker of English. Prodromou, who saw collocations as a potential difficulty that non-native writers encounter, claims that a close relationship existed between collocations and native fluency. Some other researchers made experimental and/or theoretical investigations so that the relationship might be proven. One of them belongs to Martynska (2004) who carried out a study aiming to reveal collocational competence of non-native English speakers and the role of it in the process of L2 learning. Martynska drew a conclusion that the knowledge of how to combine words into chunks in efficient language use is imperative, and non-native speakers of English are bound to have collocational competence if they want to achieve native-like level of proficiency. Furthermore, Martynska reported that “the richer in collocations the learner’s lexicon is, the higher precision, accuracy, coherence and authenticity of his/her speech, which is a perfect way to fluency and proficiency in the language as well as to greater language competence” (p. 11). Different from Martynska, Hsu (2007) compared Taiwanese English majors’ and non-English majors’ written texts in order to obtain some insights on how Taiwanese English majors and non-English majors used lexical collocations in their writings. The findings showed a statistically significant correlation between two types of majors in terms of writing scores and frequency of lexical collocations. Furthermore, the analysis put forth a significant correlation between subjects’ online writing scores and their variety of

lexical collocations. The effect of lexical collocation awareness on writing skill is an issue that wondered by some researchers. A recent study (Eidian, Gorjian, & Aghvami, 2014) with the aim of investigating the possible effect was carried out, and the findings established a strong link between. In other saying, lexical collocation awareness developed the writing components of vocabulary, and helped the writers have fluency in their essay writings.

As last, the present study provided valuable insight for non-native writers who desire to have native-like academic writing. However, a study with larger data could provide more accurate results. Furthermore, the present study only investigated ELT in terms of detecting lexical collocations, however; because the use of word combinations may be unique to the discipline itself, each discipline needs to be studied in terms of collocations usage in order to give detailed insight about the use of collocations.

References

- Aghbar, A. A. (1990). *Fixed expressions in written texts: Implications for assessing writing sophistication*. Pennsylvania: English Association of Pennsylvania State System Universities.
- Allerton, D. J. (1984). Three (or four) levels of word co-occurrence restriction. *Lingua* , 63:17-40.
- Approach, T. L. (1993). *Lewis, Michael*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Bahns, J. (1993). Lexical collocations: a contrastive view. *ELT Journal* , 47(1): 56-63.
- Bahns, J., & Eldaw, M. (1993). Should we teach EFL students collocations? *System* , 21(1):104-114.
- Benson, M., Benson, E., & Ilson, R. (1986). *The BBI combinatory dictionary of English: A guide to word combinations*. Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.
- Bentivogli, L., & Pianta, E. (2003). Detecting Hidden Multiwords in Bilingual Dictionaries. *the Tenth EURALEX International Congress, EURALEX 2002* (pp. 785-793). Copenhagen, Denmark: August 13-17, 2002 .
- Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly* , 34(2), 213-238.
- Cruise, D. A. (1990). Language, meaning and sense: Semantics. In N. E. (Ed.), *An encyclopedia of language* (pp. 139-172). New York: Routledge.
- Durrant, P. (2009). Investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes* , 28: 157–169.
- Eidian, F., Gorjian, B., & Aghvami, F. (2014). The effect of lexical collocation awareness on Iranian EFL learners' writing skill. *Academia Journal of Educational Research*, 2(1):1-6
doi:10.15413/ajer.2013.0033.
- Ellis, N. C. (2001). Memory for language. In P. Robinson, *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 33-68). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, N. C. (1996). Sequencing in SLA. *Studies in second language acquisition* , 18:91-126.
- Fillmore, J. C. (1979). On fluency. In C. Fillmore, D. Kempler, & W. Wang, *Individual differences in language ability and behavior* (pp. 85-101). New York: Academic Press.
- Fontenelle, T. (1998). Lexical functions in dictionary entries. In A. P. Cowie, *Phraseology: theory, analysis, and applications* (pp. 189-207). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Fox, G. (1998). Using corpus data in the classroom. In B. Tomlison, *Materials Development in Language Teaching* (pp. 25-43). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gitsaki, C. (1999). *Second language lexical acquisition: A study of the development of collocational knowledge*. San Francisco: International Scholars Publications.
- Hill, J. (1999). Collocational competence. *Readings in Methodology* , 162-166.
- Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: from grammatical failure to collocational success. In M. Lewis, *Teaching Collocations: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 47-69). Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Hsu, J.-y. (2007). Lexical Collocations and their Relation to the Online Writing of Taiwanese College English Majors. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 4(2):192-209.
- Hyland, K. (2008). Academic clusters: text patterning in published and postgraduate writing. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* , 18(1): 41-62.
- Korosadowicz-Struzynska, M. (1980). Word collocations in FL vocabulary instruction. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* , 12:109-120.
- Koya, T. (2006). What is the reality of collocation use by native speakers of English? *Dialogue* , 5:1-18.
- Laufer, B. (2003). The influence of L2 on L1 collocational knowledge and on L1 lexical diversity in free written expression. In V. Cook, *Effects of the Second Language on the First* (pp. 120-141). Clevedon: Cromwell Press Ltd.
- Martyńska, M. (2004). Do English language learners know collocations? *Investigationes Linguisticae*, 11:1-12.
- McArthur, T. (1992). *The Oxford companion to the English language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McCarthy, M. (1990). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nation, I. S. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York, NY: Newbury House.
- Olson, C. B., Scarcella, R., & Matuchniak, T. (2013). Best Practices in Teaching Writing to English Learners. In S. Graham, C. A. MacArthur, & J. Fitzgerald, *Best Practices in Writing Instruction (2nd Edition)* (p. 381). New York: Guilford Press.
- Prodromou, L. (2003). Idiomaticity and the non-native speaker. *English Today*, 42-48, doi:10.1017/S0266078403002086.
- Partington, A. (1998). *Patterns and meanings: Using corpora for English language research and teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Robins, R. H. (1967). *A short history of linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Sonbul, S., & Schmitt, N. (2013). Explicit and Implicit Lexical Knowledge: Acquisition of Collocations Under Different Input Conditions. *Language Learning* , 63(1): 121-159.
- Stubbs, M. (2001). *Words and Phrases*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Sung, J. (2003). *English Lexical Collocations and Their Relation to Spoken Fluency of Adult Non-native Speakers* . Pennsylvania: Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

- Wei, Y., & Lei, L. (2011). Lexical Bundles in the Academic Writing of Advanced Chinese EFL Learners. *RECL Journal* , 42(2): 155-166.
- Wouden, T. V. (1997). *Negative contexts: Collection, polarity, and multiple negation*. New York: Routledge.
- Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic Language and the Lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zhang, X. (1993). *English collocations and their effect on the writing of native and nonnative college freshmen*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation: Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

İngilizDilindeSözcükselEşdizim: İngilizceYazanTürkveİngilizYazarlarınKarşılaştırılması

Öz

İngilizdileğitimindedözcükselkombinasyonlarındoğruveygunyapılmasıartanbirşekildeilgiçekmektedir. Literatürdevarolanmetotvetekniklerden en çoközcükselşdizimönemlibirkonuolarakortayaçıkmaktadır. Oysaki, özellikleanadiliİngilizceolmayanyazarlarıçintemelsorunlardanbirtanesiyetersizkelimekombinasyonbilgisidir. Eşdi zimbilgisiileanadiliİngilizceolmayanyazarlarsözcükullanımbecerilerineliştirmelerimümkündür. Bu çalışmaanadiliİngilizceolanveanadiliTürkçelanyazarlarınİngilizceyazılmışmetinlerininözcükselşdizimbakımında incelemeyivearalarındastatikselerakbirfarkolupolmadığınıbulmayıamaçlamaktadır. 20

anadiliİngilizceolanyazarlartarafındanyazılmışmakaleve 20

anadiliTürkçelanyazarlartarafındanİngilizceyazılmışmakaleolmaküzeretoplama 40

makaleincelenmiştir. SözcükselşdizimdisiplinlerarasıkullanımfarklılıklarıçerebileceğindensadeceİngilizDiliEğit 7

imialanındakimakalelerincelenmeküzeretoplanmıştır. Analizlerdenönce alt

alanasahipolanbirtaksonomioluşturulmuştur. VerilerBağımsız T-test

ileanalizedilmiştir. Sonuçlarstatikselerakanlamlıolduğugörülmüştür. Bu

çalışmasözcükselşdizimindahaiyakademikyazıçıinfaydalıolupolmadığını da

ortayaçıkarmaüzereinesonuçlarvermiştir. Son olarakbazıpedagojikönerilersunulmuştur.

Anahtarözcükler: Eşdizim; Türk; İngiliz; yerli; yazar; yazma

AUTHOR BIODATA

CüneytDemir is an Assistant Professor at Siirt University, Siirt-Turkey. He received his Ph.D from the ELT department at Atatürk University, Erzurum-Turkey. He is currently offering courses at the graduate and undergraduate levels at Siirt University. His profession includes educational academic writing, ESP, and adult education in ELT.