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Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza

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﴿ وَعَلَّمَ آدَمَ الْأَسْمَاءَ كُلَّهَا ثُمَّ عَرَضَهُمْ عَلَى الْمَلَائِكَةِ فَقَالَ أَنْبِئُونِي بِأَسْمَاءِ هَؤُلَاءِ إِنْ كُنْتُمْ صَادِقِينَ ﴾ (31) قالوا سبحانك لا علم لنا إلا ما علمتنا ﴿ك﴾ أنت العليم الحكيم (32) ﴿

سورة البقرة

آية (31-32)

صدق الله العظيم

Dedication

To my great teacher and messenger, Mohammed (may Allah bless him and grant him salvation), who taught us the purpose of life,

To my homeland Palestine, the warmest womb;

To the great martyrs and prisoners, the symbol of sacrifice;

To the Islamic University; my second magnificent home;

To my great parents who never stop giving of themselves in countless ways,

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To my dearest husband, Yusuf, who leads me through the valley of darkness with light of hope and support,

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To all my family, the symbol of love and giving,

To my friends who encourage and support me,

To all the people in my life who touch my heart,
I dedicate this research.

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Abstract

Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza

The present study aims at identifying, classifying and analyzing collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the Islamic University of Gaza (IUG). Following the descriptive analytical research, qualitative and quantitative analyses of collocation errors were examined from three dimensions:

- collocation background knowledge of native language (NL: Arabic) and foreign language (FL: English)
- a comprehensive developed model of collocation categories (collocation range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals)
- specific knowledge fields (political, educational and daily life collocations)

The participants of this study were engaged in a survey sample that consisted of (245) Palestinian female and male English language majors and journalism majors enrolled in the fourth level within the second semester of the academic year (2007) at the IUG. English majors (Arts and Education) were (202) and journalism majors were (43). To fulfill the aims of the study, a list of collocations was designed as a pilot study to build a diagnostic test. The collocations list data was compiled from multiple reliable and valuable language resources. This list is divided into two parts: the first part presents collocations within English language; the second part presents collocations across English and Arabic language. This preliminary list was given to (10) English language instructors, from the IUG, El Azhar University, and El Aqsa University to determine the most common collocations used in the Palestinian society. In the light of the instructors' choice of the most common collocations included in the list, the diagnostic test was constructed. The diagnostic test consists of two main parts: the first part is related to collocations used within English language. This part has three closed questions: matching, multiple choice, and crossing out the odd collocation. The second part is a translation task that relates to collocations used across English and Arabic language. This part consists of three translation questions: translation from English into Arabic and vice versa, in addition to choosing the suitable translation of the given collocations. Both main parts of the test were viewed as complementary indicators for the students' proficiency in this linguistic area. Via the test, the participants' collocation errors were identified, classified and exemplified according to the pre-mentioned dimensions. Also, analytical reasons beyond committing those errors were explored. Percentages, Kuder-Richardson 20 Method, Person Correlation Coefficient, Spearman-Brown Coefficient, Independent Sample T Test, and Kruskal Wallis Test were used to analyze the data.

Findings indicated that:

- The English language and journalism majors at the IUG made different types of collocation errors which manifested their lower and deficient competence in using collocations within English language and in dealing with such collocations across Arabic and English language. Such weak linguistic performance is attributed for various reasons.
- Both majors demonstrated limited collocation knowledge as they depended on interlingual and intralingual transfers which gave rise to different collocation errors in the first dimension.
- Both majors failed in differentiating the meanings of collocation items of the same range in different contexts according to the deviant responses recorded in the second dimension.
- Collocation error types made in the third dimension revealed that both majors had insufficient exposure to practical opportunities and real life experience and situations related to the English language collocations.
- Dealing with collocations across Arabic and English language is a problematic spot and an error-generating area for both majors rather than using collocations within English language.
- The journalism majors' collocation errors are higher than those made by the English majors
- The male students demonstrated a lower level of collocation competence than the female students.
- The higher level of academic achievement is, the less collocation errors are and vice versa.

Based on the results provided by the current study, recommendations are provided in a form of a pedagogical framework for English language teachers, English and journalism majors, the learning materials designers; the English and journalism departments, and finally for further research. This framework intertwines practical educational ideas with various and proper techniques that are relevant to teaching and learning collocations. This proposed framework can help tackle the issue of collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG, and encourage collocations build up.

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Chapter I

Study Statement and Background

Introduction

Need for the Study

Statement of the Problem

Research Questions

Research Hypotheses

Purpose of the Study

Significance of the Study

Definitions of the Study

Limitations of the Study

Summary

Introduction:

Language is one of the great signs of the Almighty Allah Who says in the Holly Quran, "And from His signs is the creation of the heavens and the earth, and the diversity of your languages and your colors, surely in that are signs for those who possess knowledge" (Surat ArRum, 22). In this sense, mankind witnesses, day after day, the emergence of many faithful irrefutable facts that confirm the miracle of such Quranic signs. In particular, the diversity of languages, which is mentioned in this verse over fourteen centuries ago, was revealed as a fact by ethnologists. This fact states that a single tongue spoken 150,000 years ago has evolved into the estimated 6,912 known living languages used around the world today (*Ethnologue Encyclopedia*, 2007). The diversity of human language along with its complex distinctive features is indeed the sole property of the human race. This is a proof for the human language uniqueness that can only be found by testing the language of other intelligent species.

Likewise, errors mark the pinnacle of human uniqueness because there is none other than human make errors (James, 1998:1). In this context, it is worthy to mention that Adam, the father of humankind, committed a fatal error when he and his wife, Eve, listened to the whisper of the Satan and they tasted the forbidden tree that Allah ordered them not to approach. Soon, Adam said "*Our Lord, we have wronged our souls*" (Surat Al Afar, 23). This evident recognition of committing an error without mentioning the devil is what distinguishes the human who is capable of detecting the real and correct reasons for errors and not to fall into illusions and into fictitious suspicions. From this position, Adam and Eve deserved to be successors on the earth.

As linguistics is the direct study of human language and ought to discover the universals concerning language by describing and explaining it, the study of human errors in the domain of language is a major component of core linguistics. In this respect, it has been

proved that errors play an important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in examining the foreign language acquisition in particular. This issue evokes linguists and researchers to be interested in investigating errors because they are believed to contain valuable information of the strategies that learners employ to acquire languages (Selinker, 1992:150). Considerably, errors need not be seen as signs of failure in education. On the contrary, they are believed to be an indicator of the learners' development in learning foreign language and an evidence of their in-built repertoire. Also, errors are clear evidence for the learners' developing system and can offer insights into how they process language data (Littlewood, 1984:22).

A further support for this point comes from Corder (1967:25) who contends that those errors are of high significance for three respects: they tell the teacher what needs to be taught; they tell the researcher how learning proceeds. Also, they are a means whereby learners test their hypotheses about the target language. In support of Corder's view, Gass and Selinker (1994:79) consider errors as "red flags" that provide an evidence of the learners' knowledge of the target language. Thus, from the errors that learners make, one can determine their level of mastery of the language system (Lengo, 2003).

Stating that 'without words, there is nothing to say' (McLaughlin, 2003:1), it can be said that without errors, no words would evolve. Hence, the pervasiveness of errors is indisputable in the area of vocabulary acquisition. McLaughlin (2003:1) points out that the acquisition of words comes naturally for native speakers. By the later years of childhood, a child will have acquired almost all of the words, with the exception of academic, technical, or extremely formal language. Unfortunately, this does not apply to the foreign language learners, who have to devote both time and exposure to learn it. The age at which learners begin to study the foreign language and the volume of natural language they are exposed to throughout TV and the internet greatly affect the speed

and success of the foreign language learning process. If a very young child is frequently exposed to words in the foreign language, s/he will be well prepared for the lifelong journey towards acquiring that foreign language. In fact, the process of learning words is ongoing because languages are constantly evolving; new words are added to dictionaries everyday, and some existing words acquire new meanings.

Thinking that words just can appear as single items is nonsense. Words have relationships to other words in a language, and they are stored in the brain in a complex map-like spider web called the mental lexicon. The search for one word may therefore result in activating another. This complex process sometimes results in learners' errors which help further understanding how the mental lexicon is organized. Learning the foreign language is the same but perhaps more difficult for two reasons. One is that concepts are not always the same across languages; and the other is that learners have to construct a second mental lexicon. Accordingly, learners of English have to be aware of how to combine words taking into consideration the two mentioned reasons. More precisely, this process of word combination is known linguistically as *collocations*. For example, the words *increase*, *expand* and *extend* are synonyms but they cannot be used interchangeably in all contexts. One has to consider, for example, that *metal expands*, *sales increase*, and *rooms extend*. There is a danger that the subtle difference between these words can lead students to make an inappropriate word choice (Grain and Redman, 1986:69 in McLaughlin, 2003:17, Thornbury, 2002:16, and McLaughlin, 2003:16-17).

According to *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2002:vii), collocations run through the whole of English language and no piece of natural spoken or written English is totally free of collocations. For learners of English, choosing the right collocations make their speech and writing sound much more natural, more native speaker-like, and quite

precise. For example, it is normal to say *strong wind* but *heavy rain*. On the other hand, it would not be normal to say **heavy wind* or **strong rain*. Students who talk about **strong rain*, for example, may make themselves understood, but possibly not without provoking a smile, an embarrassment or a correction. To native-speakers, these combinations are highly predictable; to learners of English, they pose some sorts of difficulties and require a greater degree of competence to be used accurately and productively.

In case collocations constitute the soul of the language and culture is woven intricately into the language, it can be argued that collocations are attached with cultural associations. Kjellmer (1987: 140) and Ghazala (2000) indicate that being culturally-bound, collocations are considered challenging and could be daunting to deal with across languages. Hence, it can be concluded that collocations are intrinsic to the process of vocabulary development and they are deeply embedded within a language itself and across languages.

The Need for the Study:

This study is essential to be conducted for the following reasons. First, the English language is the international medium of communication among nations. So, the English language practitioners have to be qualified in using collocations in order to maintain sufficient communicative competence. More specifically, language practitioners, who are meant in this study, are the two important carriers of culture and knowledge across the world: English majors who are engaged in many substantial roles and fields; journalism majors who are considered the tongue and the correspondents of a community's events, incidents, culture, and knowledge.

Those two majors, by a way or another, would encounter collocations in all forms of discourse: translation fields, conversations, lectures, movies, radio broadcasts, television

programs, educational and formal institutions. Therefore, it is not only desirable and beneficial, but also indispensable to elevate the communicative lexical level of those majors to be well prepared to meet all such challenges.

It was recorded in an article of a Palestinian newspaper called *Al Thuria* that the Palestinian journalists gravely lack English language expressions that make foreign journalists make fun of them (El Araeer, 2007). Conducting interviews with many journalists, El Araeer (2007) revealed in that newspaper that those journalists expressed their dissatisfaction with the current weak level of owning sufficient English expressions needed for communication. They, further, sought for serious and continuing concerns for elevating their level in this regard.

Besides, being English major and instructor, the researcher has found out that many students own limited scope of vocabulary knowledge, specifically, collocations. Those students need to broaden their vocabulary scope to express themselves more clearly and appropriately in a wide range of situations because they will be involved in sensitive roles in different sectors in the society as mentioned above. Remarkably, collocations are essential keys for conveying the intended message. For instance, the Palestinian issue seeks qualified and competent communicators calling for an important maintenance of fundamental rights of freedom, justice, equality, dignity and respect.

It is worthy to mention in this context that researches on memorization found out that a human being forgets 80 percent of new information in 24 hours. In spite of individual differences among people, there is some truth that the process of forgetting is very fast (Kavaliauskienė and Janulevieiene, 2001). So, students might have such receptive knowledge of a wider range of vocabulary, which means they can recognise the item and recognise its meaning. Nevertheless, their productive use of a wide range of words combinations is normally limited, and this is one of the areas that need greater attention.

Thus, there is a need to move from such receptive scattered knowledge to more productive lasting words power by making students aware of the available associational links that exist or can be created among individual words. In addition, it is relevant to emphasize the necessity for employing other alternative methods of teaching English language, specifically for those two majors. Accordingly, this considerable attention to collocations is needed to lead to a change for the better in the English language teaching and learning.

Though collocations manifest their importance in language instruction, few studies have been recently conducted on collocations, and some others dealt briefly with the area of strangeness or naturlessness of linguistic forms and expressions resulted from collocation errors especially among Arab students as indicated by Kharma & Hajjaj, (1989:67-78), Farghl and Obiedat (1995), Wie (1999), Taiwo (2001), Zughoul and Fattah (2003) and Mahmoud, (2005). In this respect, Mahmoud (2005) figures out that the field of language teaching and learning is wealthy in studies of EFL learners' grammatical and pragmatic errors rather than the area of producing natural language through collocations. He illustrates more by saying that filling up students' minds with all the requisite grammar and vocabulary, and polishing their pronunciation do not actually seem to be adequate to achieve the wider goal of being able to genuinely understand and communicate with the real world. Accordingly, when the learners' language is characterized by correct forms linguistically, but inappropriate forms contextually and culturally, this will produce, semantically, strange or unnatural expressions.

Despite the current attempts of conducting studies on the collocation aspect, there is no indication, mostly, for the essentiality of collocations in specific knowledge areas. Rather, collocations are dealt with in a general sense. The researcher believes that there

is a great need to give meticulous attention to collocations in specialized fields of knowledge. For the two majors of English and journalism, their needs and interests are thought to spring from their missions in the Palestinian society. Substantially, three main dimensions (politics, education and daily life) are thought to be relative, vital and important to the Palestinian students of English language and journalism.

For politics, it is an integrated part of the Palestinian life that no one can avoid because of the Israeli occupation of Palestine. In this case, political collocations in media constitute one of the most principal priorities for the Palestinian issue. Mastering political collocations is a vehicle for accurately conveying what is really taking place in the Palestinian arena and in various parts of the earth. For instance, the Israeli media uses *Separation Wall* or *Security Fence* whereas the Palestinian media and anti-Israeli media use *Apartheid Wall* because this wall is unjust and swallows vast areas of the Palestinian lands, villages and cities. This wall constitutes a formidable barrier for Palestinians to move among areas and a danger for their life. So, it is apparent that Palestinian translators need to be alert on dealing with political collocations especially ones that are transferred from western media because most of the world-renowned media is controlled by the international Zionism which works for the Israeli occupation in Palestine. This is an undeniable fact that was dictated among the resolutions of the Zionist protocols in 1897 in Switzerland led by Teoder Herzl. Realizing the power of media, Zionists aimed at the promotion and dissemination of lies, distortion of facts and ultimately invasion of the world.

For the educational field, it is clear that education occupies a significant place in the Palestinian society and receives a special interest from most of segments of the Palestinians. Most Palestinians do believe that education is the most effective weapon to be armed with to lead decent life and liberate their homeland. English and journalism

students are inseparable parts of such educational field and they have to fulfill their roles properly. Most evidently, the researcher pays attention for including educational collocations, since education students in the target population of this study constitute the majority (235) student out of (361). The educational dimension includes many useful literary collocations because the study population has Art majors too (55 students). These literary collocations are not categorized separately for their small number, and because education can be considered the wide umbrella for teaching literature.

For the daily life field, it is very important for English and journalism students to be prepared in using daily collocation because they face different kinds of situations and experiences in their life, e.g., travel, translation fields, foreign meetings, TV and radio programs, and others. Students of English as well as journalism students have to be qualified in different kinds of collocations because one cannot separate them in real life. From this standpoint, English collocational expressions become an undisputed global means of communication among cultures and communities. So, by investigating English and journalism students' collocational capabilities, it is potentially demanded for those students to be prepared to master and harness sufficient communicative skills of collocations to perform their prominent roles constructively.

Eventually, caught between the need to capture the attention towards the issue of collocations in English language instruction and the need to give depth to the importance of collocations for English language majors and journalism majors in specific fields, this study intends to take a step towards inspiring and stimulating the interests and concerns of students, teachers, researchers, language materials designers and all the interested people in this regard.

Statement of the Problem:

The problem of the study can be stated in the following main question:

"What are the main collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG?"

Research Questions:

The above-mentioned question encompasses the following minor questions which this study attempts to answer:

1. What are the main types of collocation errors made by English majors at the IUG?
2. What are the main types of collocation errors made by journalism majors at the IUG?
3. Are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to specialization (English majors: *Art and Education* and journalism majors)?
4. Are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to gender?
5. Are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to the academic level (excellent, very good, good, and fair)?

Research Hypotheses:

1. There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to specialization (English majors: *Art and Education* and journalism majors).
2. There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to gender.
3. There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to the academic level (excellent, very good, good, fair level).

Purpose of the Study:

This study aims at identifying, classifying and analyzing collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG. An analysis of collocation errors is explored from three main dimensions: collocation background knowledge of the native language

(NL: Arabic) and the foreign language (FL: English); specific knowledge fields (politics, education, and daily life); and a developed model of collocation categories (collocation range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals), In the light of the results, recommendations are provided in a form of a pedagogical framework to tackle the issue of collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG, and encourage collocations build up. Another primary purpose of this study is providing a wealthy exemplified and analyzed outcome of collocation errors made by the participants of the study so that they can be included in the process of teaching.

Significance of the Study:

This study is hoped to benefit:

- **English and Journalism Departments:** this study helps both departments set up practical and innovated action steps to specify a special corner for teaching collocations and develop the instructors' practice in their teaching lexis, so as to maintain high-quality outcomes.
- **Teachers:** the study helps teachers of English in revealing students' errors and problems in dealing with collocations, so the teachers can:
 - promote their students' awareness and usage of the collocation phenomenon
 - create their students' autonomous constant practice of collocations
 - assess their students' collocation development through various ways
 - tackle the collocation errors through designing remedial tasks
- **Students:** this study provides the students with practical motivating guidelines for using and practicing collocations, so as to help them avoid collocation errors, and prepare them to get ready for encountering such collocations in their work fields in the future.

- **Language Materials Designers:** this study shows the great need for designing proper language materials and activities that focus more attention on the trouble spots of collocations. Also, this study is hoped to promote designing and compiling collocation materials with regard to the Palestinian society.
- **Dictionary Designers:** this study emphasizes the importance of designing bilingual dictionaries of collocations (Arabic-English and English-Arabic) beside giving more concerns for publishing more monolingual dictionaries of English collocations.
- **Researchers:** to attract their attention to conduct further studies on this significant linguistic area

Definitions of the Study Terms:

The following terms are used in the present study:

- **Collocations:** are lexical items that have a tendency to co-occur within each other in utterance (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989). Another definition is included in *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2002:vii) which state that "collocations are the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing". The researcher defines *collocations* as "lexical words which co-occur regularly together to form a common expression".
- **Error:** is an act, assertion, or belief that unintentionally deviates from what is correct, right, or true (*The Free Online Dictionary*, 2007). Harmer (2001:99) defines it as "a mistake students cannot correct themselves and which therefore needs an explanation". The researcher defines *an error* as "an unintentional deviation from the standard language norm."
- **Error Analysis:** is an examination of errors made by students in both spoken and written medium (Mohideen, 1996). Another definition is included in *Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia* (2008) which states that "error analysis is the study of kind and

quantity of error that occurs in the field of applied linguistics". The researcher defines it as "an investigation of types and causes of errors in oral and written language."

- **The Islamic University of Gaza:** is one of the academic institutions of the higher education institutions. It concerns with offering high education to Palestinian people in general and to people of Gaza in specific to provide them with the technological and scientific progress in all life fields. It strengthens the cultural and scientific ties with other institutions (www.iugaza.edu.ps).

Limitations of the Study:

- The academic limit: the study examines collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG.
- The human limit: the study is limited to the fourth level of female and male English and journalism majors of all the academic levels (excellent, very good, good, fair level) at the IUG.
- The time and place limit: the study is conducted within the second semester of the academic year 2007 at the IUG.

Summary:

This chapter provided a relevant introduction to the issue of errors and collocations. Besides, it included the great need of carrying out this study and highlighted the indispensable necessity of collocation mastery for English and journalism majors. It also introduced the study statement of problem, the purpose, the significance, the definitions of terms and the limitations.

Chapter II

Review of Related Literature of Collocations

Introduction

Section I: Theoretical Framework

Section II: An Overview of Related Previous Studies

Summary

Introduction:

This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section presents a theoretical framework which aims at exploring and discussing the main related points to the study. It discusses the historical background of collocations in English and Arabic languages, the importance of collocations for advanced learners, sources of collocations difficulties, types of collocations in English and Arabic, collocation range, markedness and register, treatment of collocations in bilingual and monolingual dictionaries, errors and collocations, role of the native language on dealing with collocations, and pedagogical implications for teaching collocations. The second section of this chapter aims at reviewing the previous studies related to collocation competence of learners of English, and related to collocation errors made by such learners.

Section I

Theoretical Framework

Historical Background

Importance of Collocations for Advanced Learners

Sources of Difficulties

Collocation Types in English

Collocations in Arabic

Collocation Types in Arabic

Collocational Range, Markedness and Register

Treatment of Collocations in Dictionaries

Errors and Collocations

Boundary between Errors and Non-Error

Types of Errors

Approaches to Error Analysis

Role of the Native Language in Dealing with Collocations

Pedagogical Implications of Collocations

Collocation Teaching Principles

Techniques and Activities for Teaching Collocations

Historical Background:

It was some considerable time before vocabulary managed to establish itself as an area of language study in its own right. Ranging from the grammar translation method (1920s-30s), the situational and structurally based Audio Lingual Method (1940s-50s) through to approaches arising from the functional and notional syllabuses in the 1970s, they all viewed the study of lexis from a narrow perspective (Meehan, 2004). In recent years, such view was swept aside particularly when Lewis (1993) has challenged the standard view of dividing language teaching into grammar and vocabulary by arguing that lexical approach is considered as being complementary to grammar-based approaches. He illustrates that the lexical approach concentrates on developing learners' proficiency with words and word combinations. It is based on the idea that an important part of language acquisition is the ability to comprehend and produce lexical phrases as meaningful chunks which become the raw data by which learners perceive patterns of language traditionally thought of as grammar (Lewis, 1993:95, Moudraia, 2001 and Meehan, 2004).

It is apparent that the lexical approach makes a distinction between vocabulary, which was traditionally understood as a stock of individual words with fixed meanings, and lexis, which includes not only single words but also word combinations that are stored in the mental lexicons (Kavaliauskiene and Janulevieene, 2001). Within lexical approach, a special attention is directed to collocations which remain to some extent underexploited despite the essentiality and vitality of such phenomenon in the target language acquisition and learning. As Lewis (1997:204) maintains, "instead of words, we consciously try to think of collocations, and to present these in expressions. Rather than trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, there is a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic ways".

Such growing relationship between words caught the attention of many linguists and researchers in linguistic descriptions over different ages though the technical term *collocations* had not been known (Al Amaira, 2002: 431). In this context, John Rupert Firth (1951) is widely regarded to be the father of bringing the term collocation into prominence in lexical studies (Carter and McCarthy, 1988: 32). Poulsen (2005) documented that Firth's ideas have inspired many linguists, referred to as 'Neo-Firthian Lexicologists'. To a great extent, Howarth (1996: 30) finds that "Neo-Firthian Lexicologists have been primarily interested not in classifying types of collocations, but in the phenomenon of collocation itself and in what it contributes to linguistic meaning as a whole".

Going back to 1927, Palmer started the compilation of a list of collocations, a project in which he was later joined by another Englishman called Albert Sydney Hornby. Palmer's and Hornby's collocation project was the first large-scale analysis of phraseology with the needs of the foreign learner in mind. The findings were published in 1933 as the *Second Interim Report on English Collocations*. While acknowledging the pioneering work of Palmer and Hornby, phraseologists comment critically on Palmer's and Hornby's use of collocation as an inclusive term covering expressions that phraseologists today would typically classify as idioms. So, collocations had not yet won recognition as a technical term in linguistics till the coming of Firth twenty years later (Cowie, 1999:8/52/56 in Poulsen, 2005).

Remarkably, it is noted that many of modern Arabic treatments of collocations stem from the efforts of the School of Firth. Nevertheless, it is perhaps useful to mention that the Arab heritage has wealthy masterpieces of collocational expressions before and after the emergence of Islam. Such expressions are contained in the Holy Quran, the Hadieth, the classic Arabic poetry and proverbs. Over years, the Holy Quran proves its

demonstrated miracle by safeguarding and propagating the Arabic language and its expressions. But the onslaught of colonialism and the sweeping invasion of globalization led some to doubt about the greatness of Arabic language and ignore the unique outstanding efforts of its scholars (Al Amaira, 2002: 433 and Al Didawi, 2003).

In this sense, it is an undeniable fact that an enormous number of Arab pioneers in the linguistic field took the lead before the western scholars, and made substantial contributions to monitoring and analyzing the relationship existing among words. Among those Arab figures are Bin Faris, El Jahez, Bin Quttibah, Bin khaldoun and others. For instance, Bin Khaldoun asserts that languages are similar to industry that woven meanings not only given in single vocabulary, but rather in words compositions and combinations. Bin Khaldoun added that the outmost competence comes out of practice and frequent occurrence of words (Al Amaira (2002: 436).

In modern times, according to Al Amaira (2002: 431-443), many Arab translators have increasingly given recognition to the importance of studying collocations in different fields. That led to the rise of a vibrant movement towards studying such phenomenon and offering specialized dictionaries. Among these recent efforts are of Heliel, Ghazal, Hanash, Hamzawi, and Didawi, M. But it is clear that those remarkable attempts appear explicitly in the field of translation rather than in the field of education. Linguistically speaking, most of the analytical Arab studies of syllabuses had only a dominant feature of doing statistics of the frequency of individual words at the expense of words in combinations. Certainly, it is crucial to point to the need for an understanding of and a concern with the importance of collocations in teaching and learning process.

Why are Collocations Important for Advanced Learners?

It is important to look for the valuable fruit reaped by paying attention to the phenomenon of collocations. Basically, collocations constitute one important and vital aspect of productive vocabulary. Enormous benefits can be gained by teaching and learning collocations. Lewis, (1997:15), Porto (1998), Wei (1999), *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2002: vii), and McCarthy and O'Dell (2005:6) state that the productivity of collocations provides the mental lexicon with a wide range of English word combinations, and leads to a fluent and accurate increase in written and spoken language. In this sense, collocations can give the most natural way to say something: *smoking is **strictly** forbidden* is more natural than *smoking is **strongly** forbidden*. More importantly, language that is collocationally rich is more precise. The precise meaning in any context is determined by the words that surround and combine with the core word by collocation. When students choose the best collocation, they will express themselves much more clearly and be able to convey not just a general meaning, but something quite precise. The following two sentences are illustrative examples: a) *This is **a good book** and contains **a lot of interesting** details.* b) *This is **a fascinating book** and contains **a wealth of historical** detail.* Both sentences are perfectly correct in terms of grammar and vocabulary; but which communicates more about the book under discussion and the person discussing it? Another example, instead of saying *poverty causes crime*, it can be said *poverty **breeds** crime*; instead of saying *a big meal*, it can be said *a **substantial** meal*. Accordingly, collocations give students alternative ways of saying something to be more precise, colorful and expressive.

Additionally, collocations enable learners to avoid overusing a limited number of frequent English collocations. Instead of repeating *it was **very** cold* and ***very** dark*, it can

de said *it was bitterly cold and pitchy dark*. Thanks to that, collocations allow for the expansion of previously acquired knowledge and offer learners the possibility of expressing the same function in increasingly more variable ways. Hence, these examples indicate how collocations improve students' style of writing and speaking, give the text more variety as well as make it read better with a good impression. Students' choice of the right collocation make their speech more natural and more native speaker-like (Porto, 1998, Wei, 1999, *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*, 2002:vii, and McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005:6).

Further to the precise and natural use of language provided by using collocations, collocations permit students to know what kinds of words they can expect to find together. Students' certain expectations about what sorts of information can follow from what have preceded enable them to guess the meaning after hearing the first part of familiar collocations (Nattinger, 1988: 70). For example, *birth control, back and forth, ladies and gentlemen*.

Besides, according to Hill (1999), students with good ideas often lose marks because they do not know four or five most important collocations of a key word that is central to what they are writing about. As a result, such students create longer, wordier ways of defining or discussing the issue which increases the chance of further errors. For example, *His disability will continue until he dies* rather than *He has a permanent disability*. Once grasped, however, collocations enable students not to violate certain lexical restrictions, nor produce incongruities of words segments (Nattinger, 1988: 77). Consequently, this new captivating focus can re-awaken students' interest and enthusiasm in the language as well as their lexicon.

In addition to developing accuracy abilities, collocations prove highly motivating by developing fluency. Pawley and Syder (1983:191) indicate that native speakers have the ability to produce long strings of speech which exceed their capacity for encoding and decoding speech. On the contrary, such capacity is especially acute for foreign language learners. Overwhelmingly, collocations can help learners overcome such constraints because such lexical phrases are stored as wholes to be readily accessible and easily retrievable. To a great extent, learners will be able to organize their speech at discourse level and maintain the flow of conversation (Porto, 1998).

In seeing real advances in their spoken and written language, students will be stimulated to increase their exposure to English and begin to pay considerable attention to the context in which collocations are used appropriately. They will relieve their concentration on each individual word to focus attention on the larger structure of the discourse aspects of the interaction (Nattinger, 1988: 77). Students will recognize that factors such as a difference in status or a social distance in the interaction between the speaker and the hearer can affect the choice of collocational phrases. For example, it would not be acceptable to greet the boss by saying *How's it going?* However, it is all right to greet a friend that way. This example suggests further that knowledge of collocations and formality is important in deciding which collocation to use (Deveci, 2004).

In conclusion, by focusing on teaching and learning collocations, students will be able to produce collocations fluently and accurately rather than merely comprehending word meanings. And they can use appropriate word patterns rather than simply putting individual words together according to English syntactic rules (Wei, 1999). Admittedly, collocations constitute a primary springboard for language development.

Sources of Collocations Difficulty:

Though collocations are essential for teaching and learning a language or across languages, they create potential pitfalls and pose some sorts of difficulty, confusion and frustration to non-native users of a language. There are seven main sources of collocations difficulty:

1. collocations uneasy predictability and low generalisability
2. collocations arbitrariness
3. dealing with collocations as whole combination rather than individual elements
4. collocations cultural specificity
5. learners' lack of frequent use of collocations
6. learners' lower linguistic level
7. tension between achieving accuracy and naturalness

Firstly, the uneasy predictability and low generalisability of collocations stand as a barrier to comprehend and produce them especially in dealing with synonyms or near-synonyms which have quite different sets of collocations. For instance, *carry out*, *undertake* or *perform* are synonyms that may be expected to collocate with *visit*. Yet, English speakers typically use *pays a visit*; less typically use *make a visit*, and they unlikely say *perform a visit* (Baker, 1992:47). Similarly, English speakers typically say *break rules* but they do not say *break regulations*; they typically talk of *wasting time* but not of *squandering time*. In this regard, McCarthy (1990) states that even very advanced learners often make inappropriate or unacceptable collocations because they, mostly, resist tuition and, therefore, require a special and systematic attention (in Gabrielatos, 1994).

Secondly, English learners may face various problems in dealing with collocations because of the collocations arbitrariness which are decided by linguistic conventions.

Palmer, (1976:77) indicates that when *bacon, butter, brains and eggs* go bad, *rancid* occurs only with *bacon and butter*, and *addled* occurs with *brains and eggs*. Though both *rancid* and *addled* mean stale/rotten, *addled butter or bacons* and *rancid brains or eggs* are unacceptable or at least unlikely collocations in English. It could be argued that *rancid* may be used with animal products of a certain type like *bacon and butter*. But why *rancid* does not collocate with *cheese* or *milk*? *Milk* never collocates with *rancid* but only with *sour*. Similarly for another example, *blond* collocates with *hair* but it is unlikely to talk about *a blond door* or *a blond dress*, even if the color is similar to that of blond hair. So, it is clear that there are always restrictions on the way collocations are combined together (Palmer, 1976:76, Baker, 1992:47, and Thornbury, 2002:106).

A third issue that could be a problematic spot to deal with collocations is learners' inability to recognize a collocation as a whole combination is different from the meaning of its individual elements. For example, the meaning of *dry* depends largely on its collocate which is different from the meaning of it in isolation as in the following: *dry cow, dry bread, dry wine, dry sound, dry voice, dry country, dry book, dry humor, dry run*. One may fail recognizing the meaning of *dry* in combination with *voice*, and may mistranslate it in this context as 'a voice that is not moist' while it means cold in the sense of not expressing emotion. Hence, paying attention to the collocational meaning rather than substituting individual words from their dictionary equivalents is crucial especially in translation (Baker, 1992:53).

A fourth difficulty source of collocations can be accounted for the cultural or language-specific feature of collocational expressions. In other words, the kinds of word that go together in one language are often completely different from the kinds of word which live together in another (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989: 67 and Harmer, 2001: 20). These differences exist because every language is the foundation upon which culture rests.

Each language appears to have its own collocation patterns which reflect the speakers' mentality, knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, law, customs, habits and other things (Farghal and Shannaq, 1999: 122). There are a lot of examples that illustrate how if the cultural settings of the source and target languages are significantly different, collocations will be unlikely and not accessible to the target reader. One example, *bread* collocates with *butter* in English but in Arabic, خبز (khubz) 'bread' collocates with ملح (melh) 'salt'. Another example, English collocation *deliver a baby* has يولد امرأة (yuwallidu imra'atan) as an Arabic equivalent. It seems that in the process of childbirth, Arabic focuses on the woman, whereas English prefers to focus on the baby. Hence, it would be unacceptable, under normal circumstances, to speak of delivering a woman in Modern English language (Baker, 1992:61).

A further example represents the cultural collocation specificity is derived from the verses of the Holy Quran. These unique collocations add more beauty and more challenge rather than any book whatever its language is. To give the precise and acute translations for these collocations constitutes another challenge. The following examples are taken from the Glorious Quran translated by Zidan and Zidan (1993):

In any way you can: خفافا و ثقالا (khifafan wa theqalan)

A brackish mud: حمأ مسنون (ham?en masnu:n)

As an old sickle: كالعرجون القديم (kal ?urju:n al kadeem)

The day when you shall be called out: يوم التناد (yawma attanad)

By the even and the odd: والشفع و الوتر (wa ashaf? wa al watr)

The shaking of the hour: زلزلة الساعة (zalzalit ass?a)

There are other great numbers of unlimited collocation examples in the Holy Quran. But looking to the translation of the above Arabic collocations, it is noted how they imply the specific feature of Arabic language and expressions which are uneasy to find

their exact equivalences. For instance, the expressions in *any way you can* خفافا و ثقالا and *the day when you shall be called out* يوم التناد seem to be paraphrasing translations. While the collocations *the shaking of the hour* زلزلة الساعة implies a metaphorical meaning. For an *old sickle* العرجون القديم is a simile taken from the Arab's environment for approximating the meaning to the mentality of the reader, and so on.

All the above examples about collocations cultural specificity suggest that differences in collocational expressions among cultures involve totally different ways of portraying an event (Baker, 1992:61). So, learners have to take into consideration the culture specificity across the languages, which is not an easy matter (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989: 67).

Fifthly, the frequent, spontaneous and appropriate daily use of collocations is an indication of native or near-native command of the language. This is another source of difficulty for non-native speakers (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989: 67 and Harmer, 2001: 20). Most of those native English speakers have internalized a large repertoire of collocations that they use often spontaneously, frequently and naturally without thinking much about them. Accordingly, collocational expressions constitute no problem for them. However, it is not so for the foreign learners who have to learn, and use those very frequent lexical items in formal instruction (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989: 67, William, 2000, and Moras and Carlos, 2001). Taking the collocation *strong tea* as an example, there is nothing in its structure, and this justifies that it is uniquely selected as the standard form among a larger class of synonymous expressions, such as *powerful tea* which is incorrect. This is because the collocational expression *strong tea* is used daily with all acceptance, while *powerful tea* strikes as unusual. If language learners are to achieve native like control, they need to know which of the well-formed sentences are native like. This need to learn "speaking idiomatically" and therefore students need to

be aware of collocational restrictions (Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989: 68, Gabrielatos, 1994 and Saeed, 1997: 60).

A sixth source that constitutes a kind of difficulty on dealing with collocations could be attributed to learners' lack of knowledge or their lower linguistic level competence and proficiency in the target language. In this case, students will be at a distinct disadvantage in understanding collocational figurative expressions (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993 in Mahmoud, 2005 and Cooper, 2000). For example, Baker (1992:47) points out that the English verb *deliver* collocates with a number of nouns; for each one, Arabic uses a different verb. Learners' surface linguistic knowledge may lead them to think that the Arabic dictionary equivalent of *deliver* is only the verb *yusallim*.

English	Arabic
<i>Deliver a letter/telegram</i>	<i>yusallimu khitaaban/tillighraafan</i> يسلم كتابا / تلغرافا
<i>Deliver a speech/lecture</i>	<i>yulqi khutbatan/muhaadaratan</i> يلقي خطبا / محاضرة
<i>Deliver news</i>	<i>yanqilu akhbaaran</i> ينقل أخبارا
<i>Deliver a blow</i>	<i>yuwajjihu darbatan</i> يوجه ضربة
<i>Deliver a verdict</i>	<i>yusdiru hukman</i> يصدر حكما
<i>Deliver a baby</i>	<i>yuwallidu imra'atan</i> يولد امرأة

Seventhly, tension between achieving accuracy and naturalness could be another barrier on dealing with collocations. In this case, Baker (1992:56) observes that some translators ideally aim at producing collocations that are typical in the target language while, at the same time, preserving the accurate meaning associated with the source collocation. This ideal cannot always be achieved, since translation often involves a

difficult choice between what is typical and what is accurate. She indicates that the nearest acceptable collocation in the target language will often involve some change in meaning. This change in meaning could be minimal, or not significant in a given context. On the other hand, it may be significant. For example, *a good or bad law* in English is typically *a just or unjust law* in Arabic. The significance of this difference in meaning depends on whether the issue of *justice* is in focus in a given context or not.

Similarly, Baker (1992:56) mentions another example to illustrate the idea of achieving accuracy and naturalness in translating collocations. The nearest acceptable collocation which can replace *hard drinks* in Arabic is *alcoholic drinks*. But *hard drinks* refer only to spirits in English, for example *whisky, gin, and brandy*. Such *hard drinks* do not include other alcoholic drinks such as *beer, lager, or sherry*. The Arabic collocation, however, refers to any drink, including *beer, lager, sherry, as well as spirits*. Therefore, the meanings of the two collocations do not match completely. Whether the translator tries to achieve the typical Arabic collocation or tries to translate the full meaning of *hard drinks*, this will depend on whether the difference between *hard* and *soft alcoholic drinks* is significant or relevant in a given context. The author emphasizes that in translation, "a certain amount of loss, addition, or skewing of meaning is often unavoidable.... Language systems tend to be too different to produce exact replicas in most cases". Accuracy is no doubt an important aim in translating collocations, but it is also crucial to take into consideration that the use of common target language expressions that are familiar to the target reader plays an important role in keeping the communication channels open. The use of 'established collocations' also helps to distinguish between a smooth translation which seems like an original, and a clumsy translation which sounds foreign as indicated by Baker (1992:56).

To sum up, it can be said that collocations mainly imply two main problems for non-native speakers of English. First is the lack of translational equivalence of collocations between the source language and the target language. Second, collocations need competency on associating suitable words together in the target language itself in order to produce accurate and natural English. Hence, every language learner must be well qualified in dealing with collocations because those expressions occur so frequently in spoken and written English. Accordingly, it is valuable to investigate English and journalism majors' problematic collocational spots in order to empower their abilities to notice word chunks of different kinds, develop their competence in the language and ensure their effective learning of high-priority of lexical collocations.

Collocation Types in English:

Though collocation is a very common and essential language phenomenon, the researcher has found that linguists hold different and overlapping views towards what collocation really is. There are different ways of classifying collocations; below is an outline of seven main models.

Firstly, Benson et. al (1986) present a model for collocation spectrum. They divide it into main two types; grammatical and lexical ones. A grammatical collocation is recurrent word combinations that involve mainly a preposition and a grammatical structure. In the following examples, the prepositions and grammatical structures are italicized (in Wei, 1999):

A) Grammatical Collocations:

1-Grammatical collocations that have a preposition:

-catch up *with/on/to* not *under*

- aware *of* not *with*

2- Grammatical collocations that involve grammatical structures:

-Someone made him *to change* his mind. (make somebody+bare infinitive)

-He was trying to *avoid answering* my questions. (avoid+verb+ing)

B) Lexical Collocation:

Benson et. al (1986) define lexical collocations as phrases consisting of dominant words (noun, adjective, verb and a preposition). They are in contrast to grammatical collocations, and normally do not contain prepositions, infinitives, or clauses. Typical lexical collocations consist of seven sub-categories (in Gabrielatos, 1994 and Wei, 1999):

-noun+noun: *a pride of lions*

- adjective+noun: *a crushing defeat*

- verb+noun: *inflect a wound*

- noun +verb: *blizzards rage*

- adverb+adjective: *deeply absorbed*

- verb + adverb: *appreciate sincerely*

Benson et. al (1986) model for lexical collocation seems to expand its framework to encompass a very wide range of data by including both lexical and grammatical categories (Wei, 1999).

The second model is the *BBI* category of lexical collocations which comprises seven lexical sub-categories similar to Benson et. al (1986) model:

1. verb + noun or pronoun, the verb denotes creation or activation (*reach a verdict, launch a missile*)
2. verb + noun, the verb denotes eradication or nullification (*reverse a decision, repeal a law*)

3. adjective + noun (*strong tea, not *mighty tea*)
4. noun + verb, the verb names an action characteristic of the person or thing designated by the noun (*bees buzz, bombs explode* etc.)
5. unit associated with a noun (*a school of whales, an act of violence*)
6. adverb + adjective (*deeply absorbed, keenly aware*)
7. verb + adverb (*affect deeply, appreciate sincerely*)

Thirdly, Hill (2000) states that collocations can lexically consist of two or more words and contain the following elements:

1. adjective + noun: *a huge profit*
2. noun + noun: *a pocket calculator*
3. verb + adjective + noun : *learn a foreign language*
4. verb + adverb : *live dangerously*
5. adverb + verb : *half understand*
6. adverb + adjective : *completely soaked*
7. verb + preposition + noun : *speak through an interpreter*

Comparatively, it seems that Hill (2000) agrees with Benson et al (1986) and BBI category on dividing lexical category into seven sub-categories but he omits some elements and substitutes others with more than two elements. Also, he adds that some collocations can be longer; for example, adverb + verb + adjective + noun + preposition + noun as in *seriously affect the political situation in (Northern Ireland)*, described as a semi-fixed expression.

The fourth model is similar to the previous lexical models; *Oxford Collocations*

Dictionary for Students of English (2002:ix) lists a full range of collocations that covers

all the following types of combinations:

1. adjective + noun: *bright/ harsh/intense/ strong light*
2. quantifier + noun: *a beam/ray of light*
3. verb + noun: *cast/ emit/ give/ provide/ shed light*
4. noun + verb: *light gleams/ glows/ shines*
5. noun + noun: *a light source*
6. preposition + noun: *by the light of the moon*
7. noun + preposition: *the light from the window*
8. adverb + verb: *choose carefully*
9. verb + verb: *be free to choose*
10. verb + preposition: *choose between two things*
11. verb + adjective: *make/ keep/ declare something safe*
12. adverb + adjective: *perfectly/not entirely/ environmentally safe*

13. adjective + preposition: safe *from attack*
14. short phrases including the headword: *the speed of light, pick and choose, safe and sound*

Obviously, this model includes the main seven sub-categories of lexical collocations like Benson et. al (1986) model and *BBI* category. But it adds grammatical collocations sub-categories that include prepositions.

Fifthly, in a related direction, McCarthy and O'Dell (2005) present six categories as examples (adjectives and nouns), (nouns and adverbs), (nouns and nouns), (verbs and expressions with prepositions), (verbs and adverbs) and (adverbs and adjectives). In addition, they state that it is not always easy to separate collocations and compounds as important and useful parts of vocabulary. Thus, they include compounds as a category of collocation. They indicate the idioms are also groups of co-occurring words but in a fixed order that have a meaning which cannot be guessed by knowing the meaning of the individual words. Thus, they prefer to deal with idioms separately.

Similarly, Baker's (1992: 63) point of view towards not considering idioms as collocation type, matches totally with McCarthy's and O'Dell's (2005) one. Baker makes a discrete distinction between collocations and idioms. Baker states that although the meaning of a word often depends on its association with other words, the word has an individual meaning in a given collocation. For example, *dry cow* means a cow which does not produce milk. Still, such particular meaning associated with the word *dry* can be identified in this collocation, and of course, *cow* retains its familiar meaning of *a farm animal kept for its milk*. On the other pole, in the case of idioms, they often carry meanings which cannot be deduced from their individual components such as *bury the hatchet* 'to become friendly again after a disagreement or a quarrel'. Another distinction between collocations and idioms implies that the former has fairly flexible patterns of

language which allow several variations in form. For example, *deliver a letter, delivery of a letter, a letter has been delivered, and having delivered a letter* are all acceptable collocations. In contrast, idioms and fixed expressions resist variation in form (Baker, 1992: 64). Baker and McCarthy (1988) quote a conference speaker on a BBC radio as saying "there was too much *buck passing*". The common form of the idiom is *pass the buck* (in Baker, 1992: 64). In short, idioms are at the extreme end of the scale from collocation in one or both of these areas: flexibility of patterning and transparency of meaning. They are frozen patterns of language which allow little or no variation in form under normal circumstances.

Obviously, in a different way of grouping the lexical collocations, it has been found that other linguists attempt to classify lexical collocations according to their degree of fixity of their constituents. For instance, the sixth model to be mentioned in this essence is that of Carter (1987 in Taiwo, 2004). He presents the following spectrum of collocations:

-Free Combinations:

-*run a risk or a business, make an attempt or way*

-Restricted Combinations:

1- Adjective + noun: *hardened criminal, extenuating circumstance*

2- adverb + verb: *readily admit, totally unaware*

3- verb + noun: *renovate house, shrug shoulder*

4. noun + verb: *brake screech, cloud drift*

-Multi- Word Expressions:

- irreversible binominals: *part and parcel, leaps and bounds*

- phrasal verb: *pull out, give up*

- idioms: *to take the bull by the horns, to set the ball rolling*

As being observed, Carter (1987) considers both free combinations and idioms as collocations. He includes multi-word chunks and binominals as collocations because they give a broader scope for lexical collocations.

Seventhly, Lewis (1998 in Deveci, 2004) and *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2002) present collocation strictness from another view. They propose the following classifications for collocation strengths:

-Strong: A large number of collocations are strong or very strong. For example, the collocational expression *rancid butter* is strong and it is commonly used, but that does not mean that other things cannot be rancid.

-Weak: These are words which co-occur with a greater than random frequency. Many things can be long or short, cheap or expensive, good or bad. However, some things are more predictable, which could be called collocation; for example, *white wine* or *red wine*.

-Medium strength: These are words that go together with a greater frequency than weak collocations. Some examples are: *hold a meeting*, *carry out a study*, *see a doctor*.

Though different views are addressed above regarding collocation types, it can be said that they all share the same idea which is the way that words co-occur precisely in combination to be considered as normal and acceptable in a language.

Collocations in Arabic:

Investigating the competence of students in translating collocations from English to Arabic and vice versa is one purpose of the study. It is valuable and important to

explore collocations in Arabic language as it has been done with collocations in English previously.

Actually, Arabic language has a wealth of collocations. Careful analysis of Arabic collocations may indicate that they hold semantic relations among their constituents than any thing else. For instance, the noun جريمة (jari:ma) 'crime' collocates with the adjective نكراء (nakra?) 'detestable' because of the semantic relationship between the meanings that the two words designate. As known in Arabic, the adjective نكراء is used to express a sense of strong detest to something; thus, it seems natural to describe جريمة 'crime' as نكراء 'detestable' due to its horrific, violent and harmful nature. A crime usually affects a community rather than just an individual. Hence, using the sense of 'detest' by the people seems to be more appropriate than other senses expressed by other adjectives of negative sense (Hafiz, 2002:95-97). It can be said that such semantic relationship holding between collocated words accounts for limited number of choosing words that collocate with others as it is clear in the example of جريمة نكراء. Another illustrative example, Shvitiel et al (2004) states that having the noun جريمة 'crime' in mind and seeking a verb that combines it and denotes the outrageous action of doing it, only the verbs يرتكب or يقترب (yartakibu or yaktarifu) 'commit or perpetrate' can be used.

However, understanding such semantic relationship between collocated words may be easier in the Arabic collocations than English. The semantic origins of most Arabic words have been recorded by early Arab linguists; that can facilitate the process of understanding the semantic relationship of words in a given collocation. For collocations in English, it may be very difficult to identify a semantic relationship that explains collocability of words like *explode an idea* or *strong tea*. In other words, what is it in the meaning of the word *explode* that allows it to combine with *idea*? If

sufficient knowledge of the root meanings of words is available, one could have been more capable of explaining the mutual expectancies of words combinations and could be able to determine whether they are semantic or not (Hafiz, 2002:98).

Worth mentioning, collocations in Arabic will not often be equal in English because transferring collocations from one language to another is transferring from one linguistic semantic system to another and from one culture to another (Heliel, 2002:62). Heliel (1989) gives an example of seven collocations with the English adjective *heavy* that should be in Arabic translated with seven different adjectives. *Heavy: rainfall, fog, sleep, seas, meal, smoker, industry* are translated in Arabic as: *مطر غزير، ضباب كثيف، صناعة ثقيلة، سبات عميق، بحار هائجة، وجبة دسمة، مدخن مفراط، صناعة ثقيلة* (mattarun ghazi:r, dabadun kathi:f, subatun ?ami:q, beharun ha?eja, wajbatun dasema, muddakhenun mufret, sena?atun thaqi:la) (in Shivtiel et al., 2004).

Collocation Types in Arabic:

Arab linguists provide different classifications for collocations in Arabic. The following classification of collocations was published by Emery (1991):

1. Open Collocations: they are combinations of two or more words co-occurring together without any specific relation between those two words. Each element is used in a common literal sense. For example: *انتَهت الحرب، بدأت الحرب* (intahat el harb / bada?t el harb)

2. Restricted Collocations: they are combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular, non-idiomatic meanings, following certain structural patterns, and restricted in their commutability not only by grammatical and semantic valence, but also by usage. Examples are: *جريمة نكراء، أحرز تقدما ، خسارات جسمية، حرب ضروس*

(jari:ma nakra'a / ?hrazza taqduman / khasaratun jassema / harbun daru:s)

3. Bound Collocations: they constitute a bridge category between collocations and idioms. One of the elements is uniquely selective of the other. For example: أطرق الرأس:

(?ttraqu arra?s)

4. Idioms: the constituent elements of idioms are opaque, i.e. used in specialized senses, together forming a single semantic unit.

In this context, Shvitiel et. al (2004) concentrate on *restricted collocations* as they argue that such type causes problems in producing collocations in the target language. They state that the category of *open collocations* does not deserve special attention from the teacher's or translator's point of view. The *bound collocations* category seems interesting from a linguistic scientific point of view, but rather limited in occurrence. Idioms are of interest to anyone but should be studied separately.

Adding to what Shvitiel et. al (2004) mentioned, Emery (1991) remarks that the *restricted collocations* category occurs in various types of syntactic configuration in the Arabic language: (subject/verb, verb/object and adjective/noun collocations). So, Emery makes a distinction that is partly syntactic (subject/verb, verb/object) and partly based on parts of speech (adjective/noun).

On the other end, Shvitiel et. al (2004) classify *restricted collocations* in Arabic into:

1. noun + verb: the noun is the subject, and in some cases the verb is passive. For example:

اشتدت الأزمة، تضاعل الأمل، انخفض السعر، هبط السعر، استغرقت المدة، اكتنف الغموض، أفادت الأنباء
شوهت الصورة، صعدت الأوضاع
(ishtadat al ?zma / tada?ala al ?malu / inkhafada ass?eru / ista?rakat al mudda / ?ktanafa
al ?mu:d/ ?fadat al ?nba'a / shwahat assu:rah/ suedat al ?wda'a)

2. noun + verb: the noun is the object such as:

قدّم وعوداً، أحلّ سلاماً، أحرز تقدماً، مارس تعسفاً، زرع الاستقرار، منح جائزة
(qadama wu:dan / ?hraza taqduman / marasa ta?sufan / za?z? a al issteqraru / manaha
ja?ezatan)

3. preposition + noun + verb: the noun is the indirect object after a preposition that comes with the verb like:

اعتذر عن مضايقة، سعى الى غرض، اختار بين بدائل، تعرض لمخاطر، عبّر عن تقدير
(?itazara ?an mudaiaka / sa?a ela ghard / ta?rada lemakhater / ?bara ?an taqdi:r)

4. noun + adjective:

اكتفاء ذاتي، جهد ضخم، أغلبية مطلقة، علاقات قوية، قضايا ملحة، حاجز نفسي
(?iktefa'a zati / juhdu dakhm / ?ghlabiatun mutlaqat / ?lakatun kawia / kadia muleha/
hajezun nafsi)

5. noun + noun: it is a construct phrase (means إضافة *idafa*) such as:

صندوق اقتراح، قائمة منتجات، تسلسل أحداث، مظاهرة احتجاج، نظام ترخيص، قطار شحن
(sundu:ku ?qtera'a / qa?ematu muntajat / taslsulu ?hdath / muzaharatu ?ihtejaj / nezamu
tarkhi:s / kittaru shahn)

6. verb + adverb:

أنتج بالجملة، نقد بدقة، اتصل هاتفياً، تعارض بشدة، اعتقد واهماً، علم يقيناً
(?ntaja be al jummlah/ nafaza bedekah / ?ittasala hatefian / ta?rada besheda / ?itaqada
waheman / ?alema yaqi:nan)

7. adjective + adverb :

محدود للغاية، صعب للغاية (Mahdu:dun lelghaia / Sa?bun lelghaia)

8. noun + preposition + noun:

شبكة من الطرق، خطر على استقرار، صراع على السلطة، أسلوب في التفكير
(shabakatun mena atturuk / khattarun ?ala ?istekrar / sera?un ?ala assultta / ?uslu:bun fi:
attafki:r)

9. adjective + noun:

حسن الوجه، حسن التجهيز، وفير الجدارة، قصير الأجل، شديد اللهجة، متعدد الجنسيات، واسع النطاق
(hassanu alwajh, hassanu atajhi:z / waif:ru al jaddara / qasi:ru al ?ajal / shadi:du al lahja
/ mutta?adedu al jensiat / wase?u ?anettaq)

In addition to these categories, there are often combinations of synonyms or antonyms used in Arabic language. These categories can be added to the above mentioned categories:

- **word + synonym:** أحداث وتيارات (?ahdathun wa tayaratun)

- **word + antonym:** شحن وتفريغ، طار وأخفق، أفلع وهبط، زيادة ونقصان، مقرّ وفروع
(shanun wa tafri:gh / tara wa ?akhfaq / ?qla? wa habit / zeadah wa nuksan/ makarun wa
furu:?)

It is apparent that Emery's (1991) and Shvitiel et. al's (2004) classifications of Arabic collocations nearly resemble Carter's (1987) English one. However, Harmer (2001) emphasizes that the kinds of words which go together in one language are often completely different from the kinds of word which live together in another language. Therefore, Shvitiel et al (2004) indicate that translators or interpreters should possess a high syntactic competence alongside their pragmatic competence on dealing with this key component to produce a natural language. Accordingly, unnaturalness comes as an immediate consequence of the translators' or interpreters' inability to call up the relevant collocations in the target language.

The above mentioned types of collocations in English and Arabic help the researcher formulate the second dimension model of this study. Attention is paid to only the lexical collocations because lexis is the main domain in this study. Lexical collocations in this study are grouped in four categories: the first category is called *range* which is meant in this context as core words that occur within a range of frequent set of associations and coin expressions. For example, the word *break* has a set of associations with different meanings such as *break news*, *take break*, *break the law*, and *break the strike*. A similar explanation of *the collocational range* is given by Baker (1992:50) in the next section. It is important to note that Baker uses *range* as a criterion while the researcher uses it as a type. In this model, this category of *collocational range* includes: (verbs and nouns), (nouns and nouns), (adjectives and nouns), (adverbs and verbs), and (verbs with prepositions). These sub-categories contain the basic lexical parts of speech. The second category includes *collective nouns* which are used to describe a group of the same things such as 'a school of whales' (McCarthy and O'Dell, 1994:58). The third category includes *binominals* which refer to two words that are joined by a conjunction such as 'sink or swim'(McCarthy and O'Dell, 1994:158). Finally, the fourth category includes

compounds which made up of two words that written usually with a hyphen such as 'quick-witted' (McCarthy and O'Dell, 1994:26). The reason beyond encompassing the above-mentioned categories refers to their importance as useful parts of vocabulary. Also, they imply the main semantic characteristic of collocations which is frequent and restricted word associations. For *idioms*, they are not focused on here because they need a special attention separately.

Collocational Range, Markedness and Register:

After listing the main types of collocations, the question that can be raised here implies a question "are there clear-cut criteria for which collocations can be acceptable and typical and which cannot be? According to McIntosh (1961, in Carter and McCarthy, 1988:33) and Baker (1992:50), *collocation range* is one of the criteria for deciding typical collocations. Every word in a language can be said to have a range of items. *Range* here refers to the set of collocates which are associated with the word. Some words have more collocational range than others. For instance, the English verb *shrug* has a limited collocational range. Typically, it occurs with *shoulders* and does not have a strong link with any other word in the language. *Run*, by contrast, has a vast collocational range like: *company, business, show, car, stocking, tights, nose, wild, debt, bill, river, course, water, and color*.

In this context, Beakman and Callow (1974 in Baker, 1992:50) state two main factors that can influence the collocational range of an item. The first is its level of specificity: the more general a word is, the broader its collocational range is. However, the more specific a word is, the more restricted its collocational range is. For example, the verb *bury* has much wider collocational range than any of its synonyms like *inter* or *entomb*. Only *people* can be *interred*, but one can bury *people, treasure, his/her head, face,*

feelings, and memories. The second factor that determines the collocational range of an item is the number of senses it has. When the word has several senses, it tends to attract a different set of collocations for each case. As an example, in its sense of *manage*, the verb *run* collocates with words like *company, institution, and business*. In its sense of *operate or provide*, it collocates with words like *service and course*.

Beside *collocation range*, patterns of collocation which have a history of recurrence in the language become part of the linguistic repertoire. By contrast, collocations that have little or no history of recurrence catch attention to be unusual or *marked collocations*. For instance, *compulsive gambler* is a common collocation in English whereas *heavy smoker* represents an attempt to extend the range of *heavy* to include *heavy gambler*, by analogy with *heavy smoker* and *heavy drinker*. However, this kind of natural extension of a range is less striking than *marked collocations* which are unusual combinations of words. The *marked collocations* are often used in fiction, poetry, humor, and advertisements because they can create unusual images, produce laughter and catch the reader's attention. For example, *war normally breaks out, but peace prevails*. These unmarked collocations suggest that war is a temporary and undesirable situation and that peace is a normal and desirable one. But an extract from John Le Carre's poem *The Russia House*, the image is the opposite; the author says "Could real peace break out after all?" conveying an unexpected image of peace being an abnormal, temporary, and possibly an undesirable situation. Thus, new collocations are born by extending an existing range or by deliberately putting words together from opposing ranges (Baker, 1992: 51-52).

Nevertheless, it is notably that everyday collocations are more familiar despite different occupations, special interests, or hobbies. However, some collocations may seem untypical in everyday language but are common in specific registers. For example, in

statistics, collocations such as *biased error* and *tolerable error* are common and acceptable. A reader who is not familiar with the register of statistics may wrongly assume that these collocations are marked. Collocational markedness is not an absolute quality; it depends on the given register. Even being a native speaker of a language does not automatically mean that the translator can assess the acceptability or typicality of register collocations. In this regard, courses in specialized language form an important component of translation syllabuses for specific purposes (Carter and McCarthy, 1988:36 and Baker, 1992:52).

In spite of the above mentioned criteria for collocational typicality, there is nothing called an impossible collocation and it is not necessary to immediately dismiss new and unusual combinations of words that occur frequently. This is because the collocational ranges are not fixed. An important feature of language change is *range-extension* in which a word with limited range might increase its range by attracting new patterns. For instance, *software* in computer parlance is an extension of the previously limited *hardware*. Therefore, all time, words attract new collocates; they do so naturally through the process of analogy (Carter and McCarthy, 1988:33 and Baker, 1992:52).

Treatment of Collocations in Dictionaries:

Though range and frequent occurrences of collocations are possible ways to determine common collocations, there must be a trusted and respected repository of facts and data about these lexical expressions. Dictionaries are thought to be reliable sources that cover the language systematically from A to Z. In case of dealing with collocations, dictionaries must be in question. The two main related questions that might be asked are: how do bilingual and monolingual dictionaries treat collocations? Do bilingual

dictionaries, particularly those containing Arabic comprise collocations of the source language or the target language?

Regarding the first question, normal dictionaries, whether monolingual or bilingual, split up the meaning into individual words. Though normal dictionaries have a lot of power in explaining the meaning of a text, their power is more limited when it comes to constructing texts. Further, although modern dictionaries are increasingly giving attention to collocations, they are still hampered because they provide a whole range of information about any word beside its collocations. However, recent collocations dictionaries cover a word and its appropriate collocation. In addition, grammatical information is involved in collocation dictionaries by presenting collocations in their most typical forms in context. For example, in the Oxford Collocations Dictionary, at the entry for *baby*, the collocation *be teething* reflects the fact that this verb is always used in the progressive tenses (Oxford Collocations Dictionary, 2002: viii).

Since general learner dictionaries may not provide enough information on semi-fixed expressions, learners' errors in this case are expected to increase (Hunt, 1997). When students produce errors like *John rescued my life*, McCarthy (1990 in Hunt, 1997) points out that dictionaries entries often do not state clearly that it is preferable to say or write *John save my life* to prevent learners from making this error. However, it may be unreasonable to expect general learners' dictionaries to cover comprehensively many learners' errors. Such information may be better placed in specialized learners' dictionaries which focus on common errors for a special language group such as with Japanese learners or Arab ones. This would be effective especially when the error is due to literal translation. On the other hand, if certain learners' errors such as *rescued my life* are common across cultures, then this type of information could enhance the usefulness of these general dictionaries for productive purposes.

In this context, comparing general bilingual dictionaries to monolingual ones, Hunt (1997) states that one of the limitations of most bilingual dictionaries is that though they include some collocational and grammatical information, they offer less information than monolingual dictionaries. Also, though many words especially concrete nouns can be translated to provide reasonably accurate equivalents, bilingual dictionaries must be used with care. Learners need to know that a bilingual dictionary may not offer the meaning according to their frequency of use and usually cannot provide as much as English context as monolingual dictionaries. Accordingly, bilingual dictionaries will not give the user as full understanding about the range of collocations, grammatical patterns and situations which the word can be used.

Adding to the disadvantages of using the pocket-sized bilingual dictionaries is that some students rely primarily on overusing such dictionaries where common terms were rarely used. In this regard, Hunt (1997) warns that the most serious disadvantage of bilingual dictionaries is that they can reinforce a native view of language. In other words, these dictionaries may be used in a way that encourages learners to work on an individual work basis. Thus, many learners believe that a single English word necessarily has a corresponding synonym. They seem reluctant to devote an extra effort for using monolingual dictionary. However, such required extra effort could be advantageous for language learning.

At the time that bilingual dictionaries are heavily focused on, very little time is devoted to train students on how to use monolingual dictionaries. Consequently, students may not know how to examine carefully the elements of an entry, especially, the words of higher frequency. Also, they may not know how to examine the usages connected to these words as the meaning of the individual words are often not independent from the words that surround them (Hunt, 1997).

For Arabic bilingual and monolingual dictionaries, Heliel (2002:55) demonstrates that one of the defects of the bilingual Arabic-English dictionaries relates to the insufficient coverage and usage of collocations. This argument comes in his attempts of pinpointing the fundamental defects in three bilingual unabridged Arabic-English dictionaries: *Modern Written Arabic (MWA) (1961)*, *Al-Mawrid (1988)* and *Al Mughani (1999)*. None of these bilingual dictionaries can help the translator develop a high degree of proficiency in collocational usage and control. Similarly, Emery (1991) argues that classical lexicographers of Arabic designed classical dictionaries that contain a wealthy amount of collocational information; unfortunately, those collocations are addressed in an unsystematic arrangement because they were neither classified nor organized.

Despite the existence of collocations in Arabic, Ghazi (2007) points out that Arabic lacks monolingual and bilingual dictionaries specialized in collocations which leaves the recipients move between the dictionaries of the two languages consulting for the appropriate correspondence of a given collocation. Emery (1991) claims that both monolingual Arabic dictionaries and bilingual dictionaries do not exist up-to-date though such dictionaries are essential for the advanced learners and users of Arabic and English language (often diplomats, journalists, professionals, businessmen and translators). Their need for such references seems to be evident to help them overcome difficulties they often encounter and avoid embarrassing errors they often make while speaking, writing and translating (Hafiz, 2002: 95). So, in a very rare recent attempt, Hafiz (2004) compiled a combinatory dictionary of Arabic collocations called *Al Hafiz Arabic Collocations Dictionary: The First of its Kind in the Arabic Language Illustrated in Sentences (Arabic-English)*.

Catching another glimpse to the prominent role of Arabic dictionaries, *Addustour Newspaper* (2001) documented that many linguists, like Shannaq and Heliel who

participated in an international conference of the language and translation, emphasize that contemporary Arabic dictionaries play a serious role, particularly, in the field of translating collocations. They state that Arab universities, Arabic language and translation associations along with research centers must make greater efforts to solve many of the problems of Arab dictionaries and overcome the pitfalls in order to serve eventually the beauty of Arabic language in the field of translation. So far, Arabic dictionaries must perform the required mission successfully in following-up new collocations in the time of rapid development of information and knowledge.

For the second question: whether the bilingual dictionaries comprise collocations of the source language or the target language, most bilingual dictionaries contain collocations of the source language as a point of departure. A translation or paraphrasing of a specific combination is given in the target language. The target expression does not necessarily have to be a collocation. An English-Arabic dictionary will primarily contain collocations of entries in English with equivalent translations in Arabic. These Arabic equivalents do not necessarily have to be collocations (Shiviel et. al, 2004). Farghal and Shannaq (1999:123) show some examples of Arabic collocational ranges to illustrate that a source language does not match their English counterparts and vice versa:

-Arabic Collocations (SL):

-قسمة و نصيب (kema wa nasi:b)	<i>destiny</i>
- قضاء و قدر (kadda'aun wa kadar)	<i>fate</i>
- حلال و حرام (halalun wa haram)	<i>lawful and unlawful</i>
- زيت و زعتر (zaitun wa za'tar)	<i>oil and thymes(Zatar)</i>
- صحة و عافية (saha wa ?afia)	<i>well(health)</i>

-English Collocations (SL):

-Fish and chips	سمك و شرحات بطاطا (samakun wa sharhat patata)
-Bed and breakfast	فطور و مبيت (futu:run wa mabi:t)
-Alive and kicking	حي يرزق (hayun yurzaq)
-As beautiful as a lark	مثل القمر (methlu al kamar)
-A school of whales	سرب من الحيتان (serbun mena al hittan)

The literal translation of some English collocations into Arabic or vice versa may produce unnatural and sometimes comic effects. For instance, the literal translation of *Alive and kicking* حي ويرفس (hayun wa yarfus), *As beautiful as a lark* جميلة كالقبرة (jammilatun kalquburah), *A school of whales* مدرسة من الحيتان (maddarastu hittan) (Farghal and Shannaq, 1999:123).

Errors and Collocations:

As the researcher's concern is investigating collocation errors, it is essential not to neglect what linguists contribute to the area of errors. Errors have become a field of interest not only for teachers but for linguists and psychologists as well (Gass and Selinker, 1994: 66-67). Dulay and Burt (1974:95) state that errors have played an important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in examining second and foreign language acquisition in particular. In the applied linguistics community, it was Corder (1967:19-27) who first advocated the importance of errors in language learning process. From the errors that learners make, one can determine their level of mastery of the language system (Corder, 1967:25). He observed that the learners' errors are indicative both of the state of the learners' knowledge and the ways in which a second language is learned.

It can be said that linguists pay considerable attention to language errors in a broad sense. Thus, the researcher can narrow down this general view of exploring errors into investigating collocation errors in particular.

Boundary between Error and Non-Error:

There is a distinction between errors and non-errors. Foreign language learners make *errors* largely and systematically because of the paucity of their knowledge of the target language. In this case, they have not learnt the correct form. Once they have been taught

or have noticed that native speakers do not produce such forms, it is supposed that those learners will say or write these forms consistently. In the case that the learners produce right forms, but in other times they are unable to produce the accurate one, these inconsistent deviations are called *mistakes*. Also, mistakes can be self-corrected while errors cannot be. Hence, errors are systematic deviations that occur repeatedly and they are not recognized by the learner. Yet, there is another type of wrong usage which is neither a mistake nor an error and can happen to anyone at any time. This is described as *slips of the tongue* or *slips of the pen* which may be due to lack of concentration, shortness of memory, fatigue. Native speakers suffer from producing slips in the same way as learners of the language. For example, a presenter of BBC's Radio 4 said: achieving *to strive* instead of *striving to achieve* (Corder, 1967:17-27, Norrish, 1994: 6-8, Lengo, 1995, Elilis, 1997 in Bhela, 1999, and James, 1998).

Types of Errors:

There are different ways of categorizing errors. First, they can be divided into two main categories (Corder, 1967:19-27 and Richards, 1971:172-181):

- **Interlingual Transfer/ Interference Errors:** those errors are caused by the influence of the native language in areas that languages differ markedly. Those errors are interpreted as a manifestation of the learner's hypothesis that the new language is just like the native language.

- **Intralingual Errors:** those errors arise from properties of the target language itself.

Unlike interference errors, intralingual errors arise from properties of the target language.

Second, according to Corder (1973:277), errors fall into four main categories: *omission* of some required element; *addition* of some unnecessary or incorrect element; *selection* of an incorrect element; and *misordering* of elements. The details are as following:

-Omission: Certain linguistic forms may be omitted by learners because of the forms complexity in production. For example, there are a number of fixed expressions or idioms in English characterized by omission of certain syntactic elements. For example, *Beg your pardon? Long time no see. Had a nice day?*

-Addition: Learners not only omit elements which they regard as redundant but they also add redundant elements. At the lexical level, learners may add an unnecessary word. For example, *I stayed there during five years ago* , instead of *I stayed there for five year*

-Selection: Sometimes, learners make errors due to the wrong selection of vocabulary item. For instance, learners sometimes select words which do not entirely convey their intended meanings. *A robin* may simply be referred to as *a bird*.

-Ordering: At the lexical level learners may reverse elements of a compound word. *Car key* may become *key car*, which may be regarded as a car carrying keys or the most important car in a caravan.

Third, errors can be *diagnostic* and *prognostic*. *Diagnostic errors* indicate the learners' state of the language at a given point during the learning process. *Prognostic errors* inform course organizers to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learners' current problems (Corder, 1967:19-27).

Fourth, errors types can be formed in other classifications. These classifications receive different terminologies other than *error types*. Such terminologies include: *types and causes* (Richards and Sampson, 1974:6-17, Richards, 1971: 172-181, Ravem; 1968:124-131, Norrish, 1994:28-40 and Vrbinc, 2005), *processes* (Selinker, 1972:37), *strategies* (Littlewood, 1984:22/85 and Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah, 2003) and *factors* (Mohideen, 1996). Below is an outline of such errors classifications which all relate approximately to the context of the study:

-Overgeneralization / Faulty Generalization / False Analogy / False Concepts

Hypothesized: expanding a certain form or expression to a different contextual use in the target language

Example: interpreting كسر عطشه (*kasarah ?atashahu*) simply as بل ريقه (*balla ri:gahu*) then translating it into *witted his thirst* instead of *quench thirst*

-Literal Translation: manipulating the native language into the target language production in case of lacking necessary knowledge relevant to the target language

Example: **broke the fork of the enemy* as a literal translation of كسرت شوكة العدو (*kuserat shawkatu el?aduwwu*) instead of *eliminate the enemy's power*

-Words Coinage: creating new words or phrases which are usually non-existent to convey the intended meaning

Example: **water-holder* instead of *bucket*

-Avoidance: refraining from giving responses

-Paraphrasing and Circumlocution: describing the characteristics of the target object or action because of unfamiliarity with the appropriate item

Example: *the person who tests our eyes* instead of *optician*

-Assumed Synonyms: using synonymous words that share with the term certain semantic properties

Example: *the enemy was failed* instead of *defeated*

-Approximation: using words which are less specific than the intended meaning to express the meaning as closely as possible

Example: *fruit* instead of *pineapple* or *knife* instead of *bread knife*

-Imitation of Literary Style: selecting big sounding words that make their target statements more impressive and literary-like

Example: *shattered silence* instead of *break silence*

-Graphic Ambiguity: certain forms have similar orthographical scripts.

Example: *principle* and *principal*

A considerable note that can be made in this regard is that in many instances, it is not an easy matter to make a clear-cut decision for attributing the collocational error to only one of the above-mentioned types. Probably, many processes might equally occur simultaneously and reinforce each other (Littlewood, 1984:27). For example, when some Arabic learners of English says *open the radio* instead of *turn on the radio*, this error may be a literary translation of the Arabic colloquial expression *افتح الراديو* (*iftah erradio*) or it may be an overgeneralization error, as the learners may generalize *open the door/window* and say erroneously *open the radio*. Another example, *shattered silence* instead of *break silence* can be a false analogy to *مزق جدار الصمت* (*mazzaqa jeddara assamt*) or it may be an imitation of a literary style as mentioned above.

In the current study, the term *error types* is adopted and used for specific reasons. Most of the other terminologies such as *sources*, *causes*, and *factors* potentially imply a broader meaning rather than *error types*. Such a broad meaning may extend to include

teaching methods, teaching materials, and others. However, the term *error type* implies narrowing meaning. For the term *strategies*, the researcher believes that strategies are adopted means by students that lead to errors types. Finally, it is not easy to draw boundaries among these terms because they are overlapping and argumentative among linguists and researchers.

Approaches to Error Analysis:

The growing interest of investigating errors types led apparently to the rise of error analysis. Error analysis can be defined as an examination of those errors committed by learners in both spoken and written medium (Mohideen, 1996). It is worth noting that error analysis gives a picture of the type of difficulty learners are experiencing (Norrish, 1994: 80). Richards (1984: 1) justifies the importance of error analysis as it functions as input to theoretical discussion. In the phase of evaluation, error analysis offers appropriate feedback to the design of remedial curricula. Similarly, Mohideen (1996) indicates that error analysis is useful in ESL/EFL because it reveals the problematic areas to language teachers, syllabus designers and textbook writers. In this regard, due to the fact that foreign language learners lack the automation of collocations which may result in errors that hinder their learning English, the analysis of collocation errors is strongly believed to be adopted in this study as an effective way to help English language students overcome difficulties.

Various approaches to error analysis are formed basically for investigating errors. Corder (1971:158-171) identified a representative model for error analysis. His model can be summarized as followed. The initial step requires the **selection** of a corpus of language followed by an **identification** of errors. The errors are then **classified**. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, it is demanded to give an

explanation of different types of errors. Gass and Selinker (1994: 67) add additional two steps: analyzing **sources** of error, and **offering remedy** for errors.

In another attempt for analyzing errors, Norrish (1994: 81) states that there are fundamentally two main approaches to error analysis. The first one is to set up categories of errors, based on a set of preconceptions about the learners' most common problems. This approach has an advantage of being easier and quicker to carry out because errors are indicated on a list of categories. However, the drawback of this approach is that the issue is prejudged, since errors can be sorted out only in terms of predetermined error types. The second approach is to group the errors as they are collected in particular areas. Such approach has the advantage of allowing the errors themselves to determine the categories chosen. By a process of sorting and re-sorting errors, the categories will eventually define themselves.

From the standpoint of the researcher, it can be stated that Corder's approach (1971:158-171) to error analysis matches with the second approach offered by Norrish (1994: 80) because both approaches basically tend to identify errors types and classify them from the corpus itself. The mechanism of error analysis which is followed in this study is developed in the light of Corder's approach along with the prescription approach of error analysis mentioned by Norrish. In other words, the researcher sets three categories of collocation errors types. The first category examines collocation error types out of the students' responses. For the other two categories of collocation types, they are prescribed to determine errors in this respect. In other words, one of these prescribed categories examine errors related to collocations of (range, collective nouns, compounds, and binominals) as explained on page (39). The other category examines errors related to political, educational, and daily life collocations as explained on page (8).

Role of the Native Language in Dealing with Collocations:

As indicated previously, one of the primary sources of errors produced by non-native speakers is the interference of the native language. The mother tongue interference is focused on chiefly by linguists. Mahmood (2000) points out that the availability of the native language to the foreign language learners brings about a difference between the mother tongue and other tongues in the sense that the native language is an additional source of linguistic knowledge. Littlewood (1984:26) illustrates that learners use their previous mother tongue experience as a means of organizing the second or foreign language data and to make sense of such new experience. This means that learners do not have to discover everything from zero.

Thereby, the pervasiveness of a language transfer is indisputable, particularly in foreign language learning contexts where the learners' exposure to the target language is confined to limited inputs that are provided in few hours per week through formal instructions, and where the native language is excessively used in explaining unfamiliar lexical and grammatical items (Odlin, 1989 and Mahmood, 2002). Hence, insufficient exposure to the target language could make it filtered through the native language at all linguistic levels and could give rise to different errors (Rivers, 1983 in Mahmood, 2000 and Mohideen, 1996). This language transfer becomes a learning strategy that most foreign language learners fall back on (Odlin, 1989 and Mahmood, 2002).

Supporting this point, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) note that learners seem to rely on the strategy of transfer in dealing with collocations due to the differences between the two languages. Collocations that are different in the learners' mother tongue and the target language are subjected to the phenomena of negative language transfer. The greater the differences, the more acute the learning difficulties will be. Conversely, collocations

that are fully equivalent in the learners' mother tongue and target language give rise to phenomena of positive language transfer and do not need to be specifically taught.

Beside language differences, the learners' switching from the target language to the native language on dealing with collocations is a strategy to compensate for the inadequacies (Mahmood, 2002). Deveci (2004) points out that when students see the words in phrases, they cannot understand them because the surface level knowledge inhibits meaningful learning. Therefore, such low level allows creating collocation problems like interlingual errors because of the negative transfer from their mother tongue. For example, instead of *many thanks*, learners might incorrectly use *several thanks*; *become lovers* instead of *fall in love*.

Pedagogical Implications of Collocations:

Just as the teacher of botany does not take students into the jungle and expect them to learn about all the plants by simply being exposed to them, so the language curriculum designer and classroom teacher can facilitate learning by systematic presentation of the role of important language items and their linguistic ecology company words keep (Kennedy, 1990: 227).

Brilliantly, Kennedy (1990) succeeds in capturing one's concerns about teaching collocations by his statement. It is neither reasonable to imagine that foreign language learners will competently produce a natural and accurate language without a guide nor is there a magic formula for correcting collocation errors. Obviously, collocations have to be acquired both through a direct study and large amounts of qualitative input. Some scholars and researchers contribute to English teaching and learning with their pedagogical suggestions towards collocations particularly for minimizing students' collocation errors. This part addresses collocations teaching principles, techniques, and activities.

1- Collocation Teaching Principles:

Are there noticeable criteria to decide what and how collocations can be taught? This probing question leads several scholars to provide practical principles and tips for appropriate collocations teaching. The first principle indicates that adequate attention should be directed for building students' consciousness and awareness of how words work in combination with one another. In this case, paying such deliberate attention to collocations in use can help students notice the gap between their own performance in the target language and the performance of proficient users of the language which makes them know that learning collocations is crucial for learning English (Islam and Timmis, 2005). Hence, becoming aware of collocations, students will have psychological readiness to continue developing their collocational competence after they leave the English class (Wei, 1999, Hill, 2000:47-70, Kavaliauskienė and Janulevieiene, 2001, Taiwo, 2004, Shojaee, 2005, and Morley, 2006). In this meaning, Thornbury (1997) points out that "no noticing, no acquisition".

Second, the number of collocations is overwhelming and innumerable, so it is needed to bear in mind that not all of the tens of thousands of collocations have to be learned. For example, in *Collins COBUILD English Words in Use*, more than 100,000 collocations are given, covering the core vocabulary of English. Also, there are more than 70,000 collocations listed under about 14,000 entries in the *BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* (Bahns, 1998 in Wei, 1999). Hence, there must be a decision regarding the selection of collocations to be taught. It is important to consider the frequency of words. A useful source is *The Educator's Frequency Guide (WFG)* which is the most comprehensive word frequency study that has ever been done as Wei (1999) claims. It is worth mentioning that it is important to select the most common collocations which help learners to precise in their language use (Taiwo, 2004). For example, under

manage, the meaning *succeed in* has much higher occurrence than the meaning *be in charge of* according to the semantic count. The two meanings have their own distinct collocations: the former frequently occurs in the structure *manage to do something*; the latter usually collocates with a noun that refers to a business such as *a shop, a company, a restaurant*. A useful source in this regard is *A General Service List of English Words* for featuring a semantic count (Wei, 1999).

A third principle to be taken into consideration is that teachers have to emphasize areas of differences in the collocational patterns of the mother tongue and the target language. Taiwo (2004) indicates that studies of collocation errors reveal that collocations in the mother tongue are often translated directly into English. Mahmoud (2002) gives instances of some collocational expressions produced by the Arab learners of English:

- Gave me the *red eye* (*evil*)
- From time to *another* (*time*)
- A cat has *seven* lives (*nine*)

Fourth, it is valuable to mention that teaching collocations in isolation is a kind of teaching with no better than teaching single words in isolation. (Hill, 2000:47-70 and Kavaliauskienė and Janulevieiene, 2001). In other words, unless students are taught in context-based classes, collocations will not make sense to learners, and meaningful learning will probably not take place. Consequently, the best learning opportunities occur in the context of real language use. Porto (1998) indicates that giving high frequency of recurrent collocations associated with a certain context makes such lexical phrases highly memorable for learners and easy to pick up. Considerably, according to Hill (2000:47-70) and Thornbury (2002:121), students will know how to use new vocabulary items according to their collocational fields and contexts. In this case, a lot

of work on collocation and vocabulary generally may happen in response to learners' errors.

It is remarkable to point out that teaching and learning collocations contextually should not be restricted to only course books. A course book can only serve as a guide to learning. It cannot possibly handle the complex nature of lexical collocations acquisition. So, teachers should encourage learners' creativity through the use of various ways and resources to vocabulary learning (Meara, 1997:28-47). One of these ways is the suggestion of Hill (2000:47-70) and Taiwo (2004). They insist that learners should be encouraged to be involved in listening as well as extensive reading of a lot of literature written in English. Such skills cannot be ignored as they will not only expose them to a massive amount of vocabulary, but will also help them to discover, notice and acquire new collocations. Writing and speaking skills, on the other hand, give them the opportunity to practice collocations.

Another way of addressing collocations contextually is frequent exposures to authentic or semi-authentic language materials. Classroom language must provide plentiful opportunities for exposure to authentic lexical chunks. By increasing the stock of classroom phrases, teachers can exploit the capacity of chunks to provide raw materials for learners. Certainly, deploying a wide range of lexical chunks both accurately and appropriately is what distinguishes advanced learners from intermediate learners (Thornbury, 2002:106 and Shojaee, 2005).

It is worth noting that dictionaries are other effective resources for understanding that words usually exist in variable contexts, and not in isolation. EFL learners should be encouraged to make effective use of English dictionaries. Dictionaries such as, *the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (CCED)*, *BBC English Dictionary (BBCED)*,

LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations, the *BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* and *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (OALD)* are based on extensive natural-occurring data and they are particularly good for the acquisition of the collocation properties of English lexical items. With adequate training, dictionaries are an invaluable tool for learners, giving them independence from the teacher (Hunt, 1997, Farghal and Shannaq, 1999, Wei, 1999, Macedo, 2000, Moras and Carlos, 2001, Stockdale III, 2004 Taiwo, 2004 and Shojaee, 2005).

Beside normal dictionaries, software dictionaries are also possible aids for teachers to help students better understand collocations. Computer-assisted word-searches are more efficient and inevitably faster than hand-collected data. Computers can also help provide data on identifying the syntactic and collocational properties of words. Such technology greatly facilitates the measurement of collocational partnerships and makes understanding of such difficult relationships more accessible for learners. The final product of this technology and research is the *COBUILD* dictionary which is an essential electronic dictionary for all foreign language teachers and learners to utilize for the understanding of collocations. Such electronic dictionary can provide excellent, illustrated meanings by way of actual, natural-occurring usage. Basically, the use of the *COBUILD* corpus available on CD-ROM is an efficient way for students and teachers to quickly find out vocabulary. Such aids to learning should not be presented as immutable, but rather as creative and dynamic hypothesis which learners can test against further data (Macedo, 2000).

In short, precise collocation selections, explicit presentations, guided discovery, contextual guesswork and using dictionaries should be the main ways to deal with collocations. These will foster learners' independence, so that learners will be able to

deal with new lexis and expand their vocabulary beyond the end of the course (Moras and Carlos, 2001 and Kavaliauskienė and Janulevieiene, 2001).

2. Techniques and Activities for Teaching Collocations:

In fact, this area grabs the attention of many linguists who devote strenuous efforts for finding out tremendous techniques and activities for teaching collocations. The following techniques and activities are divided into two sections: the first is related to raising collocation awareness, and the second is related to collocations practice.

2.1 Techniques and Activities for Raising Collocation Awareness:

a. Recording and Organizing Collocation Techniques and Activities:

It is important to establish clear ways of organising and recording collocations. According to Lewis (1993), "language should be recorded together which characteristically occurs together" (in Kavaliauskienė and Janulevieiene, 2001). In this context, collocations can be easily acquired as wholes and stored as units to be easily retrievable, highly accessible without the need for analysis by the rules of syntax (Porto, 1998). This means that students should be informed to record collocations not in a linear, alphabetical order, but in a variety of ways: collocation tables, journals, mind-maps, word trees, boxes, grids, scales, matrices and word maps. Learners can add new words in the appropriate sections as they come across them in texts, lessons, etc. (Hill, 2000:47-70 and Williams, 2000)

Thornbury (2002:118-121) gives detailed examples for sorting and organizing collocations. He states that learners can sort words on cards into their collocational pairs (e.g. *warm welcome, slim chance, golden opportunity, lucky break, mixed reception, etc.*). They can sort them as binomial pairs such as *hot and cold, to and fro, out and about, sick and tired*. Or they can group them according to whether they collocate with

particular headwords such as *trip (business, day, round, return, boat)*, *holiday (summer, family, public, one month, working)* and *weekend (long, every, last, next, holiday)*. The teacher can follow up the students work by asking them to write sentences using these combinations.

There is an example for collocation maps which are desirably used for high frequency words and their collocations. Words like *have, take, give, make and get* lend themselves to this kind of treatment. They are often used in combination with nouns to form an expression which has a meaning of its own, as in *have a look, take a break, give advice, and make an appointment*. The verb itself has little or no independent meaning. For this reason, they are called *delexical verbs* (Thornbury, 2002:118-121).

b. Preparation Activities:

Techniques of sorting and organizing collocations can be used for preparation activities too. For instance, a brainstorming activity can be done to let students recall collocations containing a particular word. It makes students aware of the different constructions that a particular word can form. Thus, it builds up a number of lexically dense collocational fields. One example can be the words that go with the verb *get*, as shown in the following diagram (Tawi, 2004 and Williams, 2002):

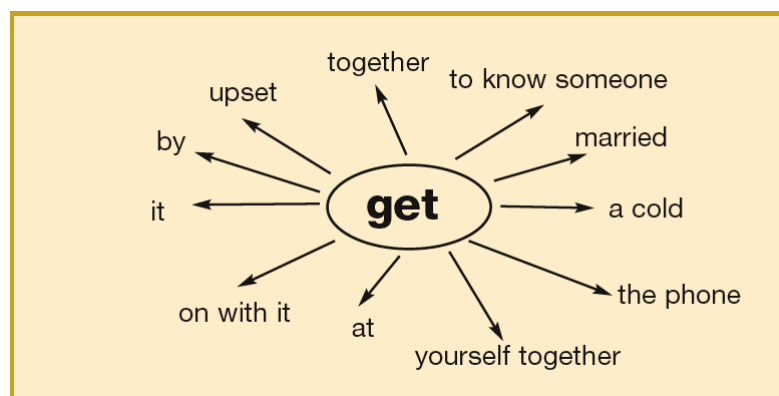


Diagram (1)

In preparation for writing or speaking activities, Thornbury (2002:118-121) indicates that collocation brainstorming is a good technique. First, learners can spend some time searching databases for useful collocations. Next, students are asked to brainstorm any nouns and verbs they are likely to need, and then to check for common collocates, using a concordance program or simply any good learners' dictionary. For example:

***Make:** a decision, an effort, an improvement, progress, arrangement for, a change*

***Peace:** bring about peace, negotiate a peace agreement, sign a peace treatment*

(McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005: 18, 80)

c. Textual Analysis:

Textual analysis is a great technique to notice collocations. Authentic and semi-authentic texts are an excellent source of collocations. In this case, the choice of text can be dependent on students' needs and ambitions. Students should be exposed to a wide variety of both written and spoken texts such texts taken from newspapers, magazines, and literary genres which tend to throw up different varieties. Drawing students' attention to collocation expressions within these texts and helping them record them effectively is important for raising their collocation awareness (Shojaee, 2005). In this context, Williams (2000) and Taiwo (2004) suggest some kinds of textual analysis activities:

- Software programs are beneficial in this purpose. For example, small extracts from the concordances published by *Cobuild* can be used to explore the possible environments of a word. However, ready-made concordances would be more suitable for higher levels because they do not include enough contexts for lower level learners to understand the meaning without help. Ready-made concordances may also include too many unknown words for lower-level students. Teachers who want to use concordances with lower

levels should write their own, bearing in mind their students' level of grammar and lexis.

- Students are asked to read a text and underline chunks they can find in the text. It is helpful to give them different kinds of chunks to look for (noun + noun, adjective + noun, or verb + noun collocations) because more complex chunks would confuse them.

- Learners can be given a set of incomplete phrases taken from the text and asked to complete them by scanning the text again. Some possible incomplete phrases from the text could be: *[on] time; [in] time; [on] the dot; [at] times; [from] time [to] time*. These phrases focus on a preposition + noun collocation. Or they could be given a list of words or phrases to find what collocates with them in the text. So, they can go further than the text and find further possible collocations with certain items in the text using a collocation dictionary

- After they see certain collocations in a text, learners can be asked to find pairs of collocations arranged randomly. According to McCarthy and O'Dell (2005: 69), a possible matching activity could be:

1. carry out	a. argument
2. come under	b. a contribution
3. play	c. attack
4. make	d. a part
5. set out	e. a study

- It is desirable to give student phrases in their native language and equivalent phrases in English in order to match the phrases. This activity can help students see that

collocational ideas are not always formed in the same way in English. More idiomatic collocations could be used with higher-level learners.

- Students can be asked to reconstruct the content of a text from only a few words in order to highlight the central importance of collocations against individual words.

2.2 Activities for Collocations Practice:

Having discussed how to raise students' awareness of collocations in the previous section, it is necessary to discuss how they can practice them through effective activities.

a. Miscellaneous Activities

In this regard, Taiwo (2004) suggests the following:

- Learners of different levels can be given gapped texts to fill in with the correct collocation. This kind of activities can prompt the most appropriate choice to fill and can help students recall additional contextual clues. The text could be topic based. For instance:

*When **war broke out**, my grandfather **joined the army**. **War was declared** on his 25th birthday. He didn't want to **go to war** but he had no choice (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005:80).*

- Learners can be given a text or some sentences that include collocational errors and asked to correct them. For example:

The police fought a walking battle with a group of violent demonstrators. (Correct: a running battle)

The students made up a heroic fight against the plan. (Correct: put up a heroic fight)

(McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005: 63)

- Intermediate and higher-level students can try to find synonyms which can collocate with certain words. For example, students can be asked to find the synonym for *wrong*, which is *false*; it collocates with *a false tooth*, or *false eyelashes*.

- Students can be given several word combinations that collocate with certain verbs, but include an odd collocation. Students must identify which words do not collocate with the verb, as in the following example: *miss: a chance, the point, the school, the train, an opportunity, the boat*. Also, Shojaee (2005) adds that sometimes it is meaningful if miscollocations can be drawn from students' own work without attributing them to particular students.

- Intermediate and higher-level learners can summarize a text orally one day and again a few days later to keep learned words and expressions active.

b. Dictionary Activities:

Adding to the prementioned activities, dictionary collocation activities are effective to practice collocations. Students can use collocation dictionaries to find better ways of expressing ideas with better and stronger words to create typical collocations. In this essence, Williams (2000) suggests some dictionary-based activities for developing collocation competence and practice:

- Students can be asked to odd the word that does not collocate with the bold word. For example:

-Can you find the verb which does not collocate with the noun in bold?

acquire, brush up, enrich, learn, pick up, tell, use **language**

assess, cause, mend, repair, suffer, sustain, take **damage**

derive, enhance, find, give, pursue, reach, savor **pleasure**

- Students can be given a number of words which collocate with the same core word.
The students have to guess this word before looking up the dictionary.

-Which collocates with all the words given?

Civil, cold, conventional, nuclear, full-scale ____ (answer: war)

Dangerous, desperate, common, born, hardened, master ____ (answer: criminal)

Additionally, McCarthy and O'Dell (2005: 39, 69, 81, and 95) offer a wealth of dictionary-based activities. The following are some considerable examples:

-Look in your dictionary. Can you find any other collocations?

.... Where *temper* relates to behavior? (Answer: to have a bad/a sweet temper, to control your temper)

.... Where *sense of* relates to an aspect of character? (Answer: sense of fun, sense of honor)

-Complete this table with collocations for the noun listed. Use a dictionary to help you if necessary:

noun	verb	adjective
research		
experiment		

-Use your dictionary to find two collocations for each of these words:

army soldier battle weapon to fight peace

-Look up the words (taste, flavor, smell, and perfume) in a good learner's dictionary. Make a note of what kinds of things they collocate with.

To sum up, the major thrust of presenting such ways of teaching collocations is to make teachers create consciousness of collocations in learners as early as possible and provide practical activities to minimize collocation errors. Morley (2006) remarks that it is important to be aware that collocation competence development may take a considerable time; a teacher and students will not see instant results. However, in the long term, working on excessive practices cannot only increase students' vocabulary, and the degree of accuracy with which they use it, but it can also develop their abilities to notice collocation patterns in language and so become more autonomous learners. According to Schmidt (1990), "what language learners become conscious of...what they pay attention to, what they notice...influence and in some ways determine the outcome of their learning". Certainly, linguists' contributions are not solely confined to describe collocations pedagogy, but also they are extended to investigate English learners' collocations proficiency and their errors through conducting enormous studies.

Section II

An Overview of Related Previous Studies

Studies Related to Collocational Competence of English Language Learners

Studies Related to Collocation Errors

Commentary on the Previous Studies

Introduction:

After a long time of neglect, the area of collocations has recently attracted growing attention of many researchers for its prime importance and fundamental role in EFL instruction (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989:67-78, Farghl and Obiedat, 1995, Wie, 1999, Taiwo, 2001, Zughoul and Fattah, 2003, and Mahmoud, 2005). To obtain a holistic picture of the related research literature made on English collocations, this section is divided into two parts. The first part reviews previous studies related to overall collocational competence of English language learners. Besides collocational knowledge and competence, many overlapping issues are dealt with such as the relationship between general linguistic competence and collocational knowledge, role played by the mother tongue on producing collocations and strategies implemented by the participants in using or translating collocations. The second part of this section reviews the empirical studies related to collocation errors made by English language learners and some reasons beyond making these errors. The studies in both parts are sequenced thematically and chronologically.

Studies Related to Collocational Competence of English Language Learners:

Following Widdowson (1989:132), competence can be defined as one's knowledge of language and ability to use it. Therefore, "competence has two components: knowledge and ability. . . Knowledge can be characterized in terms of degrees of analyzability; ability can be characterized in terms of degrees of accessibility" (in Porto, 1998). More specifically, collocational competence is recognized as a component of a native speaker's knowledge of the language (Howarth, 1993). It is necessary to sound a note of Bolinger's (1985:69) caution that: "a speaker who does not command this array [100s of 1000s of memorized sentence stems] does not know the language" (in Howarth, 1993). This fact is very revealing about the collocational competence for English

native-speakers; so what about the English language learners? Do they have such competence? If not, do they need it? And if so, how do they get it?

Prior to investigating learners' competence in dealing with collocations, there is a must for questioning the collocational inputs offered to such learners. In this regard, Kennedy (1990) remarks that there is a necessity for analyzing language corpora to determine possible recurring sequencing words. He analyzed the use of four English prepositions *at*, *from*, *between*, *through* in collocation with words in one large corpus of British English. Prepositional collocations are focused on in the study because it is thought that prepositions are hard to teach and learn, and constitute 10 percent of any spoken or written text. The data were collected from large computer corpora as computer analysis of large corpora makes description of patterns much possible. Results of the analysis indicate that prepositions have distinctive patterns of co-occurrence with different word classes. For example, the most frequent words immediately preceding *between* are nouns (*difference*, *relationship*, ect.,). The most frequent words preceding *through* are typically verbs (*go*, *pass*, *come*, ect.,). *At* collocates strongly with certain preceding and following words, whereas *between* and *through* tend to collocate most strongly with preceding words. From these evidences, these four types of prepositions cannot be thought as interchangeable grammatical items which can be substituted for each other. The study concluded with some pedagogical implications for language theories and learning. The researcher suggested using reading activities, systematic exposure to the most lexicalized collocations and cloze exercises that encompass collocations. He signified that the teacher does not have to expect learners to learn about all the collocations being exposed to them. Thus, language curriculum designers and classroom teachers can facilitate learning by systematic presentations of important language items and the company that words keep.

In an attempt for examining English collocation knowledge of learners, Bahn and Eldaw (1993) investigated (58) German advanced English language students' productive knowledge of English collocations consisting of a verb and a noun. Of these (58) subjects, (34) were given a translation task in which (15) German sentences were to be translated into English, and (24) subjects were given a cloze task in which the target collocations were inserted into English sentences with the verb collocate with a noun missing. In the translation task, it was found that although collocations made up less than a quarter of the total number of lexical words, more than half of the unacceptable translated lexical words were collocations. Thus, both researchers found that for advanced students, collocations present a major problem in the production of correct English. Furthermore, since subjects did not express the collocational phrases significantly better in the translation task, where it was possible to paraphrase, than in the cloze task, the researchers concluded that one cannot easily paraphrase one's way around collocations in order to avoid the problem which they present. Finally, it was found that some collocations in the translation task were successfully paraphrased by many students while others were rarely successfully paraphrased. It was concluded that EFL teaching should concentrate on those collocations which cannot readily be paraphrased.

Similar to Bahn's and Eldaw's (1993), Farghl and Obiedat (1995) examined the proficiency of (57) Arab university learners in using collocation appropriately. Two questionnaires were developed using (22) common English collocations on topics such as food, clothes, and weather. The first questionnaire was a form where one member of an English collocation pair is provided and the other has to be filled in by the respondent. The second consisted of Arabic collocations that had to be translated into English equivalents. The questionnaires were administered to English majors and

teachers in Jordan. In terms of results, Farghal & Obiedat found that 4 lexical strategies were used. The use of synonymy was the most frequently used strategy; followed by that of avoidance. The two other strategies identified were transfer and paraphrasing. Also, the results of the study showed that second language learners and student translators cannot cope with collocations, as they are not being made aware of them as a key genre of multiword units. The study recommended that highlighting the collocation aspects of lexical items is the sole way of facilitating the active use of language and helping the second language learner to construct lexically correct sentences.

Another study conducted on the Arab students of English for measuring their collocational competence is that of Kharma and Hajjaj (1997). They administrated a test that included a few sets of some very common English verbs. These verbs were chosen with Arabic interference in mind. Each set collocates with lexical items different from those with which its nearest equivalent Arabic verb does. The test was of the gap-filling type with two, three, or four options to choose from. According to the study results, the overall achievement on the test was very low (25.4 percent) in spite of the fact that the subjects belonged to the last three forms of the secondary stage. Also, the verbs are some of the most common verbs in English and are usually taught at a very early stage of the English course in any school. Additionally, the results showed that expectations of mistakes on the basis of Arabic interference were fulfilled in most areas.

It is quite clear in the previously mentioned studies that lack of collocational awareness influenced negatively English language students' proficiency, Smadja et. al. (1996) attributed the low collocational proficiency of such students to the notorious difficulty of collocations to be translated. The researchers emphasized that collocations are primarily opaque and cannot be translated on a word-by-word basis. Based on this fact, they presented a method for translating collocations by creating a system called

Champollion. This program uses a statistical method to translate both flexible and rigid collocations between French and English using the Canadian Hansard Corpus. The Hansard Corpus contains a number of sentences in one of the languages that do not have a direct equivalence in the other. *Champollion* identifies syntactically and semantically meaningful units in the target language that are highly correlated with the source collocation, thus producing a set of words in the target language. These words are then combined in a systematic and iterative manner to produce a translation of the source language collocation. The program's output is a bilingual list of collocations ready to use in a machine translation system. Smadja et al. asserted that 78% of the French translations of valid English collocations were judged to be good by the three evaluations by experts.

Similar to the previous studies, Hussein (1998) detected the capabilities of students in the acquisition of collocations in English language. His study aimed to identify strategies used by the students such as the impact of the mother tongue to the English language, use of synonyms and others due to lack of collocational knowledge. The study sample consisted of (50) male and female students at the English Language Department in the third and fourth year. They were given a test included (40) item and they were asked to choose the appropriate word that collocates with the preceding or following constituent. Results indicated students' clear inadequate use of collocations. Only (39%) were correct answers. The strategies used by the students were: (30%) for the impact of the mother tongue, (2, 22%) for use of synonyms, and (8, 8%) were overlooked.

For determining the relationship between collocation knowledge and general English proficiency, Bonk (2000) conducted a study that included a pilot test and a main test. The pilot test was developed to measure non-native speakers (NNs) proficiency in

English collocations. (50) items of three types were targeted for inclusion in three sub-tests prior to the main test. The three collocation types are: verb-object, verb-prepositions, and figurative use of verb phrases. To measure the general proficiency in written English among NNs, a version of TOFL was condensed by eliminating the listening section and reducing each of the other sections. Beside that, a bio-data questionnaire was developed to gather information regarding the subjects' age, gender, nationality, native language, age of the first day of contact with English language, length of residence in English-speaking countries and amount of formal instruction in English. The participants were (62) NNs volunteers participated in pilot testing of the collocations and proficiency measures. In subsequent main test administration, they were (98) adult NNs from the same population that took the test. All the examinees were students at the University of Hawaii and had many years of ESL instruction and experience.

Results reported that collocation knowledge generally increases with ESL proficiency. The study demonstrated that such knowledge may be acquired naturalistically, since it is probably not a frequent focus in the classroom. A final conclusion indicated that collocation knowledge has an impact on many aspects of language processing, comprehension and use.

Further relevant study was done by Cooper (2000) who attempted to test learners' proficiency in the most frozen and fixed-combinations type of collocations which is *idioms*. The study aimed at investigating what kinds of idioms are the most difficult for English language learners to interpret, what kinds of strategies learners employ to comprehend the idioms, and whether second language learners use knowledge of their first language to comprehend and produce idioms in the second language. The participants of this study were (18) non-native speakers of English, ranged in age from

(17) to (44) years, who had lived in the United States of America for (1) to (5) years on average. He applied (20) frequently used idioms: (8) from standard, (8) from conversational, and the other (4) from slang expressions. Results showed that most of participants indicated that they had heard these idioms often during their stay in the U.S.

A. The strategies that they employed to comprehend idioms were: *guessing from context* (GC) (28%), *discussing and analyzing the idiom* (DA) (24%), *using the literal meaning* (LM) (19%), *repeating or paraphrasing the idiom* (RP) (7%), *using background knowledge* (BK) (7%), *referring to an L1 idiom* (5%), Others (2%). The researcher figured out that the successful strategies that leading to a correct answer were *Guessing from Context* (GC), (LM), (BK), and (L1). Then, he conducted a pilot study with the same set and was given to (5) non native speakers who have never been to English spoken countries. Results showed that participants mostly used (GC), (LM), and (DA) respectively, which is very similar with Cooper's experiment. He concluded that referring to L1 idioms may not influence the comprehension of L2 idioms to Korean EFL learners, or it is dependent on the levels of foreign language learners. Since subjects mostly used strategy (GC), the researcher recommended that L2 idioms should be taught by extensive reading. Finally, he suggested that teachers need to develop activities for teaching comprehension of idiomatical expressions that provide students with skills in guessing meaning from context.

In a unique study, which is different from all the related ones, Ghazala (2000) made an unsurpassed movement for minimizing the gap among different cultural collocations in translation. Ghazala (2000) demonstrated in his study that there are more similarities than differences among such different cultures in translation. In specific, he tended to trace the cultural correspondence at translating collocations from Arabic into English and vice versa. Throughout the study, collocations are discussed as they constitute

major part of the cultural link between languages. The scholar elicited evidences to prove the degree of correspondence in both languages.

Prior to his discussion of cross-cultural terms in English-Arabic collocation translation, the researcher drew a distinction between cultural equivalence and cultural correspondence. The researcher stated that the former term means the translation of the same function of the cultural term. For example, *majlis ash-shab* مجلس الشعب into *parliament / House of Commons*. The second term, on the other hand, is the absolute identification of source language cultural term with another in the target language in both function and description such as translating *ministry* into *wizara* وزارة.

The first division of the study showed an absolute identification among cultural collocations lexically and semantically. For example: *at a stone's throw*: على مرمى حجر (ala marma hajar)

In the second division, Ghazala (2000) pointed out that many other collocations in the two languages are semi-correspondent in that one part of the collocation is perfectly identical with its peer in the other language. For instance: *to take the lead*: يأخذ زمام المبادرة (ya'khuthu zimama l-mubadara)

The third part discussed *similes* as a special kind of collocations since they are fixed expressions. Similes are also cultural and some of them are identical in both Arabic and English such as: *as strong as a horse/a lion*: أقوى من الأسد (aqwa mina L-hisan/l-asad)

The fourth part dealt with *proverbs* which can be labeled under collocations since they are fixed expressions. They are heavily imbued with culture. The two widely different cultures, English and Arabic, do have some absolutely correspondent. For example:

Like father like son: من شابه اياه ما ظلم- الولد نسخة من ابيه: (man shabaha abahu ma zalam/al-waladu sirru abi:hi /al-waladu nuskhaton min abi:hi).

The final part dealt with other proverbs in the two languages that have some elements in common. They are illustrated in the following example: *out of sight out of mind*: بعيد عن العين بعيد عن القلب (ba?i:dun ani ?ayni ba?i:dun ani alkalb)

Since collocational difficulties experienced by English language learners stand as a stumbling block for achieving proficiency, Macedo (2000) implemented his study on (200) Japanese high school students aged (16-17) to pinpoint those difficulties. One of the collocational problems was found in the area of recognizing and understanding collocational relationships out of context. Another problem that has been found was the issue of frequency in using expressions appropriately. The researcher concluded that Japanese students have fewer opportunities to use collocational expressions. So, they require a high frequency to exercise English expressions in order to keep them from becoming lost or fossilized. After exploring collocational problems, the researcher suggested some possible solutions for teachers to help learners solve these problems:

- a) The use of dictionaries as a practical classroom resource
- b) The use of grids and scales to help illustrate word relationships
- c) The utilization of computers as a potential resource

In correspondence to the studies on learners' proficiency of collocations, Huang (2001) examined the knowledge of Tawinse learners of English lexical collocations of different types. These include free combinations, restricted collocations, figurative idioms and pure idioms. In addition, the researcher investigated critically the errors that the learners produced in the target task. (60) students from a College in Southern Taiwan were recruited as the subjects of the study. (19) were male and (41) were female and they

ranged from (19 to 22) years of age. Majoring in Medical Science and Technology, these students took English as a mandatory course for the completion of their degree. In Huang's research, a self-designed simple completion test was applied to measure the subjects' knowledge in the four mentioned types of lexical collocations. The test consisted of (40) item related to food and animals with ten in each collocational category. Results demonstrated that free combinations created the least amount of differences, whereas pure idioms were the most challenging. Restricted collocations and figurative idioms were equally different for the subjects. An analysis of the collocation errors produced by the subjects indicated that the native language plays a crucial role. Some subjects adopted strategies of avoidance and analogy. Adding to that, the deviant answers signified the lack of cultural awareness of collocations. Overall, these learners have insufficient knowledge of English collocations. The researcher recommended that vocabulary needs to be taught collocationally instead of individually. English language teachers need to address the cultural data and metaphorical meanings associated with collocations.

Apart from the studies that explored collocational competence among English language learners, Abdel- Hafiz's (2002) study explored the sufficient usage of collocations among Arab translators. In this manner, he investigated the problems encountered in the translation of English journalistic texts into Standard Arabic. Most of data used in this paper have been collected over several weeks from the *Newsweek* magazine which appears into two versions: an English version and an Arabic one. The Arabic version is a translated version of the U.S. based English version. The Arabic version is translated by the joint effort of professional translators at Daar Al Watan in Kuwait. In this case, the corpus represents the problems encountered by Arab journalistic translators. The analysis and the comparison of the two versions clearly showed that the translators have

adopted the literal translation approach which explained the overuse of formal equivalence as a major strategy in translating single terms as well as collocational expressions. However, little use has been made of functional and ideational equivalence. Relying heavily on formal equivalent expressions may turn out to be inadequate in the target language as such translation lacks naturalness. Thus, literal translation has given rise to various problems including collocational problems.

Verifying students' overall collocational proficiency, Barfield (2002) explored how Japanese learners proficiently use and re-combine collocations in discourse at the text level. Participants of the study were Japanese learners of English (1st and 2nd university students of Tsukuba and Chuo University students). They were divided into two groups of (10) students, one high group and one low group. The focus of the study is on the use of verb and noun collocations. The experiment involved the students reading and making notes on a text on *migraine*, before they recorded an oral summary (without notes). Results showed that both groups had minimal abilities to link the verb and noun combinations. Generally, repeating and re-combining elements of verb and noun combinations appear as primary characteristics of the learners' usage of collocations.

Bonci's (2002) is an additional study that investigated the collocational knowledge of learners. It aimed at answering three main questions: first, whether there is any correlation between general linguistic competence and collocational knowledge and whether it is a linear correspondence; second, how much the familiarity with the collocational aspects of the lexicon affects native speakers' perception and evaluation of texts produced by non-native speakers; third, what is the role played by the mother tongue and by any additional languages spoken by the learners in terms of positive and negative transfer? The participants were (127) non-native speaker who were divided into three different levels of proficiency in Italian corresponding to their proficiency

level at the end of their first, second and final year of study at university. They were all majoring in Italian in an English University College. There was also a control group consisted of (26) Italian native speakers studying interpretation and translation at the University of Bologna. Three tests were designed to measure the subjects' collocational knowledge. The first test is a cloze filling gap which consisted of (10) sentences in Italian, containing overall (17) gaps (or missing words). This test aimed at measuring the knowledge of a set of specific collocations of different structural types, degrees of frozenness and frequency of occurrence. The second is a translation test which aimed at investigating the production of a specific set of collocations. The third is an essay writing task which aimed at exploring the free production of collocations as well as providing evidence for language proficiency.

Results indicated that collocations are a problematic aspect of vocabulary acquisition for advanced learners of Italian as a second language. Yet, in contrary to Bonk's (2000) study, Bonci's (2002) study results showed that there was a non-linear correlation between learners' general language proficiency and familiarity with the collocational aspects of the lexicon across the different proficiency levels. Also, there was an evidence of negative language transfer from the learners' mother tongue (English) as learners seem to have relied on the "hypothesis of transferability". In the light of the results, the researcher recommended the necessity of raising learners' awareness of the existence of collocations, exposing them to authentic language as well as highlighting similarities and differences between languages.

In line with Bonci's (2002) study, Zughoul's and Abdul Fattah's (2003) study had, also, tri-dimensional purposes. It purported to determine the extent to which university English language majors can use English collocations probably. Moreover, the study aimed at the characterization of the common strategies implemented by the subjects at

different levels of competence to come up with proper collocations. Finally, it demonstrated how equivalent English and Arabic words are combined differently. The study sample consisted of two groups of English language university students: (38) graduates and (32) third year undergraduates from the department of English at Yarmouk University, Jordan. The researchers applied two-form translation test. The first form is a multiple-choice task included a translation of (16) Arabic verb *kasara* "broke" collocations. This task aimed at eliciting students' receptive and competence in recognizing the correct English collocation equivalent to those of the Arabic verb *kasara*. The other form of the test is a free translation task of the same (16) Arabic collocations. It aimed at exploring the participants' productive proficiency in this linguistic phenomenon. The second task was performed prior to the first one to avoid any potential post-test effect on the free translation choices of the subjects.

The findings confirmed the researcher's hypothesis that the Arabic learners of English at all levels face difficulties with English collocations and their overall proficiency was found to be inadequate. The students' proficiency in the receptive task was better than in the productive task, and graduates surpassed the undergraduate quite remarkably on both tasks. Moreover, the study findings displayed (12) distinguished, exemplified and described strategies manipulated by subjects to accomplish the task. They were characterized as avoidance, literal translation, substitution, overgeneralization, quasi-morphological similarity, assumed synonymy, derivativeness, imitation of literary style, idiomaticalness, paraphrasing, graphic ambiguity and finally false L1 assumptions. On the whole, the findings have substantiated the role of the native language in foreign language production as well as the need for explicit instructional focus on collocation in school and university.

In addition to the previously mentioned experimental studies that investigated the strategies implemented by non-native speakers of English in dealing with collocations, Abdul-Fatah (2004) conducted a study to analyze the Arabic translations given in a sample of (253) English idioms in terms of strategies and the significance of their frequency. This analysis revealed four important points. First, the most common strategy applied is paraphrasing, followed closely by literal translations and semantic equivalence, omission, compensation and other strategies being of significantly less importance. Second, literal translation has allowed certain English idioms to become part of Arabic lexis. Third, a large number of the translations are literal and therefore sound foreign. Fourth, literal translations in the target language arise primarily from the failure of the translator to decipher the meaning of the idiom.

Similar to the studies described above, Martynska's (2004) paper has a twofold purpose. The first is to identify the level of collocational competence among intermediate learners of the English language and to answer the question to what degree they know English collocations. (53) students of the fourth-year at Wagrowiec High School were submitted to a two pages test on collocation. They were given four different tasks which involved:

- matching words from column A with their collocates from column B and giving their Polish equivalents
- completing three missing collocates of the central word which belongs to specified parts of speech and giving the Polish equivalent of the central word
- circling the correct option
- identifying and correcting errors in the underlined part of the sentence

The final question for the students to answer was: 'How long have you been learning English? Have you been learning only at school or also in private lessons?' All the

tested students had a similar level of proficiency in English (intermediate) and used the same textbook.

Results showed that the aspect of collocations is very problematic among the students. There is no direct dependence of the student's results on the number of years she/he has been learning English. Some of the students who have been studying for a shorter time scored better, which proves that the efficiency of second language learning is determined by a number of various factors. The results led to a conclusion that learning individual words and their meanings does not achieve great fluency in the foreign language. Hence, knowing the way words combine into chunks is imperative.

Close to the previous studies aims, Gyllstad's (2005) study intended to measure the English language learners' recognition of English collocations. In this study, two test formats based on verb and noun phrase collocations were constructed. The pilot and initial test administrations involve Swedish upper-secondary school and university level learners. Administrations of the test formats produced highly reliable scores and the performance of native speakers provided evidence of test validity. In terms of results, differences were observed between different learner groups taking the two test formats. These differences were, however, not always statistically significant. The more advanced level the learners were studying at, the better they performed on the tests. The most advanced Swedish university learners performed very close to the native speakers' scores on the tests. This suggests that the former, in terms of receptive recognition knowledge of verb and noun phrase collocations, have developed near-native speaker skills. The researcher found that a vocabulary size measure correlate highly with scores on both tests, which showed that learners with a large vocabulary have a better receptive command of verb and noun phrase collocations than learners with smaller vocabularies.

The final study under review for measuring learners' competence of English collocations is that of Hsu (2005). This study attempted to examine the effect of lexical collocation instruction on Taiwanese college English language learners' listening comprehension. The participants involved in this experimental study were (34) English majors in the University of Science and Technology. They were divided into two groups according to their academic level: (16) sophomores and (18) juniors. The experiment in this study was divided into two stages: the experimental stage and the post-experimental stage. In each of these stages, the volunteers were recruited to receive three different types of instruction: single-item vocabulary instruction, lexical collocation instruction and no instruction in approximately three consecutive weeks. After each instruction, they received a complete listening test consisting of two monologues. Each monologue has a number of lexical collocations along with listening comprehension passages and questions. In addition, a Chinese version questionnaire was distributed in the post-experimental stage to elicit the participants' attitudes and view points towards these three types of instructions. There are (10) questions: (4) of them are closed, another (5) questions are an integration of closed and open-ended and the last one is an open-ended question.

Results showed that a significant difference was found in listening comprehension among the participants based on the type of instruction they received. The results indicated that the subjects got the highest mean score in the comprehension test after lexical collocation instruction. However, it has been shown that there is no significant difference between the two academic levels in the listening comprehension in the three types of instructions. Moreover, data collected from the questionnaire revealed that the subjects selected the instruction on lexical collocations as the most favorite instruction type while no instruction was the least choice. They greatly demand the knowledge of

lexical collocations to be adopted as a solution to the problem caused by low-proficiency in listening comprehension. In short, the instruction on lexical collocation is believed to be useful in enhancing their listening comprehension.

Studies Related to Collocation Errors:

The previous empirical studies have demonstrated that lack of sufficient collocation competence causes errors in using collocations. Many relevant studies also investigated such collocation errors committed by English language learners.

In the study of Elkhatib (1984), writing samples of four Arab college freshmen students of English as a second language were analyzed. The objectives were to classify the lexical collocation errors, determine the causes of the problems, and examine the students' choice of certain lexical items in an attempt to determine whether the students were more attuned to the form or the substance of the language. Based on the findings, suggestions were offered for: teaching lexical non-congruence with the help of semantic field theory and componential analysis; teaching the process of describing meaning; and teaching collocations in the second language classroom.

Similar to Elkhatib's (1984) study, Diab (1996) analyzed the systematic errors that students make in their English writings in order to find out which mistakes result from their negative Arabic language influence. The researcher collected (73) English essays written by Lebanese native speakers of Arabic taking an intermediate level English course at the American university of Beirut. The analysis of these essays revealed that there were (217) collocation errors among the frequent errors that have been found. She states that due to the limited English vocabulary of Lebanese EFL learners, they frequently translated words from Arabic to express a certain idea in English because they were unaware of the English collocations. These errors are funny as students use literal translation to convey Arabic expressions into English in hope to enrich their

essays. It appears that Lebanese students made more errors in the areas where they felt English and Arabic were similar. However, where there were gross differences between the two language systems, fewer errors were made.

In a similar consistency, the objective of Howarth's (1998a) research was an empirical study of non-native academic writing aimed at identifying and analyzing non-standard collocations of foreign students studying at postgraduate level at British universities. The study focused on the language of the social sciences and was limited to lexical collocations, particularly, concentrated on verb and noun complement lexical collocations.

Firstly, it was implemented on native-speaker academic writing and secondly to non-native writing in the same register. The data for the native-speaker analysis consists of two corpora. The first comprises the social science texts and amounts to (29) texts of (58,000) words. The second corpus was collected from texts donated on disk by staff of Leeds University. These consisted of papers on law, chapters from a book on language studies and a complete book on social policy. These miscellaneous texts were combined into a single corpus totaling (180,000) words. The total of the two corpora therefore approaches $\frac{1}{4}$ million words. For non-native data, it consists of (10) essays, totaling about (25,000) words, written by students towards the end of the first term of a one-year in the course of Linguistics and English Language Teaching. Nine are teachers of English as a second or foreign language, while one teaches German to English-speaking children. They come from different seven countries. Results revealed that a much greater diversity in non-standard collocations is found in non-native writing which reflected learners' general lack of awareness of the collocation phenomenon.

According to the results, one of the main reasons why the great majority of learners do not reach this state of awareness is that teachers of English language themselves, both

native-speaker and non-native, have little understanding of the collocational mechanisms of the language. Their teaching has led learners to believe that, in producing stretches of English, they assemble items of vocabulary according to their knowledge of structure. From the evidence of non-native collocational deviation, it would seem that learners' primary need is to understand the existence of the central area of the collocational spectrum between free combinations and idioms. It is here that errors are made in both the lexical and grammatical features of collocations.

Close to the above-mentioned studies, Taiwo (2001) examined in his study the lexico-semantic relation errors in English language writing. The data was taken from (200) students' letter texts in (10) secondary schools randomly selected from two states in the South-Western Nigeria, the lexico-semantic errors were traced to four linguistic sources: *collocation, generalization, similarity, and duplication*. From these, seven sub-categories of errors were identified. The findings revealed that collocation errors are predominant, accounting for (56.5%) of the total lexico-semantic errors. The author traced the reason for this to improper mastery of lexical sense relations. The study concluded that teachers should teach lexical sense relations and should emphasize collocations, especially the types that learners have difficulties in learning as observed in the writing. Pupils should also be encouraged to read a lot of literature written in English, since collocations are better acquired through reading.

In parallel, Abisamra (2003) attempted to identify, describe, categorize, and diagnose the errors in English essay writing of the Arabic speaking Brevet students. A sample of written work was collected from (10) students who were in grade (9). They have been studying English for nursery and have been taught English mainly by American and Canadian teachers. But the fact is that most of them speak Arabic at home with their parents and at school with their friends. Results showed that the total number of errors

that have been found in the (10) essays was (214) errors. There were among these lexical errors (26) and semantic errors (3). The highest percentage of Transfer errors was in Lexis and Semantics (73%) and (100%) respectively. One-third of the second language learner's errors can be attributed to native language transfer. According to this study, Brevet students are facing two kinds of problems in essay writing: Translation from Arabic, and incomplete learning of essay writing rules and conventions. The researcher recommended inciting students to speak English at home and with their friends in order to reduce the number of errors due to negative native language transfer.

Identical with the above results, Mahmoud (2005) presented an empirical data verifying the informal observations and theoretic assertions that English language learners produce unnatural collocations. A total of (420) collocations were found in (42) essays written by Arabic-speaking university students majoring in English. About two thirds of these collocations (64%) were incorrect and (80%) of these were lexical collocations as opposed to grammatical ones. Sixty one percent of the incorrect combinations could be due to negative transfer from Arabic. The fact that post-intermediate and advanced students of English have a relatively large stock of vocabulary might have motivated interlingual transfer in the belief that it would be easy to find the English language equivalents of the Arabic lexical items. These findings suggested the necessity of direct teaching of collocations, inclusion of bilingual glossaries in the English language course books, and designing bilingual collocation dictionaries.

The final recent study in this section that examined collocation errors was conducted by Urbinc (2005) who aimed at finding out what types of errors are made in the field of collocations when native speakers of Slovene translate from Slovene into English. The study included (87) second- and third-year Slovene students who studied English at the Faculty of Arts in the University of Ljubljana. The test given to the students consisted

of collocations in context (full sentences; 38 examples) and collocations in isolation (58 examples). The emphasis of the study is on lexical collocations, although grammatical collocations are not entirely ignored. Students were given clear instructions about the collocational restrictions and they were asked to translate the examples at home. At the same time, they were encouraged to use dictionaries, so they were very well aware of which language element was being tested. The results suggested that collocations are quite tricky for non-native speakers even if the examinees are aware of them at least theoretically.

Basically in this study, the errors that appear in the students' translations are of three types: errors related to the collocator, others related to the base, and ones that involve misinterpretation of the entire collocation. The researcher recommended that collocations should be systematically taught at schools. Additionally, students should be acquainted with different types of monolingual dictionaries and with the way they include and treat collocations. Therefore, teaching dictionary usage in class should be introduced at a very early stage of learning a foreign language according to the age and level of students' knowledge. That would most certainly lead to a reduction in the number of lexical errors and could also improve a highly neglected area of bilingual lexicography in Slovenia as the researcher indicated.

Commentary on the Previous Studies:

Reviewing several studies directly relevant to the theme of this study has enriched the researcher's background and broadened her scope in this regard. Several comments can be made in this regard. First, all the studies discussed above have confirmed how collocations represent a major problem in the production of correct and natural English. English language learners have insufficient knowledge of collocations and face difficulties in dealing with them in the language or across languages. This emphasizes

the necessity of examining the collocational proficiency of the Palestinian advanced learners especially English and journalism majors.

Further to the problematic usage of collocations experienced by English learners, the studies of Bahn and Eldaw (1993), Farghl and Obiedat (1995), Smadja et. al (1996), Ghazal (2000), Abdel- Hafiz's (2002), Bonci (2002), Zughoul and Abdul Fattah (2003), Abdul-Fatah (2004), and Vrbinc (2005) reveal that collocation aspect is a problematic spot in translation among English language learners though the crucial importance of collocational expressions in the field of translation.

For determining reasons underlying making collocation errors, the studies of Elkhatib (1984), Diab (1996), Huang (2001), Bonci (2002), Abisamra (2003), Zughoul and Fattah (2003) and Mahmoud (2005) asserted the vital role of the mother tongue in producing collocations and attributed the collocation errors to the intrelingual and intralingual transfer. The results of these studies assure the importance of conducting this study to verify to what degree these reasons are responsible for making those errors. Also, many researchers like Bahn and Eldow (1993), Hussein (1998), Cooper (2000), Abdel- Hafiz's (2002), Zughoul and Fattah (2003), and Abdul-Fatah (2004) revealed several strategies that learners of English leaned on in dealing with collocations. In the current study, the researcher has been evoked to develop these strategies through types of collocation errors because many linguists like Richards and Sampson (1974:6-17), (Richards, 1971: 172-181), and Norrish (1994:28-40) called strategies as types of errors. Besides investigating collocation errors made by learners of English, studies of Bonk (2000) and Hsu (2005) tested the effective impact of engaging collocations into English instruction. The study of Howarth's (1998a) revealed the poor language teaching mechanisms. Thus, it is crucial in the present study to examine the learners' current

English collocational outputs as an indicator to the efficiency of the instruction they have received.

Another comment is that there are scarcities of studies that have been conducted to investigate collocations among advanced learners of English. More specifically, there is a conspicuous lack of Arabic researches on collocations in spite of the necessity of collocations for Arab learners of English. Such studies are relatively rare and the very few available ones were recently conducted. Additionally, there is no study that genuinely tried to extend the borders of collocational competence to include journalism students despite their vital role on getting their global message across the world. In Palestine, no research on collocations is recorded up-to-date as far as the researcher knows. Thus, it is crucial to investigate to what extent this problem exists among advanced Palestinian English and journalism majors to take a step into developing university teaching methods and materials in this area.

Most importantly, the researcher is acutely conscious of the essentiality for conducting this study to reveal more about the issue of collocations. Definitely, this study is intended to be distinguished from other studies by examining collocation errors through three main dimensions. Firstly, because most of the pre-mentioned studies have dealt with collocations in general without specifying specific fields, this study is thought to take a new dimension on dealing with collocations from the view of specifying considerable fields such as political, educational and daily life collocations. Secondly, collocation errors are investigated on the basis of a comprehensive developed model of collocation types that subsumes a variety of categories grouped as *collocational range*, *collective nouns*, *compounds* and *binominals*. The third dimension for exploring collocation errors is the most fascinating. Collocation error types are closely examined and immensely detailed out of the students' background knowledge of their native

language (Arabic) and the foreign language (English). Magnificently, analyzing collocation errors throughout such tri-dimensional perspectives is thought to be extremely helpful to deal with different errors and to help students make great improvement in English language learning.

The last comment to be made is that the varied instruments used in the previous studies have given some insights to carry out this study effectively. Some of the important and suitable used tools to conduct these studies include a pilot and diagnostic test (Bonk, 2000, Cooper, 2000 and Gyllstad, 2005); a translation test and a closed task (Bahn and Eldow, 1993, Farghl and Obiedat, 1995, Zughoul and Fattah, 2003, and Vrbinc, 2005). The methodology and the instruments related to this study will be shown in next chapter.

Summary:

The major concern of this chapter is reviewing the related research literature of collocations which constitutes the trend of the current study. Initially, it displayed and discussed the main areas relevant to the issue of collocations. Then numerous previous studies that dealt with this topic were presented and commented on.

Chapter III

Methodology

Introduction

The Methodology

The Population

The Sample

The Variables

The Instruments

The Diagnostic Test

The Aim of the Test

The Resources of Constructing the Content of the Test

The Description of the Format and the Content of the Diagnostic Test

Validity of the Diagnostic Test

Reliability of the Diagnostic Test

Procedures for Implementing the Diagnostic Test

Statistical Analysis

Summary

Introduction:

As this study attempts to diagnose and analyze the main collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG, it is essential in this chapter to describe the methodology that was used to fulfill the prescribed aim. This chapter explores the study methodology, population distribution, sample size, variables, instruments and statistical data analysis.

1- The Methodology:

To achieve the aim of the study, the researcher used the descriptive analytical approach. This approach can be used to obtain pertinent and precise information about events, phenomena and practices that are available for a study and accessible for measurement without interference of the researcher. The researcher can interact with them, namely by describing and analyzing the recorded information (Al Agha, 2002). In relevance to the topic of the study which aims at investigating collocation errors made by English and journalism majors, the researcher used error analysis method which is mentioned on page (55). In more details, systematic multi-steps were followed for analyzing collocation errors:

- designing a diagnostic test to examine collocation errors
- identifying collocation errors made by students
- grouping and classifying these errors into categories
- computing the percentages of the errors occurrences
- giving examples for every type of collocation errors
- giving explanations for the occurrence of these errors

2-The Population:

The participants of this study were all the fourth level of female and male English language majors and Journalism majors enrolled in the second semester of the academic

year 2007 at the Islamic University of Gaza IUG. The total number of the study population was (361): (290) English majors (art and education) and (71) journalism majors. The following table shows the distribution of the population of the study according to specialization and gender:

Table (1)
The Study Population

Specialization	Females	Males
English Majors		
-Arts	40	15
-Education	199	36
Journalism Majors	35	36
Total	274	87

3-The Sample:

As the study population was a small number, the researcher had to apply the study to the sample as a representative of the population (Al Agha and Al Astaz, 2000, 103). The study was applied at the end of the second semester (2007), as the students were left with only two weeks to be graduated. (116) students were absent or declined to participate in applying the diagnostic test. So, the total number of the sample was (245) representatives that represented (67.86%) of the population.

4- The Variables:

The current study depended on three variables:

A: Gender Variable: it consisted of males and females as explained in Table (2):

Table (2)
The Distribution of the Sample According to Gender

Sex	Number	Percent
Males	60	%24.5
Females	185	%75.5
Total	245	%100.0

B: Specialization Variable: it consisted of English majors (arts and education) and journalism majors as in Table (3).

Table (3)
The Distribution of the Sample According to Specialization

Specialization	Number	Percent
English majors	202	% 82.4
Journalism	43	%17.6
Total	245	%100.0

C: Academic Level Variable: it had four levels (Excellent, Very Good, Good, Fair) as shown in Table (4):

Table (4)
The Distribution of the Sample According to Academic Level

Academic Level	Number	Percent
Excellent(90 and above)	7	%2.9
Very Good(80-89)	113	%46.1
Good(70-79)	121	%49.4
Fair(60-69)	4	% 1.6
Total	245	%100.0

5- The Instruments:

To fulfill the aims of the study, the researcher designed a pilot study to determine the most common collocations. In the light of such pilot study, a diagnostic test was constructed.

The Diagnostic Test:

1. The Aim of the Test:

This test is built to investigate the collocation proficiency of the English and journalism majors by identifying and classifying their errors.

2. The Resources of Constructing the Content of the Test:

To set out the diagnostic test items, the researcher designed a list of collocations as a pilot study to be given to English language instructors to choose the most common

political, educational and daily life collocations. Numerous resources were relied on for compiling the data of the list including: books, dictionaries, magazines, newspapers, websites, TV and radio broadcasts and some of the previous studies. Appendix (G) offers unique references used in collecting such collocational expressions. In fact, finding reliable and valuable resources on the topic of collocations was not an easy matter due to the scarcity of works written with special regard to collocations. It greatly took a constant effort and much time to search, figure out, and pick up collocations out of many resources that use collocations indirectly.

Regarding the description of the list, the collocation list is divided into two parts: the first part presents collocations within English language; the second part presents collocations across English and Arabic language. The two parts encompass various collocations in the fields of politics, education, and daily life. Most importantly, these collocations in both parts are grouped in categories: collocational range, binominals, collective nouns, and compounds. In fact, finding such an effective way of grouping the collected collocational items was challenging because figuring out similar properties among these collocations was not easy due to the huge number of the collocational items (200) headwords which encompass (750) collocates: (92) headwords with (500) collocates within English language; and (108) headword with (250) collocates across Arabic and English language). (Appendix, A)

The collocation list was showed to ten English instructors from three different universities (The Islamic University, El Azahar University and El Aqsa University) (Appendix J). They were asked to choose what they think the most common collocations relative to the Palestinian society and the students' needs. The instructors expressed their genuine admiration towards the effort of compiling such important collocational expressions and towards the vitality of the study topic to be investigated.

Most of them indicated that all the collocations mentioned in the list are very selective, common and related. However, for the impossibility of including all the items in the diagnostic test, the instructors were asked to narrow down their choice as possible as they can. The collocational items were accepted when more than (8) juries (80%) approved them, some items were modified when (6-8) juries (60-80%) approved them, and some other items were rejected when less than (6) juries (60%) approved them. In this case, the collocational items were minimized to (100) headwords that encompass (190) collocates: (45) headwords with (80) collocates within English language and (55) headword with (110) collocates across Arabic and English language (Appendix, B). In the light of such pilot study, the test items were set out.

3. The Description of the Format and the Content of the Diagnostic Test:

The diagnostic test consists of two parts including six questions: the first part is related to collocations used within English language. This part has three closed questions: matching, multiple choice, and crossing out the odd collocation. The second part is a translation task that relates to collocations used across English and Arabic language. This part consists of three translation questions: translation from English into Arabic, translation from Arabic to English, and choosing the suitable translation of the given collocations. Both parts of the test can be considered as complementary indicators for the students' proficiency in this linguistic area. According to Wie (1999), he asserts that the closed type of questions is thought to be relatively a reliable, substantive and easy way to construct, apply, validate, score and measure the learning outcomes of this area of language knowledge. All the six questions include numerous collocations in politics, education, and daily life. These collocational expressions are of grouped into four categories: collocational range, collective nouns, compounds, and binominals.

Quite clearly, instructions were written on the front page of the test sheet. These instructions include:

- students' bio data to fill in: faculty, major, academic level, gender, and accrual rate
- a following up guidance that clarifies the concept of collocations with examples in English and Arabic
- a description of the diagnostic questions
- illustrative examples at the beginning of every question to facilitate the process of answering the questions

Most cautiously, some of considerations were taken into account on setting up the instructions to make matters clear:

- setting up the instructions in a clear and simple way
- setting up the instructions in the native language of the students (Arabic language) to make sure that all the examinees, particularly the journalism ones, understand the instructions properly
- instructing the students not to write their names on the test sheet to ensure confidentiality and to reduce anxiety about their knowledge of English collocations
- emphasizing that mentioning the accrual rate is merely for the purpose of the study and not for any other considerations
- instructing them not to resort to any help of any kind (friends, books, dictionaries, etc.) while taking the test

4. Validity of the Diagnostic Test:

To ensure the validity of the diagnostic test, the researcher used two techniques: the referee validity and internal validity.

-Content validity:

The initial version of the test was presented to a jury of ten English instructors and experts from different universities in Gaza in order to check the validity of the construction of the test questioning items, and check the linguistic formulation of these items (Appendix, C). The juries approved the variety of question kinds included in the test and approved the linguistic construction of items. Nevertheless, for ensuring the practicability and suitability of the test to time and examinees' attention span, the juries recommended reducing the number of items included in every question. In the light of this significant suggestion, the researcher decreased the number of items in every question to be finally (65) collocation items. Then this modified version of the test was presented to the juries who finally approved it (Appendix, D).

- Internal Consistency Validity:

This type of validity indicates the correlation of each item degree with the question it belongs to in each of the two parts. Then the correlation of each question with the total degree of the test was computed. By applying the test on a pilot sample consisting of (65) subjects, the researcher computed the internal consistency by using Pearson formula and computed the correlation coefficient of each item with the question it belongs to. Tables (5) and (6) show the correlation coefficient of each item with the question it belongs to in the two parts.

Table (5)

Correlation Coefficient of Each Item with its Question in Part 1

First Question	Correlation Coefficient	Second Question	Correlation Coefficient	Third Question	Correlation Coefficient
1	0.60	1	0.39	1	0.35
2	0.60	2	0.46	2	0.25
3	0.74	3	0.34	3	0.45
4	0.57	4	0.55	4	0.10
5	0.52	5	0.57	5	0.47
6	0.53	6	0.36	6	0.38
7	0.33	7	0.64	7	0.58
8	0.36	8	0.70	8	0.27
9	0.40	9	0.40	9	0.46
10	0.41	10	0.45	10	0.37

The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.05); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.123)
The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.01); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.165)
Note: the significance is at two tails

Table (6)

Correlation Coefficient of Each Item with its Question in Part 2

First Question	Correlation Coefficient	Second Question	Correlation Coefficient	Third Question	Correlation Coefficient
1	0.33	1	0.54	1	0.28
2	0.31	2	0.52	2	0.29
3	0.47	3	0.39	3	0.45
4	0.40	4	0.51	4	0.28
5	0.39	5	0.50	5	0.54
6	0.32	6	0.42	6	0.45
7	0.44	7	0.29	7	0.71
8	0.37	8	0.34	8	0.28
9	0.52	9	0.35	9	0.49
10	0.56	10	0.30	10	0.60
11	0.32				
12	0.36				
13	0.41				
14	0.40				
15	0.36				

The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.05); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.123)
The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.01); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.165)
Note: the significance is at two tails

The data collected in the above mentioned tables indicate that the described correlation coefficients are significant at (0.05); so all the items included in every question are valid for measurement. Afterwards, the internal validity was examined by computing the correlation coefficient of each question with the total degree of the test as it is shown in Table (7).

Table (7)
Correlation Coefficient of Each Question with the Total Degree of the Test

Questions	Items No.	Correlation Coefficient
First	10	0.82
Second	10	0.73
Third	10	0.53
Fourth	15	0.55
Fifth	10	0.64
Sixth	10	0.78

The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.05); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.123)
The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.01); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.165)
Note: the significance is at two tails

The results of Table (7) show that every question has a strong correlation at the significance level of (0.05), so the test is suitable and valid for conducting this study.

5. Reliability of the Diagnostic Test:

The above-mentioned pilot sample participated in the study intended to determine the reliability of the diagnostic test. Two methods were used in this regard: Split-Half Coefficient and Kuder- Richardson 21.

-Split-Half Method:

In this method, Spearman Correlation Coefficient was calculated between the degrees of the single questions and even questions. So, Correlation Coefficients were corrected by using (Spearman - Brown Coefficient) according to the following equation:

$$\text{Reliability Coefficient} = \frac{2r}{r+1}$$

-(r) refers to correlation coefficient. So, the results of Table (8) show that the reliability coefficients of the test items are relatively strong.

Table (8)
Split-Half Coefficient of the Diagnostic Test Reliability

Questions	Items No	Correlation Coefficient	Corrected Correlation Coefficient
First	10	0.82	0.90
Second	10	0.65	0.79
Third	10	0.64	0.78
Fourth	15	0.66	0.80
Fifth	10	0.69	0.81
Sixth	10	0.76	0.86
Total	65	0.70	0.82

The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.05); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.123)
The scheduled value of R is significant at the level (0.01); the degree of freedom (243) equals to the value (0.165)
Note: the significance is at two tails

- Kuder- Richardson 20 Method:

The researcher used Kuder- Richardson 20 method as a second method for measuring the reliability of the test. As seen in Table (9), the scores of reliability coefficients are high.

Table (9)

Kuder- Richardson 20 Coefficient of the Diagnostic Test Reliability

Questions	Items No	Coefficient for Reliability
First	10	0.80
Second	10	0.82
Third	10	0.77
Fourth	15	0.90
Fifth	10	0.88
Sixth	10	0.84
Total	65	0.83

Thus, the validity and reliability of the diagnostic test were ensured for conducting the study.

6. Procedures for Implementing the Diagnostic Test:

The diagnostic test was implemented on the study sample in order to achieve the main aim beyond this study. Prior to handing out the test papers to the sample subjects, the researcher did her best to promote the students' motivation and prompt their awareness

regarding collocations by explaining the vital importance of the topic for them. The researcher, also, provided them with oral instructions, detailed explanations, and words of immense encouragement.

Statistical Analysis:

For manipulating and analyzing the data, the researcher used the statistical package for the Social Science (SPSS). The following statistical analyses were used:

- 1- Percentages: to determine collocation errors types made by English and journalism majors.
- 2- Kuder-Richardson 20 Method: to measure the reliability of the items of the diagnostic test
- 3- Pearson Correlation Coefficient: to measure the validity of the items of the diagnostic test
- 4- Spearman –Brown Coefficient
- 5- Independent Sample T Test: to check if there are any significant differences in the respondents' collocations errors regarding their specialization and gender
- 6- Kruskal Wallis Test to check if there are any significant differences in the respondents' academic level

Summary:

This chapter presented the methodology followed in this study. At the outset, it described the population distribution and gave a full description of the sample in accordance with the study variables. Then detailed information was given for the descriptions of the instruments used. Next, validity and reliability of the instruments were verified and tested for performing the study. Finally, statistical data analyses used in this study were pinpointed. The followed methodology helped yielding results which are presented in the next chapter.

Chapter IV

The Results

Introduction

First: Main Collocation Errors Made by English Majors

First Dimension

Second Dimension

Third Dimension

-English Majors' Competence in Dealing with Collocations within English Language and across English-Arabic Language

Second: Main Collocation Error Types Made by Journalism Majors

First Dimension

Second Dimension

Third Dimension

-Journalism Majors' Competence in Dealing with Collocations within English Language and across English-Arabic Language

-Comparative Summary of Collocation Error Types Made by English and Journalism Majors

-General Collocation Competence of All the Study Subjects (English and Journalism Majors)

Third: Collocation Errors due to Specialization (English Majors: *Art and Education* and Journalism Majors)

Fourth: Collocation Errors due to Gender (Female and Male)

Fifth: Collocation Errors due to the Academic Level (Excellent, Very Good, Good, and Fair)

Introduction:

The aim of this chapter is displaying the study results by answering the research questions. For answering the first two questions, data analysis displays collocation errors types made by English and journalism majors at the IUG throughout three dimensions. These dimensions are characterized as follows:

- Errors of collocations based on the students' background knowledge of native language (NL: Arabic) and foreign language (FL: English)
- Errors related to a comprehensive developed model of collocation categories (collocational range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals)
- Errors related to three fields of knowledge (political, educational and daily life collocations)

In this respect, it is important to state that the term *dimensions* is choosed in this context rather than other terms for a specific purpose. The (65) collocational items which are included in the test are viewed from three different angels. Shifting the angle of perception gives totally different impression of the whole, and involves seeing things through new eyes. In fact, such multi-grouping of collocation errors types causes a sort of challenge in compromising the way of analysis in the three dimensions. Notably, error types of the first dimension are derived from the participants' responses while error types of the other two dimensions are judged according to the type of collocational item itself not the type of the response as it will be demonstrated later.

The first dimension follows Corder's approach(1971:158-171) to error analysis by figuring out the classifications of collocation errors out of the participants' responses. This approach is explained previously in pages (52). In this case, the terminology of error classifications are formulated and developed based on the errors types mentioned by many linguists that mentioned on page (50). The second dimension follows the

prescription approach to error analysis mentioned by Norrish (1994:81). This approach is explained previously on page (53). In this case, the terminology of errors classifications are based on a developed model mentioned previously on page (39). The third dimension follows Norrish's approach too. The terminology of errors classifications in this dimension are based on the three specialized fields of collocation knowledge which are explained previously on page (8).

The results of the collocation error types in the three dimensions produced by English and journalism majors are identified numerically, explicated and exemplified. Then quantitative results of the total score of collocation errors made by both majors in the two parts of the diagnostic test are recorded. It should be noted that only some collocation errors are explained for each type, and the complete list of all important categorized collocation errors are presented in Appendix (F) and the key answers for the diagnostic test are presented in Appendix (E). Finally, in the light of errors percentages, an overall performance of all the subjects of the study is revealed. For answering the last three questions, independent sample t test, one way ANOVA test, and Scheffe test for multiple comparisons are used respectively for data analysis.

First: Main Collocation Errors Made by English Majors:

First Dimension: Errors of Collocations Based on the Students' Background Knowledge of Native Language (NL: Arabic) and Foreign Language (FL: English):

An analysis of collocation errors based on the students' background knowledge of NL and FL reveals predominant seven types of errors which were identified in the data as follows:

1. Improper Synonyms
2. Miscellaneous (False Literary Style, Words Coinage, Graphic Ambiguity, Omission, Irrelevant Collocations, and Avoidance)
3. Literal Translation
4. False Analogy
5. Ignorance of Rules
6. Approximation
7. Paraphrasing

A cursory look at Table (16) below shows the frequencies and percentages of the seven types of collocation errors which are ranked in a descending order according to their percentages of errors.

Table (10)
The Frequency and Percentage of Collocation Errors Types Made by English Majors
(First Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
English Majors	Improper Synonyms	3150	36.68
	Miscellaneous	2612	30.42
	Literal Translation	1374	16.00
	False Analogy	680	7.92
	Ignorance of Rules	517	6.02
	Approximation	168	1.96
	Paraphrasing	86	1.00
Total		8587	%100.00

1. Improper Synonyms:

This type of errors was produced when the examinees used synonymous words that share certain semantic properties which led to anomalous collocations. Based on the results, this type of errors takes the highest position which accounts for more than a third of the errors (36.68 %). Examples of such type of errors are obtained from the subjects' responses in the two parts: the part that deals with collocations within English

Language; and the collocation translation part. These are some examples of improper synonyms errors:

- *fast / quick* increase
- *keep* a meeting
- *pass* a decision
- *catch* break

Examining the above errors, it can be noticed the seriousness of confusing using synonyms associated with words. For instance, the above word *increase*, which is used in terms of quantity rather in terms of quality, has the adjective *rapid* as a collocation. However, choosing the adjectives *fast / quick* indicated the subjects' unawareness of differentiating words with similar meanings.

For errors associated with improper synonyms used in the translation tasks from English to Arabic and vice versa, the followings are some examples:

- The Intifada erupted: اشتعلت الانتفاضة / ثارت الانتفاضة / تفجرت الانتفاضة
(tafajart al intifada/ thart al intifada / isht?lat al intifada)
- bringing down the government: تفكيك الحكومة / تعطيل الحكومة/ تحطيم الحكومة
(tafqueequ al hukuma / ta?teelu al hukuma / tahteemu al hukuma)
- total war: حرب عامة / حرب تامة / حرب كلية / حرب كاملة
(harbun ? ama/ harbun tamma / harbun kulia / harbun kamela)
- اسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu ?ddamari ?shamel): massive , maximal, global destructive weapons / total destroyed weapons/ arms of whole destruction/ complete arms of destruction / weapons of general destruction
- حالة خاصة (halah khasa): particular situation / exclusive state / a private case

In the light of the above- mentioned examples of improper synonyms errors for making collocations, it should be noted that sometimes those errors do not affect the content of the text; rather, they look anomalous, result in register misappreciations and cause lack of precision and professionalism.

2. Miscellaneous:

As evident from the figures in Table (16), this type of collocation errors rates the second rank and accounts for (30.42%) of the total deviations. It comprises various subcategories that were identified from the data. These subcategories of collocation errors types are: (false literary style, words coinage, graphic ambiguity, omission, irrelevant collocations, and avoidance). The followings are wealthy details of these subcategories:

2.1 False Literary Style:

In this type of errors, the students selected sounding words that thought to be more impressive and literary-alike. This literary style was used improperly. An analysis of translations obtained from the data provided many examples:

- bread and butter: الحلو و المر / الحياة حلوة / الرفاهية و الرغد (alhelu wa almur / alhayah hulwa / arrafahia wa arraghad)
- bringing down government: فالتذهب الحكومة (faltazhab alhukoma)
- the talks broke down: كسر حاجز الصمت: (kasara hajezu assamt)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن ذو عيار ثقيل (mudakhenun zu ?iar thaqeel)
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone

2.2 Words Coinage:

In this type of errors, students manipulated the language and invented new words that were nonexistent. Four examples are cited in the data:

- A school of whales: غابة حيتان (ghabatu al hittan)
- Intifada erupted: فوضى الانتفاضة (fawda al intifada)
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): *dislinking* settlement
- سلام دائم (salamn da?em): *long peace / all peace*

2.3 Graphic Ambiguity:

In this type of errors, ambiguity might arise from the orthographical script of certain words. The students might confuse reading the orthographic form of a word. Though the testees demonstrated few examples in the translation task, these examples are interesting to be mentioned with their analysis between the squares:

- a displaced person: شخص معاق (shakhsun mu?aq) [**misreading a displaced as a disabled**]
- severance of relations: العديد من العلاقات / العديد من الأقارب / خدمات العلاقات: (al?adeedu men al ?laqat / al?adeedu men al?qareb / khadamatu al ?laqat) [misreading *severance of relations* as *several of relations / several of relatives / services of relations*]
- carry out attacks: يصرخ في الهجوم (yasrukhu fi alhuju:m) [misreading *carry out* as *cry*]

2.4 Omission:

This error type attested omitting specific linguistic elements by the subjects because of their difficulty to produce. In the following example, the word *public* was omitted during translation: آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?ra? ashare? Al felstinin): *views of Palestinians /opinions of Palestinians*

2.5 Irrelevant Collocations:

This type of errors shows that the examinees produced irrelevant collocation equivalences in their translations. There is no relation between the produced collocation and the collocation that has to be translated. The data exhibited some of those errors like:

- carry out attacks: وقف الهجمات (waqfu alhajamat)
- blowing up the peace process: عرقلة عملية السلام / دفع عملية السلام قدما السلام / احياء عملية السلام / مفاوضات عملية السلام / يقوي عملية السلام (?rqlatu amaliati asalm / daf?u amaliatu asalm quduman / Ihia? amaliati asalm / mufawadatu amaliati asalm / yuqawi amaliatu asalm)

- a displaced person: شخص غير مؤتمن (shakhsun ghir m?utaman)

2.6 Avoidance:

This type of errors resulted from the examinees' refraining from giving responses. They avoided giving responses particularly in the productive task of translation.

3. Literal Translation:

Table (16) reveals that this type of errors accounts for (16.00%) of the subjects' deviant responses. In this case, the subjects manipulated the source language to produce the target language collocations when they failed to produce the appropriate equivalent forms of collocations. Based on the data analysis, it was noticed that the literal translations of many English collocations into Arabic and vice versa produced unnatural and sometimes comic effects as cited in the following examples:

- Alive and kicking: عايش و يرفس / العيش بالركل (?aysh wa yarfus /al?ayshu berrakel)
- a school of whales: مدرسة حيتان (madrasatu hittan)
- the talks broke down كسر المحادثات (kasru almuhadathat)
- blowing up the peace process: يفجر عملية السلام (yufajeru amaliatu assalam)
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqueequ al mustawtanat): disconnecting settlements
- يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi almas?ulia ?la fulan): throw responsibility on some one

In addition, literal translation errors were apparent in dealing with collocations within English language. For example:

- last / final news: the respondents might choose those two terms because they used in Arabic the term آخر الأنباء (?kher al-?nba?).
- break thirst: the respondents might admit this term because they used in Arabic the term يكسر العطش (yakseru al-?ttash).
- do peace: the respondents might choose this term because they used in the colloquial Arabic the term يعمل سلام (y?malu salam); though in formal Arabic, they used the term يصنع سلام (yasna?u salam).

4. False Analogy:

In this type of errors, the respondents made a false analogy by expanding a specific form or expression to a different contextual use in the target language. The data analysis exhibited (7.92 %) of this type of collocation errors. Illustrative examples with their analysis between the squares are given below:

- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel): *dark tea* [interpreting شاي ثقيل as غمق الشاي (ghamiqaa ?shai) and translating غمق into *dark*
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqueequ al mustawtanat): *destroying / separating the settlements, evacuation of the settlement, the settlement removing, withdrawal* [interpreting تفكيك as الاتسحاب من المستوطنات / ازالة المستوطنات / اخلاء / فصل / تدمير and translating them into *destroying / separating/ evacuation/ removing/ withdrawal* respectively]
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): *International policy* [interpreting خارجية as عالمية (?alamia) and translating it into *International*]
- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhliia): *national / local policy* [interpreting داخلية as وطنية or محلية (mahalia / watania) and translating them into *national / local*]

5. Ignorance of Rules:

This type of errors was identified from the data when the subjects' responses indicated their ignorance of applying specific rules. It forms (6.02 %) of the collocation errors made by the testees. The following examples of errors with their analysis between squares illustrate more:

- listen all the lectures at this university [using the verb *listen* without the preposition *to*]
- affects on the topic [using the preposition *on* with the verb *affect*]
- severely experience [using an adverb with a noun]
- promote condemn [using a verb with another verb]

6. Approximation:

The respondents, in this type of errors, used words which are less specific than the intended meaning to express the meaning as closely as possible. It was attested on a very limited scale (1.96 %). It is remarkable to have a close look at the following examples:

- a school of whales: مجموعة من الأسماك (majmu?a men alasmak)
- bread and butter: طعام (ta?am)
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a group of people / many groups of people

Thus, words that subsume a wide variety of items like (a group of, مجموعة من , طعام , الاسماك) respectively are general terms that cover specific items; so it is more appropriate to use the specific terms of (a crowd of people, عيش و ملح, سرب من الحيتان) respectively.

7. Paraphrasing:

This type of errors forms the smallest ratio (1.00 %) of the subjects' overall errors. The respondents tended to describe the characteristics of the collocational item because of their unfamiliarity with the appropriate item. Explicative instances are:

- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): the plan of attack to break down the settlements / the plan of withdrawal from the settlements
- a displaced person:
 - شخص في غير مكانه الصحيح او المناسب (shakhsun fii ?er makaneh almunaseb)
 - شخص منعزل عن مكانه (shakhsun mun?zel ?n mkaneh)
 - وضع شخص في مكان آخر (wadd?u shakhsin fii makanen ?khar)
 - شخص متنقل من مكان لآخر (shakhsun mutanaqelun men mkanen le ?khar)

Second Dimension: Errors Related to a Comprehensive Developed Model of Collocation Categories: An analysis of errors related to collocations categories (collocational range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals) revealed the following numerical results shown in Table (11):

Table (11)
The Frequency and Percentage of Collocation Errors Types Made by English Majors
(Second Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
English Majors	Range	7694	89.60
	Collective Nouns	446	5.19
	Binominals	283	3.30
	Compounds	164	1.91
Total		8587	%100.00

A scrutiny of the scored percentages of each of the collocation error types in the above table shows that errors occurred in the collocational range takes high ratio of the subjects' deviant collocations in the data (89.60%). The other categories of collocations errors: collective nouns, binominals, and compounds account for (5.19%), (3.30%), (1.91%) of the total deviations respectively. Details are as the following:

1. Collocation Errors Related to Range:

On examining the category of collocational range in the data, it was found that this category constituted the most difficult and troublesome area. The participants committed many errors like:

- make a damage
- take an answer
- pay an offer
- go good

For the above examples, the subjects appeared to find them confusable and very problematic to differentiate in meaning. Taking the very common verbs *make* and *do*, the respondents failed to recognize that the basic meaning of *make* is about producing something, and the basic meaning of *do* is about performing an action (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2005:18).

Also, there are some examples of collocation errors which show that the respondents failed in giving the appropriate equivalences for the headwords that have a range of associations in Arabic. For instance:

- يلقى المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi al-mas'uliah ?la fulan): *throw/ put* responsibility on some one
- يلقى السلاح (yulqi asselah): *throw away / put off* arms
- يلقى الرعب في قلبه (yulqi arr'uba fi qalbih): *put /enter* terror in some one's heart

2. Collocation Errors Related to Collective Nouns:

Based on the data results, it has been noticed that the subjects' errors were frequent in using collective nouns inappropriately. By collective nouns, it is meant to describe a group of the same things. Unaware of the appropriate specific words associated with certain animals, the participants failed to produce many collocations. For example:

- سرب من الطيور (serbun men atuyoor): the respondents mistakenly chose the words *a swarm / a herd of birds* from the given choices instead of choosing *a flock of birds*. Though *a swarm* means سرب, it collocates with *flying insects* like *bees/gnats and others* but not with *birds*.

Besides, the subjects demonstrated their unawareness of words associated with people like:

- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): the respondents mistakenly used *a group* of people/ *a lot of* people/ *a mass of* people/ *a school of* people. حشد من الناس is a term that describes a large number of people which has the equivalence in English *a crowd of* people.

Thus, it seems that the subjects did not know the appropriate equivalent collocation for every pre-mentioned collective noun whether in English or Arabic.

3. Collocation Errors Related to Binominals:

In this type of errors, learners appeared to find it difficult to deal with fixed expressions where two words are joined by a conjunction (usually 'and'). According to the data analysis, the examinees probably failed in dealing with such binominals across English and Arabic languages. For example:

- Alive and kicking: the respondents translated it literary into العيش بالركل / عايش و يرفس (?aysh wa yarfus /al?ayshu berrakel).
- bread and butter: the respondents translated it literary into خبز و زبدة (khubzun wa zibddah) indicating their ignorance of the appropriate equivalence of this binominal in Arabic.

4. Collocation Errors Related to Compounds:

Though this category of collocation errors forms the smallest minority of the total errors (1.91%), it is significant to assert that the recorded compounds errors in the data pointed to the subjects' failure in dealing with words made up of two parts that written usually with a hyphen. In the following example, the responses indicated that the subjects did not come up with the appropriate equivalences in their Arabic language.

- absent-minded: the respondents contrived some expressions like:
عقول غائبة / عقول فارغة / عقول متحجرة / عقول تائهة / مجنون
(?uqu:lun ghaeba / faregha / mutahajerra / ta?eha / majnu:n).

Third Dimension: Errors Related to Three Fields of Knowledge (Political, Educational and Daily Life Collocations):

An analysis of errors related to political, educational and daily life collocations gave numerical results shown in the following table:

Table (12)
The Frequency and Percentage of Collocation Errors Types Made by English Majors (Third Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
English Majors	Politics	4008	46.68
	Education	1430	16.65
	Daily life	3149	36.67
Total		8587	100.00

A close look at the total percentages of the deviant answers for each type included in the above table, it is noted that errors made on the political collocations forms the highest rank (46.68 %) of the total errors. Next is the percent of errors made on the daily life collocational terms (36.67 %). For errors made on the educational collocations, they form the smallest percent (16.65 %). The above-mentioned three types of collocation errors are illustrated as the following:

1. Political Collocation Errors:

A careful analysis of the performance data shows that the students made errors excessively on the political collocations. The examinees failed to deal with many famous and common political collocations. In the following examples, they produced irrelevant collocations within political English language:

- *come to defeat*
- *friendly condemn*
- *promote a ceasefire*

The next examples show the failure of the respondents in giving appropriate translation to the following political collocations:

- a displaced person: انسان مشرد/ شخص مقال / شخص مبعد (insanun musharad / shakhsun muqal / shakhsun mub?d)
- سلام دائم (salamn da?em): peace for ever/ life long peace/ constant peace

2. Educational Collocation Errors:

A closer examination of this type of errors, it can be said that the testees failed to deal with many educational collocations used within English language. For example they produced the following deviant responses:

- *take* an answer
- *make* feedback
- *affect on* the topic
- *fulfill* a degree
- *severely* discussion

3. Daily Life Collocation Errors: On the basis of the results from the data, the students did not succeed in responding to several of daily life collocations used either within English language or in translation such as:

- *fast* increase / *keep* a meeting / *make* a damage
- bread and butter : خبز وزبدة (khubzun wa zibddah)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن شديد / مدخن شه / مدخن محترف / مدخن مزمن (mudakhenun shadeed, shareh, muhtaref, muzmen)

English Majors' Competence in Dealing with Collocations within English Language and across English-Arabic Language:

Having showed the types of collocation errors made by English majors, it is necessary to give a holistic picture of their competence in dealing with collocations within English

language and across English-Arabic language. This section presents the results of English majors' collocation errors made in both parts of the diagnostic test as an indicator for their linguistic competence in this regard. The first three tables (19-20-21) relate to the first part that deals with collocations within English language. The last three tables (22-23-24) relate to the second part that deals with collocations across English and Arabic language. Within this context, a detailed analysis is provided for errors made in each question in the two parts. Then the total score for each part is presented.

1. Results of the Three Questions of the First Part (Collocations within English Language)

Table (13)

The Frequency and Percentage of Answers of the First Question in Part (1)

Items No.	English Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	41	161	79.70
2	52	150	74.26
3	27	175	86.63
4	43	159	78.71
5	51	151	74.75
6	22	180	89.11
7	33	169	83.66
8	44	158	78.22
9	44	158	78.22
10	31	171	84.65
Total	Mean	Sd. Deviation	Percent %
	8.01	1.739	%80.1

The results of the Table (19) show that the subjects' collocation errors in *the matching question* score a high percentage (80.1 %).

Table (14)**The Frequency and Percentage of Answers of the Second Question in Part (1)**

English Majors			
Item No.	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	73	129	63.86
2	181	21	10.40
3	114	88	43.56
4	121	81	40.10
5	109	93	46.04
6	139	63	31.19
7	36	166	82.18
8	105	97	48.02
9	69	133	65.84
10	97	105	51.98
Total	Mean	Sd. Deviation	Percent %
	5.17	1.776	%51.7

According to the results of the Table (14), more than a half of the answers in the *multiple choice question* are incorrect (51.7 %).

Table (15)**The Frequency and Percentage of Answers of the Third Question in Part (1)**

English Majors			
Items No.	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	31	171	84.65
2	86	116	57.43
3	53	149	73.76
4	47	155	76.73
5	99	103	50.99
6	100	102	50.50
7	98	104	51.49
8	106	96	47.52
9	98	104	51.49
10	58	144	71.29
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	6.16	1.996	%61.6

The results of Table (21) indicate that (61.6%) of the answers in the question of *crossing the odd collocation* are deviant.

In the light of the results of the above-mentioned three tables related to the questions of the first part, the total score of the errors of collocations within English language is (64.46%). The subjects appeared to find the first question (matching collocational items) as the most difficult; next to it is the third question (crossing the odd collocation); the final difficult question is the second one (multiple choice) according to the results.

2. Results of the Three Questions of the Second Part (Collocations across English-Arabic Language)

Table (16)

The Frequency and Percentage of Answers of the First Question in Part (2)

Items No.	English Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	103	99	49.01
2	117	85	42.08
3	60	142	70.30
4	16	186	92.08
5	24	178	88.12
6	86	116	57.43
7	39	163	80.69
8	77	125	61.88
9	32	170	84.16
10	58	144	71.29
11	38	164	81.19
12	52	150	74.26
13	69	133	65.84
14	56	146	72.28
15	133	69	34.16
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	11.227	3.646	%74.8

In terms of the results of Table (22), the subjects' errors made on the question of *translating collocations from English to Arabic* take (74.8%)

Table (17)**The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Second Question in Part (2)**

Items No.	English Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	42	160	79.21
2	61	141	69.80
3	34	168	83.17
4	27	175	86.63
5	24	178	88.12
6	26	176	87.13
7	98	104	51.49
8	30	172	85.15
9	31	171	84.65
10	70	132	65.35
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	7.81	1.589	%78.1

On the basis of the results from Table (23), (78.1%) of the responses to the question of *translating collocations from Arabic to English* are incorrect.

Table (18)**The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Third Question in Part (2)**

Items No.	English Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	46	156	77.23
2	77	125	61.88
3	113	89	44.06
4	100	102	50.50
5	109	93	46.04
6	121	81	40.10
7	115	87	43.07
8	43	159	78.71
9	109	93	46.04
10	99	103	50.99
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	5.39	2.121	%53

The results as presented in the above table reveal that more than half of the answers to *the multiple choice of collocations translation (Arabic-English)* are deviant (53.9%).

As apparent in the results of the above three tables of the second part that deals with collocations across Arabic and English language, it can be stated that the total score of the collocation errors is (66.7%). As the second question records the highest percent of errors in this part, the participants appeared to find it difficult to translate collocations from Arabic to English appropriately. The next difficult question is that of translating collocations from English to Arabic. For the last question of multiple choice of collocations translation, it seems that it constitutes the easiest of the three questions.

Summing up the results of collocation errors made by English majors in both parts of the diagnostic test, it can be pointed out that errors made in the second part (66.7%) are likely more than errors made in the first part (64.46%). This means that the subjects appeared to find collocations translation as more difficult than using collocations within English language.

Second: Main Collocation Error Types Made by Journalism Majors:

The same three systematic steps followed for displaying and analyzing the results of collocation error types made by English majors are, also, followed for answering the second question of the study.

First Dimension: Errors of Collocations Based on the Students' Background Knowledge of Native Language (NL: Arabic) and Foreign Language (FL: English):

An analysis of collocation errors based on the students' background knowledge of NL and FL reveals seven types of errors made by journalism majors which were identified in the data as follows:

1. Miscellaneous (False Literary Style, Words Coinage, Omission, Irrelevant Collocations, and Avoidance)
2. Improper Synonyms
3. Literal Translation

- 4.False Analogy
- 5.Ignorance of Rules
- 6.Approximation
- 7.Paraphrasing

The tabulation below presents the frequencies and percentages of collocation errors types which are ranked in a descending order according to the percents of the deviant answers.

Table (19)
The Frequency and Percentages of Collocations Error Types_Made by Journalism Majors (First Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
Journalism Majors	Miscellaneous	874	38.12
	Improper Synonyms	739	32.23
	Literal Translation	273	11.91
	False Analogy	185	8.07
	Ignorance of Rules	146	6.37
	Approximation	42	1.83
	Paraphrasing	34	1.48
Total		2293	%100.00

1. Miscellaneous:

This type of errors scores the highest degree of the total types of collocation errors which accounts for (38.12%). This category encompasses six subcategories identified from the data. These subcategories of collocation errors types are: (false literary style, words coinage, omission, irrelevant collocations, and avoidance). The followings provide vivid details of these subcategories:

1.1 False Literary Style:

Examples taken out of the data reveal that the subjects tried to use some improper literary expressions in translating specific collocations. For instance:

- the talks broke down: كسر الحواجز في الحديث (kasru al-hawajez fi al-hadeeth)
- alive and kicking: اضرب و القي / عيش وارمي وراء ظهرك / الحياة غدارة / مقال الحياة: مقالب الحياة

(?ddrub wa ?ilqa / ?i:sh wa ?irmi wra? zahrik / al-haia ghaddara / maqalbu al-haia)

- blowing up the peace process: اغراق عملية السلام (ighraq amalit assalm):
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone

1.2 Words Coinage:

Considering this type of errors, it is figured out that some non-existent expressions were invented by the participants. For example:

- absent-minded: عقل خفي (?qulun khafi)
- carry out attacks: هجوم مستقطع (huju:m musta?t?)
- blowing up the peace process: تدرج عملية السلام (tadahruju ?maliti assalm)
- المنظمة العالمية (al-munazama al-alamia): all organization

1.3 Irrelevant Collocations:

It is found that the students made a lot of irrelevant responses to some collocational items. Some of illustrative error examples are presented below:

- blowing up the peace process: إعادة إحياء عملية السلام/تطور/ خرق / استمرارية عملية السلام (i?adet ?ihia? amalit assalm/ jatawru / kharq / ?istmrarit ?maliti assalm)
- a school of whales: مدرسة المشاغبين / مدرسة كبيرة (madrastu al-mushaghbeen / madrasatun kabi:ra)
- bringing down the government: مساندة الحكومة / تشكيل الحكومة/ ينشأ حكومة (musanadatu al-hukuma / tashkeelu al-hukuma / unshe?u al- hukuma)
- open fire: حرب باردة / حرب جماعية (harbun jamma?ia / harbun bareda)

1.4 Omission:

It is notable in some of the subjects' performances that particular elements were omitted during their translation of some collocations. Some examples are:

- آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?ra? ashare? Al felstinin) : Palestinians' opinions
- خطة فك الارتباط (khatatu faqi al?rtibat): the plan of settlements

1.5 Avoidance:

A great majority of the participants avoided giving answers in many questions in both parts of the test.

2. Improper Synonyms:

This type of errors takes the second rank, as it scores (32.23%) of the collocation errors.

A considerable number of examples are recorded on using improper synonyms either in the tasks of collocations within English language or in the translation tasks. The followings are some examples of these errors:

- *take* an answer
- *have* an action
- *catch* break

Examining the wrong usage of the italicized verbs with their collocates, it can be said that the subjects found these verbs thoroughly confusable. Using improper synonyms is greatly identified in translating collocations as shown in the following instances:

- the intifada erupted: انطلاقة الانتفاضة / ثورة الانتفاضة/ نشوب الانتفاضة / قامت الانتفاضة/ شبت الانتفاضة (intelaqitu al-intifada / thawratu al-intifad/ nushu:b al-intifada / gamat al-intifad/ shabat al-intifada)
- severance of relations: علاقات مبتورة (?lakat mabtu:ra)
- the talks broke down: فشلت المناقشات / احتدم الكلام (?ihtadam al-kalam / fashelat al-munakashat)
- المنظمة العالمية (al-munazama al-alamia): a universal organization

3. Literal Translation:

This type of errors accounts for (11.91%) of the total collocation errors. The subjects tended to use literal translation for producing many collocations which gives arise to many errors. Some examples of such errors are:

- a fierce battle: معركة متوحشة: (ma?rakatun mutawahisha)

- absent-minded: عقول غائبة / عقول غير موجود (?qel ghir mawju:d / ?u:qu:lung ha?eba)
- خطة فك الارتباط (khtet faqu al-?irtebat): the plan of breaking down the relations

Also, literal translation errors appear in dealing with collocations within English like:

- final news: as a literal translation of آخر الانباء (?kher al-?nba?) in Arabic

3. False analogy:

As it is clear from the figures of Table (25), this type of collocation errors scores (8.07%). In this case, the data analysis reveals many examples of faulty expanding of some expressions that exist in the source language to the expressions in the target language. Instances are:

- absent-minded: عقول خاملة / عقول ضائعة (?uqu:lu:n khamela/ da?e?a) [**interpreting absent as lost / lazy and translating it into خاملة/ ضائعة**]
- total war: تصفيات الحرب / الحرب النهائية (tasfiat al-harb/ al-harbu anneha?ia) [**interpreting total as final results of something then translating it into تصفيات النهائية**]
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqi:ku al-mustawtanat): settlement leaving [**interpreting تفكيك as ترك المستوطنات (tarku al-mustawtant) and translating ترك into leaving**]

4. Ignorance of Rules:

Table (25) displays that (6.37%) of errors are of ignorance of applying specific rules on using collocations. Some examples of such errors are:

- a heated condemn [using an adjective with a verb]
- strike condemn [using a verb with another verb]
- severely criticism [using an adverb with a noun]

5. Approximation:

A small minority of collocation errors are of approximation (1.83%). The following examples show that the participants used general terms of collocations to refer to specific terms of collocations. Some of these error examples are:

- a school of whales: جماعة من الحيتان / مجموعة من الحيتان/ عالم الحيتان (majmu:?a men al-hittan / jamma?a men al-hittan / ?alam al-hittan)
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a group of people

6. Paraphrasing:

This type of errors scores the smallest percent of the total collocations errors (1.48%).

Considerable examples show that the subjects provided paraphrased phrases as equivalences to some collocations such as:

- a heavy smoker: مدخن كثير التدخين (mudakhen kathi:r attadkhi:n)
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): a plan for separating the connection

Second Dimension: Errors Related to a Comprehensive Developed Model of

Collocation Categories:

In terms of an analysis of errors related to collocation categories of collocational range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals, the following table shows the sum and percentages of each error type.

Table (20)
The Frequency and Percentage of Collocation Error Types Made by Journalism Majors (Second Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
Journalism Majors	Range	2032	88.62
	Collective Nouns	152	6.63
	Binominals	68	2.97
	Compounds	41	1.79
Total		2293	%100.00

As presented in the above table, errors associated with collocational range record the highest score (88.62%). For errors made on collective nouns, binominals, and compounds, they account for (6.63%), (2.97%), and (1.79%) respectively. Details are as the following:

Collocation Errors Related to Range:

The data analysis indicates that the subjects produced a full-scale errors related to collocational range. The following headverbs usually collocate with a range of items, but the examinees mischosed the appropriate item such as:

- *keep* a meeting
- *have* an action
- *break* thirst

In addition, translating collocational headwords that have a range of items sound to be notoriously difficult to deal with such as:

- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): *outside/ internal /outdoors* policy
- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhliia): *inside/external / Indoors* policy

2. Collocation Errors Related to Collective Nouns:

Notably, it is succeeded to detect some collocation errors related to collective nouns.

For instance:

- a school of whales: many subjects provided جماعة من الحيتان / مجموعة من الحيتان (jamma?a mna al-hittan / majmu:?a men al-hittan) instead of saying سرب من الحيتان (serbum mena al-hittan). They tended to convey the meaning of *a group of whales*. However, the term *a group* is a general item that is given to things that share similar properties.
- قطيع من الإبقار: (qatte?un men al abqaar): the respondents chose the words *a swarm / a flock of herds* instead of *a herd of birds* ignoring the nature of every term and its suitable association.

3. Collocation Errors Related to Binominals:

This type of collocation errors records many improper responses to the binominal items such as:

- Alive and kicking: this binominal item is literary translated into حي يركل / عايش و يرفس (haiun yarkul / ?aysh wa yarfus).
- bread and butter: this item is translated into خبز و زبدة / خبز و مربى (khubzun wa muraba / khubzun wa zibddah)

4. Collocation Errors Related to Compounds:

Many unnatural collocations were provided by the examinees as equivalences to compounds. For example:

- absent-minded: غائب التركيز / عقول تافهة / عقل فاضي / جاهل / فاقد عقله / عقول غائبة

(gha?eb ?ttarki:z/ ?qu:lun tafaha/ ?aqulun fadi / jahel / faqedun ?qlah / ghiab ?l?qel/
?u:qu:lun gha?eba)

Third Dimension: Errors Related to Three Fields of Knowledge (Political, Educational and Daily Life Collocations)

An analysis of errors related to political, educational and daily life collocations reveals the following numerical results as presented in the following table:

Table (21)

The Frequency and Percentages of Collocations Error Types Made by Journalism Majors (Third Dimension)

Major	Collocation Error Types	Total	
		Frequency	Percent
Journalism	Politics	998	43.52
Majors	Education	396	17.27
	Daily life	899	39.21
Total		2293	%100.00

The results from the above table show that the journalism majors made the highest percent of errors that relate to the political collocations (43.52%). Next to it are the errors associated with the daily life collocations which account for (39.21%); then are the errors related to the educational collocations which account for (17.27%). For more detailed analysis of such collocation errors types, an illustrative image is provided as the following:

1. Political Collocation Errors:

Profoundly, it is figured out that there is a great majority of political collocation errors made by the journalism participants. They failed in dealing with some political expressions that used frequently in the media. Some of those errors are:

- *last/ final* news

- a heated condemn
- a crushing ceasefire

In addition, some inappropriate responses are given regarding translating the following collocations:

- talks broke down : انكسرت المحادثات (inkasarat ?Imuhadathat)
- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): losses
- a displaced person: شخص منبوذ (shakhsun manbu:z)

2. Educational Collocation Errors:

In this type of errors, it can be said that some collocations used in the education field seem to be difficult for the journalism examinees to deal with. Some of the errors which are recorded in using collocations within English:

- assist lectures
- strike a study
- strike criticism
- break discussion
- carry out a response

Also, some inappropriate responses are given in terms of translating the following educational collocation:

- absent-minded: عقول خاملة/ عقول ضائعة/ عقول غائبة / عقل غير موجود/ عقل خفي: (?uqulu:n khamela/ ?uqulu:n da?e?a/ ?uqulu:n gha?eba/ ?qel ghir mawju:d/?qulun khafi)

3. Daily Life Collocation Errors:

Regarding the daily life collocations, the data analysis indicates abject failure of the participants in dealing with many common terms like:

- severely experience
- under the poverty line
- take an accident
- catch break

- arise / rise issue
- tears flow
- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel): *heavy / dark* tea

Journalism Majors' Competence in Dealing with Collocations within English Language and across English-Arabic Language:

Having presented the types of collocation errors made by journalism majors, it is necessary to give a holistic picture of their competence in dealing with collocations within English language and across English-Arabic language. The results of the journalism majors' collocation errors made in both parts of the diagnostic test are showed in the following tables. The first three tables relate to the first part that deals with collocations within English language. The last three tables relate to the second part that deals with collocations across English and Arabic language. Detailed scores of errors made in each question along with the total scores of each part are provided.

1. Results of the Three Questions of the First Part (Collocations within English Language):

Table (22)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the First Question in Part (1)

Items No.	Journalism Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	4	39	89.92
2	9	34	91.21
3	3	40	89.66
4	3	40	89.66
5	2	41	89.41
6	4	39	89.92
7	4	39	89.92
8	9	34	91.21
9	3	40	89.66
10	2	41	89.41
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	6.77	1.134	%89.99

The results of Table (20) reveal that the subjects' collocation errors in *the matching question* score (89.9%).

Table (23)

The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Second Question in Part (1)

Items No.	Journalism Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	8	35	81.40
2	18	25	58.14
3	12	31	72.09
4	13	30	69.77
5	8	35	81.40
6	19	24	55.81
7	8	35	81.40
8	15	28	65.12
9	19	24	55.81
10	19	24	55.81
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	6.77	1.134	%67.7

Table (29) shows that the errors made in *the multiple choice question* score (67.7%).

Table (24)

The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Third Question in Part (1)

Items No.	Journalism Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	9	34	79.07
2	14	29	67.44
3	3	40	93.02
4	12	31	72.09
5	10	33	76.74
6	8	35	81.40
7	5	38	88.37
8	5	38	88.37
9	6	37	86.05
10	8	35	81.40
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	8.14	1.597	%81.4

In the light of the results of Table (30), errors made in the question of *crossing out the odd collocation* score a high percent (81.4%).

On the basis of the results from the three above-mentioned tables related to the questions of the first part, the total score of the errors of collocations within English language is (79.6%). The journalism subjects appeared to find the first question *matching collocational items* as the most troublesome; next to it is the third question *crossing out the odd collocation* then the second one *multiple choice*.

Second: Results of the Three Questions of the Second Part (Collocations across English-Arabic Language)

Table (25)

The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the First Question in Part (2)

Items No.	Journalism Majors		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	12	31	72.09
2	3	40	93.02
3	2	41	95.35
4	0	43	100.00
5	0	43	100.00
6	10	33	76.74
7	0	43	100.00
8	11	32	74.42
9	1	42	97.67
10	1	42	97.67
11	2	41	95.35
12	15	28	65.12
13	3	40	93.02
14	2	41	95.35
15	11	32	74.42
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	14.302	2.639	%95.34

According to the results of Table (31), errors made on the question of *translating collocations from English to Arabic* score a very high percent (95.34%).

Table (26)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Second Question in Part (2)

Journalism Majors			
Items No.	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	7	36	83.72
2	4	39	90.70
3	11	32	74.42
4	1	42	97.67
5	10	33	76.74
6	3	40	93.02
7	12	31	72.09
8	3	40	93.02
9	7	36	83.72
10	6	37	86.05
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	8.51	1.316	%85

In terms of the results of Table (32), errors made on the question of *translating collocations from Arabic to English* account for (85.1%)

Table (27)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Third Question in Part (2)

Journalism Majors			
Items No.	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	5	38	88.37
2	14	29	67.44
3	14	29	67.44
4	7	36	83.72
5	14	29	67.44
6	7	36	83.72
7	5	38	88.37
8	14	29	67.44
9	14	29	67.44
10	9	34	79.07
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	7.6	1.990	%76.0

Table (27) indicates that errors made in the question of *the multiple choice of collocations translation* score (76.0%).

Clearly enough, the results of the three tables related to the second part that deals with collocations across Arabic and English language reveal the total score of the collocations errors which accounts for (84.1%). Obviously, it can be said that the first question *translating collocations from English to Arabic* has the highest percent of errors in this part. The next difficult question is that of *translating collocations from Arabic to English*. For the last question of *multiple choice of collocations translation*, it is recorded as the easiest of the three ones.

To sum up the results of collocation errors made by the journalism majors in both parts of the diagnostic test, it can be concluded that errors made in the second part (84.1%) are more than errors made in the first part (79.6 %). Thus, the journalism subjects appeared to find collocation translation as more difficult than using collocations within English language.

Comparative Summary of Collocation Error Types Made by English and Journalism Majors:

This section presents a comparative summary of collocation error types made by English and journalism majors. Regarding the first dimension of analyzing collocation errors types, the English majors were found to commit errors in the following types in a descending order: improper synonyms (36.68%), miscellaneous (30.42%), literal translation (16.00%), false analogy (7.92%), ignorance of rules (6.02%), approximation (1.96%), and paraphrasing (1.00%). For the journalism majors, their collocation errors have a semi different descending order with different percents from the English majors' ones. They are: miscellaneous (38.12%), improper synonyms (32.23), literal translation (11.91%), false analogy (8.07%), ignorance of rules (6.37%), approximation (1.83%), and paraphrasing (1.48%).

For the second dimension of analyzing collocation error types, both the English and the journalism majors have the same descending order of error types but with different percents. For English majors, collocation error types are: range (89.60%), collectives (5.19%), binominals (3.30%), and compounds (1.91%). For journalism majors, collocations error types are: range (88.62%), collectives (6.63%), binominals (2.97%), and compounds (1.79%).

In terms of the third dimension of analyzing collocation error types, the English and the journalism majors face difficulties in the same order of error types but with different percents. For English majors, collocation error types are: political (46.68%), daily life (36.67%), and education (16.65%). For journalism majors, collocation error types are: political (43.52%), daily life (39.21%), and education (17.27%). In the light of the percents of the three dimensions of collocation error types, it can be concluded that the journalism majors' errors are higher than the English majors' ones.

Regarding the collocation errors made in the two parts of the diagnostic test as an indicator to the participants' competence, the results indicate that the English majors' collocation errors made in the first part score (64.4%) while the journalism majors' ones score (79.6%). In the second part, collocation errors made by the English majors take (66.7%) while journalism majors' errors take (84.1%). Accordingly, the collocation errors percentages made by the journalism majors in the both parts of the test are higher than the errors made by the English majors.

General Collocation Competence of All the Study Subjects (English and Journalism Majors):

Showing the collocation competence of each major separately, it is necessary to show the general competence of all the study subjects (English and journalism majors)

through revealing the frequency and percentages of collocation errors made by both majors in each part of the test.

Table (28)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the First Question Part (1)

Items No	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	90.70	200	81.63
2	79.07	184	75.10
3	93.02	215	87.76
4	93.02	199	81.22
5	95.35	192	78.37
6	90.70	219	89.39
7	90.70	208	84.90
8	79.07	192	78.37
9	93.02	198	80.82
10	95.35	212	86.53
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	8.18	1.69	%81.8

The above table shows that the English and journalism subjects' collocation errors score (81.8%) in *the matching question*.

Table (29)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Second Question in Part (1)

Items No	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	81	164	66.94
2	199	46	18.78
3	126	119	48.57
4	134	111	45.31
5	117	128	52.24
6	158	87	35.51
7	44	201	82.04
8	120	125	51.02
9	88	157	64.08
10	116	129	52.65
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	4.83	2.007	%48.3

Table (35) shows that errors made by all the subjects in *the multiple choice question* score (48.3%).

Table (30)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Third Question in Part (1)

Items No	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	40	205	83.67
2	100	145	59.18
3	56	189	77.14
4	59	186	75.92
5	109	136	55.51
6	108	137	55.92
7	103	142	57.96
8	111	134	54.69
9	104	141	57.55
10	66	179	73.06
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	6.51	2.072	%65.1

Table (36) indicates that (65.1%) of the subjects' answers are incorrect in the question of *crossing out the odd collocation*.

Table (31)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the First Question in Part (2)

Items No	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	115	130	53.06
2	120	125	51.02
3	62	183	74.69
4	16	229	93.47
5	24	221	90.20
6	96	149	60.82
7	39	206	84.08
8	88	157	64.08
9	33	212	86.53
10	59	186	75.92
11	40	205	83.67
12	67	178	72.65
13	72	173	70.61
14	58	187	76.33
15	144	101	41.22
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	11.767	3.983	%78.44

The above table shows that (78.4%) of collocation errors were made by the subjects in the question of *translating collocations from English to Arabic*.

Table (32)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Second Question in Part (2)

Items No.	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	49	196	80.00
2	65	180	73.47
3	45	200	81.63
4	28	217	88.57
5	34	211	86.12
6	29	216	88.16
7	110	135	55.10
8	33	212	86.53
9	38	207	84.49
10	76	169	68.98
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	7.93	1.565	%79.3

According to Table (38), the results reveal that collocation errors made in the question of *translating collocations from Arabic into English* account for (79.3 %)

Table (33)
The Frequency and Percentages of Answers of the Third Question in Part (2)

Items No.	All the Study Subjects		
	Frequency of Correct Answers	Frequency of Incorrect Answers	Percents of Incorrect Answers
1	51	194	79.18
2	91	154	62.86
3	127	118	48.16
4	107	138	56.33
5	123	122	49.80
6	128	117	47.76
7	120	125	51.02
8	57	188	76.73
9	123	122	49.80
10	108	137	55.92
Total	Mean	Sd. deviation	Percent %
	5.78	2.259	%57.8

The last above table points out that more than a half of the answers (57, 8%) made by all the subjects are incorrect in the question of *multiple choice of collocations translation*.

According to the results of the three tables related to the first part, the total score of the collocation errors made by both the English and the journalism majors accounts for (65.0%). Generally, it is apparent that the first question *matching collocations items* is the most difficult for the study subjects (81.8%); next is the third question *crossing out the odd collocation* which accounts for (65.1%); the second question *multiple choice* is the easiest one of the three as it accounts for (48.3%). For the total score of collocation errors made by all the subjects in the second part, it accounts for (75.0%). There is not much difference in the percent of errors made in the first and the second question *translating collocations from English to Arabic and vice versa* as they account for (78.4%), (79.3%) respectively. The third question *multiple choice of translating collocations* sounds to be the easiest in this part for all the subjects (57.8%).

In short, the total score of collocation errors made by all the subjects in the second part of the diagnostic test (75.00%) is higher than the total score of the first part (65.06%). This means that dealing with collocations across the Arabic and English language is the most problematic and error-generating area for the English and journalism majors.

Third: Collocation Errors due to Specialization (English Majors and Journalism Majors):

The third question of this study is "are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to specialization (English majors and journalism majors)? To answer this question, the researcher used *independent sample T test* as shown in the following table:

Table (34)
Independent Sample T Test of Collocations Errors Due to Specialization

Part	No. of Items	Specialization	N	Mean	Sd. Deviation	T test	P-Value
Part 1.1	10	English Majors	202	8.0792	1.67916	-3.430	0.001
		Journalism Majors	43	9.0000	1.13389		
Part 1.2	10	English Majors	202	5.7673	1.79006	-6.331	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	7.7674	2.26608		
Part 1.3	10	English Majors	202	7.1584	1.99618	-6.102	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	9.1395	1.59734		
Total 1	30	English Majors	202	21.0050	3.83814	-7.764	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	25.9070	3.35810		
Part 2.1	15	English Majors	202	11.2277	2.49330	-7.765	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	14.3023	1.55126		
Part 2.2	10	English Majors	202	8.7574	1.66185	-2.536	0.012
		Journalism Majors	43	9.4419	1.31479		
Part 2.3	10	English Majors	202	6.3861	2.12059	-6.295	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	8.6047	1.98973		
Total 2	35	English Majors	202	15.1436	2.94969	-5.927	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	18.0465	2.75122		
All	65	English Majors	202	47.3762	7.25080	-9.161	0.000
		Journalism Majors	43	58.2558	6.14156		

The critical value at the degree of freedom (243) and is equal to (1.96)

The results shown in Table (40) illustrate that the values of T test for both parts are greater than the critical value at the degree of freedom (243) which is equal to (1.96); and the P-values for both parts are less than (0.05). So, the null hypothesis is rejected. Hence, there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to specialization (English majors and journalism majors). In other words, the journalism majors' collocation errors are higher than those made by the English majors.

Fourth: Collocation Errors due to Gender (Female and Male):

The fourth question of the study is "are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to gender (female and male)? For answering this question, the researcher used *independent sample T test* as shown in the following table:

Table (35)
Independent Sample T Test of Collocations Errors Due to Gender

Part	No. of Items	Gender	No. of Sample	Mean	Sd .Deviation	T Test	P- Value
Part 1.1	10	Male	60	8.4667	1.25505	1.234	0.218
		Female	185	8.1676	1.73488		
Part 1.2	10	Male	60	6.8167	2.30322	3.127	0.002
		Female	185	5.8919	1.87929		
Part 1.3	10	Male	60	8.6833	1.99569	5.344	0.000
		Female	185	7.1243	1.95345		
Part 1	30	Male	60	23.9667	4.31382	4.654	0.000
		Female	185	21.1838	3.92716		
Part 2.1	15	Male	60	12.7333	2.74860	3.344	0.001
		Female	185	11.4541	2.51718		
Part 2.2	10	Male	60	8.7000	1.76885	-	0.331
		Female	185	8.9351	1.57636	0.974	
Part 2.3	10	Male	60	7.9500	2.54735	4.844	0.000
		Female	185	6.3946	2.02188		
Part2	35	Male	60	16.6500	3.73179	2.897	0.004
		Female	185	15.3297	2.82158		
All	65	Male	60	53.3500	9.75257	4.606	0.000
		Female	185	47.9676	7.15656		

The critical value at a degree of freedom (243) is equal to (1.96)

The results shown in Table (40) indicate that the values of T test for both parts are greater than the critical value at the degree of freedom (243) which is equal to (1.96); and the P-value for both parts are less than (0.05). So, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to gender (female and male). In other words, the collocation errors committed by the males are higher than those committed by the females.

Fifth: Collocation Errors due to the Academic Level (Excellent, Very Good, Good, and Fair):

The fifth question of the study is "are there statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to the academic level (excellent, very good, good, and fair)? To answer this question, the researcher used *Kruskal Wallis Test* as shown in the following table:

Table (36)
Kruskal Wallis Test of Collocations Errors Due to the Academic Level

Questions Parts	No. of Items	Mean Rank (incorrect answers)				Chi- Square	P-Value
		Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent		
Part 1.1	10	202.50	134.19	110.58	84.64	14.327	0.002
Part 1.2	10	171.50	136.14	111.59	52.43	16.300	0.001
Part 1.3	10	205.00	141.44	103.47	72.57	26.190	0.000
Part 2.1	15	185.63	133.20	110.21	117.29	9.748	0.021
Part 2.2	10	152.00	139.19	109.00	52.57	18.623	0.000
Part 2.3	10	207.75	149.15	97.38	36.07	47.581	0.000
All	65	202.50	134.19	110.58	84.64	14.327	0.002

The result illustrated in Table (42) shows that the P-value for each part is less than 0.05. So, the null hypothesis is rejected which means that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to the academic level (excellent, very good, good, and fair). The higher level of academic achievement is, the less collocation errors are and vice versa. In other words, the fair level got the highest score of the collocation errors, then these errors are decreased within the levels of good, very good and excellent respectively.

Summary:

In conclusion, this chapter presented quantitative and qualitative results obtained through implementing the diagnostic test on the English and the journalism majors at the IUG in order to answer the study questions regarding collocation errors. In the light of these results, the discussion will be provided in the next chapter.

Chapter V

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

Introduction

First: Discussion of the Results Related to Main Collocation Errors Made by English Majors and Journalism Majors:

First Dimension

Second Dimension

Third Dimension

-General Collocation Competence of All the Study Subjects (English and Journalism Majors

-Contributory Factors to the Subjects' Collocational Incompetence

Second: Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to Specialization

Third: Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to Gender

Fourth: Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to the Academic Level

Conclusion

Recommendations

-Recommendations for Teachers of English Language and Majors of English and Journalism

-Recommendations for Materials Designers

- Recommendations for English and Journalism Departments

-Recommendations for Further Studies

Introduction:

The chief aim of this chapter is discussing the study results thoroughly and finding out a close connection between these results and the results of the previous studies. Also, far-reaching recommendations along with constructive and practical suggestions are provided.

1. Discussion of the Results Related to Main Collocation Errors Made by English

Majors and Journalism Majors:

First Dimension: Errors of Collocations Based on the Students' Background

Knowledge of NL and FL:

The results of the collocation deviations in the first dimension support strongly the hypothesis put forward that these deviations may be traceable to the students' background knowledge of NL and FL. In more details, it is quite clear that a great majority of English and journalism majors have limited knowledge of collocational terms in both English and Arabic language. Examining the subjects' errors reveals many points that are valuable to discuss in this context.

For the collocational knowledge of Arabic language, the results reveal that many of the participants' problems in dealing with collocations can be linked to the influence of Arabic language which is the participants' native language. It seems that they lack adequate knowledge regarding the common collocational terms used in their native language. Such insufficient knowledge of the native language has many manifestations. One, as evidence from the recorded errors of improper synonyms, the students seemed unable to decide on the appropriate expression used in their native language equivalent to the collocational expression in the target language. For example, in their translated forms of *the intifada erupted*, the examinees gave various improper synonyms

associated with *the intifada* assuming that they are semantically equivalent to the corresponding word *erupted*:

تفجرت الانتفاضة / اشتعلت الانتفاضة / انطلاق الانتفاضة / ثورة الانتفاضة / نشوب الانتفاضة

(tafajart al intifada / isht'lat al intifada/ intelaqitu al-intifada/ thawratu al intifada/

nushu:b al intifada

Failing to give the proper expression اندلاع الانتفاضة (indela'? al intifada) used in their native language, students resorted to bringing about many closest terms in an attempt to convey the intended meaning. It is important to emphasize that the given response انطلاق الانتفاضة is in fact not appropriate collocation because the word انطلاق involves a sort of arrangements and preparation for doing something. On the contrary, the appropriate word that collocates with the word الانتفاضة is اندلاع (indela'?) because it gives a sense of a sudden and spontaneous explosion of popular resistance without any kind of preparations. In case of the palestinian intifada, it resulted solely from the palestinians' anger at the Israeli atrocities. By the way, assuming synonyms for making collocation responses was confirmed in the studies of Farghal & Obiedat (1995), Hussein (1998), and Zughoul's and Abdul Fattah's (2003).

Another manifestation due to the immature lexical knowledge of their mother tongue, some participants produced literal translations of English collocations. As instances, *a heavy smoker* was translated literally into مدخن ثقيل (mudakhen thaqeel), and *a school of whales* was translated literally into مدرسة حيتان (madrasatu hittan). Obviously, students seemed unaware that certain collocational combinations must be dealt with as a whole not as individual segments. Surprisingly enough, the students might be unaware that those two deviant expressions are non-existent and unnatural in the Arabic language, and turn the collocation meanings non-felicitous. In a similar line, collocation errors

related to literal translation were demonstrated in the studies of Diab (1996), Cooper (2000), and Abdel- Hafiz (2002).

A further manifestation that seems certain from the data analysis indicates that many deviant responses reflect the participants' deep unawareness of the cultural aspect of a language. There are language specific collocational expressions in both Arabic and English reflecting their culture and environment. For example, *bread and butter* and *alive and kicking* are English-specific collocational expressions which were incorrectly translated into *خبز وزبدہ* (khubzun wa zibddah) and *عایش و یرفس* (? aysh wa yarfus) respectively. They may be ignorant of paying attention to the Arabic cultural setting which demonstrates different corresponding equivalences; *عیش و ملح* (?eish wa melh) and *حي یرزق* (haiun yurzaq) respectively. Others tried to avoid literal translation of such cultural expressions by using literary-like equivalences to make their responses more appealing. Similarly, collocation errors related to the imitation of literary style are identified by Zughoul's and Abdul Fattah's (2003) study.

For the same above examples, some students translated *bread and butter* into *الحياة حلوة الرفاهية و الرغد* (alhayah hulwa/arrafahia wa arraghad), and they translated *alive and kicking* into *مقالب الحياة/ الحياة غدارة/ عیش و ارمي وراء ظهرک* (makalibu al-haya/ al-haia ghaddara/?i:sh wa ?rmi wara zahrak). As implied by these deviant responses, they might try decoding such expressions because they were unconscious of the conventions of these collocations in their cultural settings. Such result emphasizes what was demonstrated in the studies of Huang (2001) and Kharma and Hajjaj (1997) that lack of cultural awareness of collocations mostly result in errors.

In line with the students' limited collocational knowledge of Arabic language, violations of many collocations demonstrate their lower linguistic competence and knowledge of English language in relevance to such collocational expressions. It is worth noting that

English language is considered the specialization of English majors and those participants were to graduate when the test was implemented. That is to say, those students were supposed to be well-prepared in meeting such terms in their work fields after graduation. For the journalism graduates, English language must be their tongue for carrying out their mission not only for Arabs, but also for all people around the world. Consequently, owing to their lower lexical proficiency of English language, both majors appeared to fall back on their native language which they are more familiar with. This means that there is a definite interference of the mother tongue (Arabic language) in the foreign language (English language) as indicated from the analysis of the subjects' collocations errors. Supplying an evidence of the mother tongue interference, the respondents might admit the collocational expression *break thirst* because they usually use in Arabic the term يكسر العطش (yakseru al-?ttash). This clearly shows the way that the learners used their mother tongue expressions to help them form the foreign language expressions.

Manifesting their lower competence of English collocations, students seemed to think and prepare their ideas in their native language and then translated them into English. That is the most probable reason beyond making false analogy of some collocations such as *dark tea* instead of *strong tea*. They interpreted شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel) as غمق (ghamiqaa ?shai) and translated غمق into *dark*. Thus, it can be said that the students manipulated their native language for foreign language production, since they did not have necessary knowledge in relevance to the target collocations. In this context, Norrish (1994:27) indicates that such errors can be regarded as a communication strategy to be as a means whereby learners wish to communicate their ideas with the language system that they are familiar with, namely that of their mother tongue.

Demonstrating their improper mastery of collocational knowledge, the English and journalism majors resorted to approximating and paraphrasing some collocations, so as to convey the intended message. With regard to approximation, students used some collocational expressions such as *a group of people* for حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas) because they were unaware that *a group* is a general term that subsumes a wide variety of more specific items like *a crowd of people*. Also, they were ignorant that the word حشد indicates in its meaning a big number of people. For paraphrasing some collocations, they used *the plan of attack to break down the settlements/ a plan for separating the connection* as translated forms for خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat). Such errors clearly give a notice that the subjects were unfamiliar of the term equivalence used in the English language. Such unfamiliarity led them to make a longer statement that missed certain semantic features. However, avoiding paraphrasing and giving the appropriate corresponding collocation can be more economic and precise, and can transfer the meaning straightforward. Similar to this result, collocation errors related to paraphrasing were figured out in the studies of Bahn and Eldaw (1993), Farghal and Obiedat (1995), Cooper (2000), and Zughoul and Abdul Fattah (2003). Hence, such collocation errors can be claimed as clear evidences of the students' poor lexicon in English language.

Within the deficient knowledge regarding English lexis, many collocation errors can be attributed to the difficulty of the English language. English language has a lot of confusable words with similar meanings which make the students run a risk of using them randomly without much care. For example, the test included some common confusable verbs like *do, make, have, catch, ect.*, and some confusable words like *fast, quick, rapid / last, final, latest / below, under / swarm, flock, herd, school, crowd / causalities, losses, sacrifices, ect.* Accordingly, some students may find themselves

grappling with the complexities of such English confusable words which led to errors. Moreover, since phrasal verbs do not exist in Arabic, the students found such collocations fraught with difficulty to be translated into English like *bringing down the government, carry out attack, the talks broke down, and blowing up the peace process*.

Beside the students' improper mastery of collocations, various collocation errors cited from the data indicate overlapped reasons beyond committing them. A brief look at some collocation errors types like *omission, avoidance, graphic ambiguity, words coinage, irrelevant responses, and ignorance of rules* reveal many reasons such as carelessness, neglect, fatigue, lack of concentration, lack of interest, limited knowledge, difficulty of the question, ignorance of application of an item in its appropriate context. Similar to some previous studies findings, collocation errors related to *omission* were reported in the study of Abdul-Fatah (2004); and for *avoidance* and *graphic ambiguity*, they were figured out in the study of Zughoul and Abdul Fattah (2003).

Prior to end discussing the first dimension results, an important comment can be made on the numerical results regarding the highest and lowest scores of collocation errors categories. The category of *improper synonyms* made by the English majors takes the highest position scoring (36.68%) of the total errors. This may be due to the fact that the English majors are advanced university students who own a store of synonymous words, but it seems that they neither knew how to combine them in a natural way, nor did they know where to use them properly. For the journalism majors, the category of *miscellaneous* takes the highest rank as it scores (38.12%) of the total errors. This may be due to the nature of the subcategories included under the umbrella of miscellaneous. In other words, a careful examination of most of these subcategories like *omission, avoidance, irrelevant responses, words coinage, and graphic ambiguity* indicate the students' very poor production of collocations.

In terms of category of *paraphrasing*, it scores the lowest degree of the total errors (1.00%) for English majors and (1.48%) for journalism majors. This may be linked to the same reason beyond using improper synonyms. In other words, those advanced majors were in a position of owning a harvest of numerous terms through their journey of learning. This minimized the opportunity of merely describing the characteristics of a term. So, the advanced learners are in a developed stage of giving names of things rather than their descriptions. This process of growing vocabulary stock is natural to be developed by the time. It is the same image of a child who attempts to give a description of a subject rather than its name. On the contrary, an adult can easily name subjects without devoting much effort of description.

Eventually, what can be drawn from the overall collocation error types in the first dimension is that both majors depended on interlingual and intralingual transfers to facilitate learning. Such conclusion has been reached because the pre-mentioned errors can be traced either for the negative transfer of the native language (interlingual errors), or to the nature of the English language (intralingual errors). This result confirms the results found by Elkhatib (1984), Diab (1996), Huang (2001), Bonci (2002), Abisamra (2003), Zughoul and Fattah (2003) and Mahmoud (2005) which attributed the collocation errors to the intralingual and interlingual transfer as reasons beyond making those errors.

Second Dimension: Errors Related to a Comprehensive Developed Model of Collocation Categories:

It is remarkable to discuss some issues related to the results of the second dimension of errors related to collocation categories of *range*, *collective nouns*, *compounds* and *binominals*, it is remarkable to discuss some issues in this regard. It is apparent from

Tables (16, 25) that collocational range takes the highest ratio of the subjects' deviant collocations in the data (89.60%) for the English majors and (88.62%) for the journalism majors. It can be said that such high percents may be attributed to two reasons. The first reason relates to the nature of both Arabic and English language. In other words, mostly every word in a language can be said to have a range of items, but some words have much collocational range than others (Baker, 1992:50). This fact left a wide space for making such high percents of errors in this regard. The second reason states that the respondents may not be fully aware of the complete range of collocations in all contexts. As evidence, the subjects failed to differentiate the range of the headverb يلقى (yulqi) in its different contexts. They assumed that this verb has the same equivalent forms in English in spite of its different associations. Many students translated this verb literally into *throw*, however, in the following collocations, this verb يلقى الرعب في قلبه ,يلقي السلاح ,يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi al-mas'uliah ?la fulan / yulqi asselah / yulqi arr?uba fi qalbih) has different equivalents in English language: *place responsibility on some one, lay down arms, strike terror in some one's heart*. Thus, deviant responses in this regard reveal the students' weak mastery of differentiating the meanings of collocational items of the same range.

Examining the collocation errors associated with collective nouns, it is obvious from the data that the participants' knowledge is narrow regarding the different collocational terms given for different groups of things. Whether in English or Arabic, they failed to respond appropriately to many collective nouns. For example, they could not differentiate the translations of سرب من الطيور (serbun men ?tuyoor) and قطيع من الأبقار (qatte'un men al abqaar). Sometimes, they used mistakenly *a herd / a swarm* with *birds* and *a flock / a swarm* with *cows*. In addition, they failed recalling the Arabic equivalent to the collective collocations of *a school of whales*. In this sense, it can be said that in

both native and foreign languages, the students got used to use the general word *group* for collective things. Particularly, these Arabic collocations are used in the standard Arabic rather than the colloquial one. Since the colloquial Arabic language is mostly used in daily life while the standard one is restricted only to formal settings, such collocations are mostly absent. For the English collective collocations, lack of usage along with the confusable nature of these collocations could be reasons for making such errors.

Regarding the errors related to binominals, the reason beyond the difficulty that encountered the students may arouse from the idiomatic form and restricted meaning of binominals. Consequently, these expressions are opaque and depend on real life experience that the students seemed unaccustomed with.

Concerning the errors related to compounds, it can be detected that though this category scores the lowest percent of collocation errors, the subjects' deviant responses indicate a serious conclusion. Those respondents dealt with compounds as split chunks rather than whole combinations. Taking the collocation *absent-minded* as an instance, the examinees tended to translate it word by word as غائب العقل / فارغ العقل (gha?eb al ?aqel / faregh al ?aqel). This clearly shows that the students paid little attention to the common counterpart expression used typically in their native language.

Third Dimension: Errors Related to the Three Fields of Knowledge (Political, Educational and Daily Life Collocations)

On the basis of the results of the third dimension of errors related to political, educational and daily life collocations, a great deal of discussion can be stimulated in this regard. Tables (18 & 28) clearly show that the political collocations form the highest score of the total collocation errors (46.68%) for the English majors and

(43.52%) for the journalism majors. The students' deviant responses show that they might be ignorant of dealing with many common political expressions used particularly in the media such as *carry out attacks, the talks broke down, سلام دائم (salamun da'em)* and others. From a practical point of view, this result is inconvenient because it reflects a gap in the students' political knowledge and reveals debilitating obstacles that will face both majors in their work fields.

Considerably, those students are the current Palestinian generation who has grown up under the daily acts of the Israeli violence, and who struggle for building statehood and peaceful life. Accordingly, politics is inseparable part of the students' life as Palestinians. In a surprising contrast, they opted to lack political knowledge of collocations. It is supposed that those two majors, in particular, must play a role in different sectors to battle for their people's rights. Most importantly, in such age of media-orientation, they must be leaders to stand up to the Zionist thought-control dominance, unduly distortion of facts, and manipulation of media. Journalists and English language practitioners must have the mainstream mission and a great responsibility to inform the public what the Israelis are trying to conceal.

Does this result mean that those students do not pay enough attention to politics? Without a doubt, through their learning journey, those majors were given neither insights nor self-interests for stimulating their intellectualities towards political collocational knowledge in English and Arabic language.

Another observation can be made while analyzing the results is that the category of daily life collocations takes the second rank of collocation errors as it scores (36.67%) and (39.21%) for the English and the journalism majors respectively. Admittedly, the daily life collocations reveal how much the students were not in a direct contact with the

real life experience and situations. They failed in dealing with many daily simple expressions such as *take care, catch cold, break news, have a headache* and others. Hence, it is relevant to indicate that those errors may be attributed to learning English language as knowledge rather than a usage. In other words, it seems that the students learn about the English language rather than how to put the language in use.

Lastly, on a closer examination of the results of errors associated with educational collocations, it can be said that this category receives the lowest degree of the total errors; (16.65%) for the English majors and (17.27%) for the journalism majors. This may be due to a fact that most of the educational collocations occur frequently in the students' daily university life such as *do an exercise, pass an exam, do homework, keep quiet, pay attention, keep a notebook* and others. Even for the journalism students, their English language instructors usually use such expressions a lot in the class; so there is no wonder that the journalism majors scored the lowest degree of errors regarding the educational collocations. Also, it is worthy to remark that the English language students majoring at education represented the largest slice in the study; this may contribute to the lowest score of this category in compare with the political and daily life collocations.

General Collocation Competence of All the Study Subjects (English and Journalism Majors):

It is necessary to comment on the general score of the English and journalism majors' performance in the diagnostic test. As the total score of the collocation errors made by both majors in the first part is (65.0%), and (75.0%) for the second part of the diagnostic test, surely, these high percents are evident that both majors manifested lower competence in using collocations. It can be significantly drawn that such results may be due to the students' deficiency of lexical knowledge. Clearly enough, this result

confirms the studies results of Bahn and Eldaw (1993), Farghl and Obiedat (1995), Kharma and Hajjaj (1997), Hussein (1998), Howarth (1998a), Bonk (2000), Cooper (2000), Macedo (2000), Huang (2001), Abdel- Hafiz (2002), Barfield (2002), Zughoul and Abdul Fattah (2003), Martynska (2004), and Mahmoud (2005) which revealed the English language students' insufficient knowledge of collocations.

During the implementation of the test, it was noticed that a mixture of shocking remarks along with deep interests and serious concerns were apparent on most of the students' faces. Those majors depressingly expressed that this test revealed a stark, an unpleasant and an inescapable fact that they were not prepared for such crucial area of language. They stated that they need to reformulate their way of acquiring English vocabulary.

Plausibly, it should also be taken into consideration that for both majors, the scores of errors in the production tasks of translation (second part) are higher than the closed tasks of using collocations within English language only (first part). This indicates that the students encountered problems in translating the common collocations that are used frequently. Such difficulty of translating collocations may be traced to the challenging task of the translation process that inevitably involves two languages and two cultural traditions. As James (2002) points out that students are permanently faced with the problem of how to treat the cultural aspects implicit in a source text and of finding the most appropriate technique of successfully conveying these aspects in the target language. Such finding confirms the results of the studies of Bahn and Eldaw (1993), Farghl and Obiedat (1995), Smadja et al (1996), Ghazal (2000), Abdel- Hafiz's (2002), Bonci (2002), Zughoul and Abdul Fattah (2003), Abdul-Fatah (2004), and Vrbinc (2005) which confirmed that dealing with collocations is a problematic spot in translation among English language learners.

Though it was expected that errors made by the journalism majors in the test are higher than those made by the English majors, the researcher intended to show to what extent the journalism students are in a bad need for paying attention for putting English language in use that satisfies their needs and interests. Such suggestive points will be elaborated at the end of this chapter. Meanwhile, the results of this study indicate that the system of teaching English language has some inherent problems which should be uncovered as it will be seen in the next section.

Contributory Factors to the Subjects' Collocational Incompetence:

In overall, the results indicate that the collocational proficiency of the study subjects is found to be inadequate. The closer we divine the contributory factors to the subjects' collocational incompetence, the more obvious it becomes why errors have been arisen in such language area. The following could be the most contributory factors related to the students, teachers, and learning materials:

Students:

Both English and journalism majors seem to be passive learners who just depend on and take in what the teachers give them. They do not have much responsibility for self-searching for language knowledge as autonomous learners. It seems that they do not expose themselves to various sources of English language, particularly to a stock of native speakers' conventional collocations such as radio, TV, web sites, magazines, extra books and others. Further, they may have no self-practice and regular use of language in daily situations.

What must not be ignored is the problem of lacking appropriate collocations which already exists in the students' native language (Arabic language). This may relate to their limited usage of the standard Arabic which is confined only in formal settings, and

to their poor reading of the Arabic literature. Consequently, the students lose opportunities of a rich stock of collocations that the Arabic language has.

Teachers:

It is compelled to state that the English language teachers undertake a principal part of the responsibility of the low collocational proficiency of their students. They may neglect conscious teaching of collocations as an important aspect of language which thereby leads to losing insights of word associations. Moreover, they may not give the students sufficient practical opportunities and required language environments to observe the English language by themselves and critically reflect on what they perceive. As a conclusion, the students appear to lack an appropriate language input and output. Besides, while some teachers of English are highly proficient, some others may be considered as sources of collocation errors.

With particular attention to teaching journalism majors, detailed teachings of grammar points and long hours of detailed word for word translations of some very difficult passages bring about nothing to do with everyday life and with media requirements. This creates for those students what can be called *foreign language phobia*. Teaching individual words and their meanings does not suffice to achieve the aim of the language learning. As a result, there appears to be a widening gap between what is taught and what the students will use in the real situations.

Yet, it would not be an exaggeration to say that the problem is not solely the responsibility of the teachers of English, but also, the teachers of other subjects who ignore speaking the standard Arabic. That causes abject poverty in exploiting the Arabic collocational expressions. In this context, such factor goes with the studies of Bonk

(2000), Hsu (2004), and Howarth (1998a) which revealed the poor language teaching mechanisms.

Language Learning Materials:

It can be assumed that the adopted language learning materials have much faulty relevance to the issue of the students' low collocational competence. Having a brief look at the translation, reading, listening and speaking and writing materials beside the media skills materials taught at the IUG, it can be noted that the area of collocations is mostly absent. These materials may be inefficient with regard to collocations because they focus on specific aspects of language like grammatical rules and individual words to the detriment of presenting large segments of language such as collocations. Hence, Collocations seem to have no concern as a central and vital part of vocabulary in the syllabus.

Due to the stated factors, collocation errors have relatively a justification for being indispensable in the students' lexical production. This gives an impression of dissatisfaction with the way and the content of the instruction of English language.

2. Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to Specialization

(English Majors and Journalism Majors):The results in Table (40) reveal that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to specialization (English majors and journalism majors). The collocation errors committed by the journalism majors are higher than those committed by the English majors. Such findings are plausible because English majors have better command and increasing control over English lexis, as English language is their specialization. For the journalism majors, they only study English through three courses; one as a university requirement and the other two are related to media skills. Besides, on interviewing some

journalism students, they indicated that they have no growing interests of studying English because they consider it as a very daunting prospect, and very few teachers motivate them for pursuing such pre-eminent language of wider communication. Needless to say, such results are hoped to evoke many for not considering mastering English language as exclusive for its majors only.

3. Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to Gender (Female and Male):

The results in Table (41) affirm that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to gender (female and male). The collocation errors made by the males are higher than those made by the females. The researcher attributes such finding to the difference between males and females in their brain linguistic system. In fact, this is supplied by various scientific evidences of how the brains of males and females function differently. Brizendine (2003) demonstrates that females develop language skills earlier than males do; males develop visual and spatial skills earlier than females. So, males reinforce and strengthen their skills in technical fields, and females strengthen their skills in language arts (in Ryan, 2005). Baron-Cohen (2003) supports this point by emphasizing that for males, language is most often just in the dominant hemisphere (usually the left side), but a larger number of females seem to be able to use both sides for language. This gives females a distinct advantage. If a female has a stroke in the left front side of the brain, she may still retain some language from the right front side. While a male who has the same left side damage is less likely to recover as fully.

Besides, female students tend to spend much time at houses rather than the males. This reason can allow a sufficient opportunity for female students to be constantly acquainted with the countless increase of language knowledge out of reading materials

and listening to TV or radio. In addition, females tend to have greater interests in reading and searching which enrich their lexical knowledge. Hence, the richer in collocations the learner's lexicon is, the higher language precision becomes.

4. Discussion of the Results Related to Collocation Errors due to the Academic Level (Excellent, Very Good, Good, and Fair):

The results included in Tables (42 & 43) state that there are statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the collocation errors due to the academic level (excellent, very good, good, and fair). The higher level of academic achievement is, the less collocation errors are and vice versa. In other words, the fair level got the highest score of the collocation errors, then these errors are decreased within the levels of good, very good and excellent respectively. Such results may refer to the nature of learning a foreign language. Though human beings have amazing abilities to acquire a language, learning a foreign language could be different. This is because learning a foreign language relies on some abilities that may facilitate or constrain such learning. In more illustration, the researcher means that the complex nature of learning the foreign language lexis requires quick-witted people who are endowed with remarkable abilities to learn how to perform these amazing feats for better acquisition of lexical combinations. Accordingly, such abilities are varied among people for their individual differences. Generally speaking, students with excellent grades are granted by specific abilities that affect their learning in general and their language lexis in particular. In a similar consistency, the lower grades may have less power affected by their abilities of learning. However, such finding could not be over-generalized on all people because there are some exceptions that may be affected by specific external and internal factors related to students, teachers, curriculum, and educational environments.

Conclusion:

On the basis of the study results, brief final conclusions were reached:

- Making different types of collocation errors, English and journalism majors at the IUG manifested lower and deficient linguistic competence in using collocations within English language and in dealing with such collocations across Arabic and English language. Such weak linguistic performance is attributed for various reasons.
- Both majors demonstrated limited collocation knowledge as they depended on interlingual and intralingual transfers which gave rise to different collocation errors in the first dimension.
- Both majors failed in differentiating the meanings of collocation items of the same range in different contexts according to the deviant responses recorded in the second dimension.
- Collocation error types made in the third dimension revealed that both majors had insufficient exposure to practical opportunities and real life experience and situations related to the English language collocations.
- Dealing with collocations across Arabic and English language is a problematic spot and an error-generating area for both majors rather than using collocations within English language.
- The journalism majors' collocation errors are higher than those made by the English majors.
- The male students demonstrated a lower level of collocation competence than the female students.
- The higher level of academic achievement is, the less collocation errors are and vice versa.

Recommendations:

Based on the results provided by the current study, recommendations are essential to be outlined in a form of a proposed pedagogical framework. This framework intertwines practical principles along with strategic techniques, so as to tackle the issue of collocation errors made by English and journalism majors at the IUG, and encourage collocations build up.

The recommendations to be mentioned in this section are of four overlapping parts related to: the concerners of English language teachers, and English and journalism majors; the learning materials designers; the English and journalism departments, and further research.

1-Recommendations for Teachers of English Language and Majors of English and Journalism:

Both English language teachers and students should play complementary decisive roles to take up the following suggestions of teaching-learning collocations. Such mutual roles are vitally required, since students are no longer considered passive recipients but active participants who actively participate in planning, managing and achieving their learning goals. Also, both the English teachers and the students bear a part of responsibility of the incompetent collocational knowledge and usage. Accordingly, it is essential to give them a multitude of suggestions to take into consideration. These suggestions are divided into three parts: the first one is concerned with bringing about students' conscious awareness and usage of the collocation phenomenon, for its importance in their life. The second part is concerned with creating students' autonomous constant practice of collocations. The third part is concerned with assessing the students' collocation development and tackling collocation errors.

First Part: Promoting Students' Collocation Awareness and Usage:

The followings can be accessible guidelines for stimulating the students' awareness of collocational knowledge and usage:

1. The teachers can prepare and design materials of handouts, worksheets, and transparencies from various authentic resources like radio interviews, extracts from magazines, journals articles, TV programs, newspapers clips, advertisements, reports and others. These materials should be related to the students' interests and needs. After distributing the authentic material, a brief explanation can be pointed out to notice the occurrence of words that combine together. The teachers can illustrate the phenomenon of collocations for the students. In this case, the theoretical framework provided in the second chapter of this study can be a sufficient reference to get back to. Then the teachers guide the students to use some techniques to organize these collocations. For instance, the students can look critically and analytically at the text and group the word combinations into lexical sets according to different categories of collocations types. This strategy can improve the effectiveness of students' note-taking. Also, to widen the collocation scope beyond the text expressions, a specific word can be chosen and the students can use "the spider" to brainstorm its associated words. This makes them explore the range of collocated words.

2. The teachers can create a variety of exercises to make the students internalize appropriate collocational expressions. Examples of these exercises are word-building, gap-filling, matching words, odd one out, multiple choices, translation tasks and others. There are many highly recommended references to seek their help in building up such collocation exercises (see appendix G). Most importantly, with the advent of the World Wide Web, teachers have at their disposal a large amount of collocation exercises to

benefit from. Appendix (H) offers some constructive examples of collocations exercises that are available on online.

3. The teachers should exploit audio-visual mediums as efficient tools for creating a keen interest in acquiring the language from its native sources and absorbing collocational expressions. For example, the teachers can show a video or CD versions with a theme that is relevant to the students' life. The students need to make notes of the collocations that are mentioned in the film. After that, the students can be asked to reproduce a written form of the film by using the collocational expressions that they have recorded. Also, the students can trace the English collocation expressions that culturally have different equivalences in Arabic, and try producing the Arabic equivalences. Such activities can be done not just in class, but also at home as an extra curricula activity. An extensive practice of collocation differences among the two languages pays the attention of the students that language and culture are inextricably linked. Further, it minimizes the opportunities of bringing in any features of the native language (Arabic) while dealing with English collocations.

4. The students can work on different practical authentic tasks that make them experience collocations. For example, the students can be asked to design a radio show that includes news report, or record a conversation that they make with friends. Then a whole class discussion or a debate can be set up on their topics through using collocations. No matter what arguments they give, the most important aspect is that they use English collocational expressions to communicate and exchange information. This allows the students speak and live the language expressions as active parts of their life.

5. The students should be urged to systematically use modern collocation dictionaries or dictionaries that give attention to collocations because such dictionaries are efficient

tools that allow the students to build up their own collocational competence and do a great job of raising the profile of collocations as an important aspect of the language. Numerous exercises can be designed for encouraging frequent looking up collocations. Examples of these exercises were presented in the second chapter (P. 57-58). Moreover, the teachers can guide their students to purchase sufficient software or hardware collocation dictionaries. A good hardware collocations dictionary that the researcher found is *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English*. A good software dictionary recommended by many linguists is *COBUILD*. Such dictionaries present collocations in their most typical forms in context and offer frequent formal and informal collocations used in spoken and written language.

6. The students can be asked to choose the most ten useful collocated words they came in contact with during the class period and record them in their notebook. This requires them to pay attention to the language expressions used in the class.
7. The students should be emphasized to employ proper collocations in writing their papers and assignments benefiting from the dictionary and their collocation notebook.

Second Part: Promoting Students' Autonomous Constant Practice of Collocations:

The Chinese proverb says "Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime". Similarly, teachers should teach their students to become autonomous, so they teach them for a lifetime. In this case, English and journalism majors are expected to assume greater responsibility for their own language learning. Regarding collocation expressions, the students should keep what they learn alive through constant and vital practice. The teachers can give them a helping hand to maintain such autonomous practice of collocations as it is clear in the following:

1. The students should be encouraged to keep a vocabulary notebook for any useful collocations they notice inside or outside the class. It is preferable to design it into

themes. In addition, it is good to make a special section in such vocabulary notebook for confusable collocations such as *do research* NOT *make research*. Another software vocabulary notebook can be kept because it facilitates recording collocations during the internet usage.

2. The students should be motivated to frequently check websites and browse some topics related to politics, education, and daily life situations, or any topic of their choice. This will enrich the students' lexis to help them internalize appropriate collocational expressions. For instance, the students can access to a comprehensive web site that has a list of links to the most famous international newspapers and magazines along with famous TV and radio sites. For more, this website encompasses exercises of English language skills in addition to other useful links (see appendix, I). In this context, there needs to be a task, the students can be asked to report the latest news related to their country regularly, and try to vary the sources of news in every time. This often results in the use of current language collocations that make the students amply qualified. In a particular regard to practicing educational collocation expressions, the students, especially the education English majors, can subscribe to limitless ESL websites (see appendix, I).

3. As this age is an age of communication, the students should be promoted to expose themselves to all the means of mass communication. They can communicate with native speakers of English whether directly or indirectly through the technological communications. Exchanging ideas with native speakers gets the students experience the cultural collocation expressions, and provides them with unforgettable experience. Endless websites can facilitate such communication. For instance, there is a site for the people from all around the world to learn and practice foreign languages (www.sharedtalk.com/). The advantage of this site is that it provides practicing the

language with native speakers, discovering their cultures, learning informal expressions, explaining mysterious vocabulary and expressions. The students can link up with native speakers of the target language and engage in real time or asynchronous conversations (Appendix, I).

4. The students should be encouraged to read different genres in both source and target language found in the bookstores, libraries or in the software because collocations are better acquired through extensive reading. For promoting such reading, the teachers can suggest one specific book or an article that is readily available and suitable for the level of the students. It is important to set a specific time to allow the students reading the book and writing a report regarding the types of language expressions used in the book. For a further example, the teacher can assign the students a task of suggesting any English work that contains a great deal of collocations. Such extensive reading can help with consolidating collocations in an ongoing and natural manner. Besides, as translating collocations requires the students to have a comprehensive knowledge of both Arabic and English language, the teacher can suggest specific magazines, newspapers, articles and journals that have versions of the two languages and ask them to pick up the collocational expressions and record them in their vocabulary notebook. For suggesting some newspapers that have two versions, see appendix (I). This method can give them insights of the culture-specific aspects of the two languages. The famous saying of Francis Bacon goes that "reading makes a full man".

Third Part: Assessing Students' Collocation Development and Tackling Collocation Errors:

The followings can be supportive suggestions for the English language teachers in tracking their students' collocation progress and tackling their errors to improve learning:

1. Portfolio assessment can be considered an efficient way of giving a profile of the students' capacities of dealing with collocations, and can demonstrate their progress over time in this regard. The students can be motivated to keep a record of the written activities and spoken products undertaken over time in terms of collocations. Collecting such samples of the students' work, the teachers can document the collocation errors types, find out the major causes of those errors, design effective remedial activities, and plan classes to give very specific help in smoothing out any problems and difficulties associated within collocations. Also, throughout their portfolios, the students can be promoted to select and collect collocation materials, and make self-reflections of their linguistic collocation development and of their teachers' methods of teaching collocations. Upon such students' feedback, the teachers can generate new ways for teaching such linguistic area.

2. A group project can be a powerful way for engaging the students in evaluating their linguistic development of collocations. For instance, a group of the students can work collaboratively on different projects such as conducting a role play a dramatization by using collocations that fit their topic. The rest of the students can play the role of juries through observing and appraising the actors' appropriate usage of collocations. If there are errors committed in this regard, they can present them and discuss them. It is very rewarding for the students to enjoy playing teachers.

3. Students' self and peer assessment can be a way of assessing the product of collocation learning. In a particular sense, it is useful for enabling students to think critically about their dealing with collocations in translation. For instance, two different English texts that have various collocations can be distributed among every pair of students to be translated in to Arabic. When the students finish their translation, the teachers collect the original two texts and ask the students to exchange their translation

sheets and to translate their peers' work back into English. After that, the original English texts with the Arabic translated forms are given to the students to compare and analyze their work. They need to make comments about their errors and their peers' errors. In this sense, by judging the work of their peers, the students gain insight into their own work. Finally, as a sort of feedback, a whole class discussion can be made on the students' comments and on the difficulties that they encountered in translating both languages.

4. A language errors class is effective for sensitizing the students to their collocation errors. The teachers can collect common collocation errors from the students' essays assignments and tests, and make a list of those errors called 'Errors Warning'. The teachers can address this list by using LCD or OHP to discuss with their students such errors. Thus, such strategy makes the students more attentive, and promotes them to take care of the appropriate usage of collocations. It is important for the teachers to bear in their minds that the students are often susceptible to make a lot of collocation errors and that is a not a sign of failure but a means for developing their lexis.

5. Quizzes and tests in a closed and open-questions format can be used to check the students' progress and understanding of collocations.

2-Recommendations for Materials Designers:

Language learning materials represent an instructional road map that outlines what students are expected to know and be able to do as a result of having participated in the course (Tarey, 1988). In this regard, a well-designed language learning materials must feature all the skills of the language with an emphasis on collocations that must deserve a central part of a course of study. The followings are concise suggestions to be taken into consideration on designing the language learning materials:

1. The language learning materials ought to be structured to orient students' attention to collocations. This can be achieved through including collocations as a main subject matter with specific reference to three main elements: providing authentic and non-authentic language data; experiential information about collocations; practical opportunities for using collocations.
2. Collocations should be prioritized in their topics according to the needs and interests of the students and the Palestinian society work fields. Embracing the most common political, educational, and daily life collocations should be taken into consideration. For determining the students' needs, multiple tools can be used such as questionnaires, interviews and observations.
3. The language materials ought to provide teachers with lesson plans, teaching ideas and classroom resources to help them cultivate and broaden their students' lexicon.
4. The language materials ought to support the approach of "learning by doing" through putting theoretical knowledge of language into practice. This can be achieved through providing a wide range of activities, projects, assignments and tasks that deepen students' understanding of words associations as well as involve them to experience the language collocations by themselves (Appendices, G and H).

3- Recommendations for English and Journalism Departments:

What must not be underestimated is the essential role of the English and journalism departments in developing the teaching practice. In the light of the study results, a great responsibility lies on both departments; particularly the English department. All possibilities ought to be sought, so as to make use of the study results. In this sense, the English department needs to examine the current goals and methods of teaching English lexis to respond to the current running of highlighting the issue of collocations because collocations run through the whole skills of English language: listening, reading,

speaking and writing. To this end, there should be a joint effort among the instructors of the English department to set out a practical and innovated framework to develop the teachers' practice in this regard and maintain high-quality outcomes. This developing framework should include the following action steps:

First Action Step: Teachers' Self-Assessment Instruments and Techniques:

This step includes determining instruments and techniques for teachers' self-assessment of their linguistic level and their methods of teaching. Such step is necessary because the teachers should be good models of language and should avoid producing collocation errors through their teaching. Documenting the quality of one's teaching is beneficial to be presented for other teachers who need to know about alternative ways of teaching language collocation expressions. The techniques and instruments that can be used are:

External Observer: this observer can be a peer colleague, a senior colleague, or a specialist. Valuable information and ideas can be obtained from such observations. This way of assessment enables teachers gain awareness of their teaching, so they can reconstruct their knowledge and teaching methods. Still, the department should set out criteria to ensure the effectiveness, fairness, reliability, and credibility of the observation. In this term, it is better to form a standard checklist for the class observation. In fact, if external observation is adopted formally in the English department, this will promise fruitful outcomes for the whole teaching process.

- **Videotapes and Audio-tapes:** a precise instrument for self-assessment to improve one's teaching over time is to monitor the teaching practice through videotaping or audio-taping it then to use the information obtained to make needed changes. The department should facilitate saving such technology.

- **Questionnaires, Interviews and Surveys:** they can be an indicator for the overall effectiveness of the applied teaching strategies and course materials through probing

and following-up the collocational difficulty and problems. Methodology changes can be made based on the provided feedback.

- **Teaching Portfolios:** they can be a reflective mirror for one's teaching practice. They constitute a way of communicating the information and experience to others.
- **Journals or Logs:** the teachers can keep and record their ideas of teaching collocational expressions in journal and log forms. They are daily personal written records of experiences and observations
- **Action Research:** it can be conducted jointly by teams of teachers as to reflect progressive collocation problems that appear in translation or within using English language in speaking and writing. The teachers collaboratively can analyze the data and improve the quality of their own practice.
- **Students' Exercises, Essays, Assignments, and Tests Results:** they can give the teacher feedback about their methods of teaching collocations.

Second Action Step: Report Sessions:

Upon the data provided by the tools of teachers' self assessment, it is better for the department to conduct periodically collaborative report sessions for English language teachers for:

- reporting the students' problems of dealing with collocational within English language and within translation
- reporting what might be causing the language collocational problems
- giving a chance for the teachers to think of ways for narrowing down the provided problems to become more manageable to be investigated
- giving a chance to think of and prepare alternative ways for dealing with collocational language problems

Third Action Step: Workshop Sessions:

Based on the teachers' reports, the English department should invest time and effort to organize workshop sessions that aim at:

- discussing and determining which methods and course materials of teaching language lexis are good and which need to be changed
- exchanging ideas and perspectives with the experienced teachers openly and constructively because the latter can reflect on their experience and expertise for solving the problem and finding out the alternative approaches of teaching collocations to be applied in the curriculum, instruction, and assessment plans.

Fourth Action Step: Teachers' Developing Sessions:

Holding such sessions can upgrade professionally and constantly the English language teachers' linguistic level, so as to approximate native speakers' competence. The department can invite language specialists to give lectures, supply them with different new ideas and strategies for their teaching, and design worksheets and materials for sufficient practice. There should be continuous encouragement for the teachers of English to adopt the integration of collocations in teaching their English courses.

Beside the above-mentioned developing framework, there are some suggestions that both English and journalism department should consider:

- The journalism department should coordinate with the English department to increase the number of specialized English courses for the journalism majors in order to elevate their linguistic level.
- The journalism department should reconsider the Arabic teaching strategies because of the rooted problems in the students' Arabic language collocations.
- The English and journalism professors should collaborate in composing a specialized team of linguists for compiling the most common collocations across English and

Arabic language with special reference to the Palestinian society. To keep up with recent collocations used in the world, it is beneficial to employ the technology in designing *collocation databases* to be run by a team of linguists.

4- Recommendations for Further Studies:

Inevitably, this study paves the way for future research in similar areas of English language teaching and learning. The followings are some key recommended suggestions to be considered:

- investigating the effects of lack of collocation proficiency on writing and speaking skills
- investigating errors made in different aspects of language
- investigating the strategies of teaching collocations used by English teachers
- identifying major obstacles that learners of different proficiency levels encounter in acquiring collocational knowledge
- providing a suggested program for teaching collocations in different registers
- assessing the collocation knowledge inherent in the university English course books, particularly the course books of listening, speaking, writing, reading, translation, media skills and others
- assessing the collocation knowledge and proficiency of the university teachers of English
- assessing the collocation knowledge included in the school course books of different levels (primary, intermediate, and advanced)
- assessing the dictionaries used by the university students (bilingual and monolingual dictionaries)

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Appendices

Appendix (A)
Collocation List
(The Initial Version)

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

السيد الأستاذ/ الدكتور:
يحفظه الله

تقوم الطالبة/ آية خالد المشهراوي -المتحققة ببرنامج الماجستير في كلية الدراسات العليا في الجامعة الإسلامية- قسم مناهج وطرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية- بدراسة بعنوان:

"Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza"

يتضمن هذا المرفق متلازمات لفظية (collocations) تم جمعها من مصادر متعددة ذات مصداقية للغة الإنجليزية و العربية. و لثقة الباحثة بدقة و حصافة آرائكم فإنها تطلب من سيادتكم الإجابة على سؤالين يتعلقان باختيار المتلازمات اللفظية الأكثر شيوعا في الاستخدام في المجتمع الفلسطيني في مجالات السياسة، التعليم، و الحياة اليومية.

وينقسم المرفق إلى قسمين: الأول يتضمن استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الإنجليزية فقط. أما القسم الثاني فإنه يتضمن ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى العربية والعكس. تحكيم هذا المرفق سيمكن الباحثة من وضع الاختبار المناسب لغرض البحث.

وبإمارة الله في جهودكم

Collocations List

1- Please circle what you think the **most common collocations** within English language (political, educational and daily life collocations):
(Note: the following terms have a range of collocates)

1. **become or get:** depressed/ involved/pregnant/ violent/upset/ impatient/ angry/ bored/ excited
2. **become not get:** extinct/ popular/ homeless/ famous/available/ successful
3. **get:** drunk/ lost/ involved/ beaten/ infected/ attention/ information/help/ enjoyment/ preference/ real/ ready/ sick/ ratty/ old
4. **grow:** older/louder
5. **go:** mad/ bald/ grey/ crazy/blind/ deaf/ dark/red/ yellow/ far/ there/ wrong/ ahead/ astray/ bankrupt/ cap in hand/ crazy/ hungry/ your own way
6. **turn** gold/ red/ white/ a blind eye/a profit/a deaf ear/ the tide/ the tables
7. **change:** place/seat/ job/ school/ doctor/ mind/ subject/ bed/ baby/ clothes
8. **pass:** an exam/ the ball/ the time/ judgment/ a law
9. **fall:** silent/ ill/ prey/ asleep /victim / foul/ apart/ in love/ from grace/ in profits/ into place
10. **have:** a broken leg/ a meeting/ a wash/ a strange feeling/ an accident/ an argument/ a row/ a break/ a conversation/ chat/ difficulty/a dream/ a nightmare/ an experience/ a feeling/ fun/ a good time/ a look/ a party/ a problem/ a try/ a go/ a headache/ a haircut/ breakfast/ a rest
11. **take:** care/ a seat/revenge on someone/ a holiday/ a trip/ a train/ a bus/ a liking to/ a risk/ an interest/ photos/ a chance/ a dislike to/ advantage of/ an action/ an exam/ a bath/ a bite/ a break/ a decision/ a deep breath/ notes
12. **give:** an answer/ a chance/ a cry of pain/ help/ an idea/ a kiss/ a lift/ a lesson/ a present/ a shock/ a welcome/ opinion/ a performance/ priority to sth/ a sigh/ a boost/ voice/ credibility/ evidence/ an impression/ feedback
13. **catch:** a bus/ a train/ a cold/ fire/price/a thief/surprise/a mouse/ a compliment/ someone's eye/someone's attention/ a ball
14. **keep:** a notebook/ calm/ a pet/ control/ a promise/an appointment / quiet / a secret/ a diary/ the change/peace
15. **make:** arrangement/ a change/ a choice/ a comment/ a contribution/ a decision/ an effort/ an excuse/ friends/ an improvement/ a mistake/ a phone call/ progress/modification/alteration/adjustment/ a cake/ a fuss/ an impression/ an effort/ a decision/ a guess/ a mess/ a mistake/ money/ a noise/ an attempt/an offer
16. **do:** your best/ damage/ an experiment/ exercise/ someone a good turn/ favor/ harm/ your hair/ homework/ ironing/shopping/ washing/ some work/ nothing
17. **break:** the ice/ a habit/ rules/ someone's heart/ a world record/ the law/ a window/ a leg/ a promise/news/a part/ the peace
18. **come:** amiss/ here/ good/ of age/ right/ to a compromise
19. **pay:** attention/ a compliment/ respect/ tribute/ a visit/ a salary/a bill
20. **play:** a guitar/ tennis/ a role/ a song/ a fool
21. **gain:** weight/advantage/ access/ support/ wages/ experience
22. **win:** a prize/ a medal/ a match/ a battle/ a war/ an election/ lottery/race
23. **watch:** television/ a match/ the sky/ a race/ a parade

24. **rise**: prices rise/profits rise/ the sun rises/ standard of living is rising
25. **raise**: your hand/ the government raise taxes/ raise a question
26. **arise**: difficulties arise/a need arises/ a crisis arises/ an occasion arises/ an opportunity arises/ a problem arises
27. **fast**: car/ train/ lane/ computer/ pace
28. **quick**: look/ glance/ answer/ decision/ shower/ lunch
29. **rapid**: growth/ decline/change/ progress/ increase/ movement
30. **speedy**: recovery/ conclusion/ response/ access
31. **hasty**: decision/ exit, conclusion/ words
32. **promote**: response/ reply/ payment
33. **swift**: action/ response/ reaction/ recovery
34. **brisk**: walk/ pace/ business/ efficiency
35. **heated** argument/discussion/ conversation/debate
36. **hold** a class/ a meeting/ a view/ an examination
37. **run** a risk/a company/ a business
38. **strike** a balance/ gold/ oil/ a bargain/ an agreement
39. **reject** an idea/a suggestion/a proposal/ a design
40. send / leave / pass on / give / get **a message**
41. public/ develop/take/ attract/ common **interest**
42. conduct/ carry out /do/undertake **a research**
43. receive/have/provide/enter/ continue/ extend/leave/ complete/finish **education**
44. higher/tertiary/formal/ compulsory/ full-time/part-time/ private/ good/poor/ decent/further/ professional/pre-school/primary/secondary/ university **education**
45. enroll on/ take /drop/ leave/ withdraw from **a course**
46. give/ deliver/ present/ hold/ put on/ attend/ hear/ go to/ listen to/ miss/skip/prepare/ write **a lecture**
47. set/ fail/ study for/ take/ pass/ revise for/ prepare for **an exam**
48. continuous/formative/summative/regular/overall/general/objective/subjective/ comprehensive **assessment**
49. write/ hand in: **an essay/assignment**
50. propose/ puts forward/hold/ develop/ formulate/ have/ advance/work on/refute/confirm/ prove/disprove/ challenge/ test **a theory**
51. submit/refuse/turn down/ lodge/process/examine/ withdraw **an application**
52. harsh/strong/ constant/ constructive/ useful **criticism**
53. **criticize** roundly/thoroughly/ fiercely/ bitterly
54. ideas, conversation **flow**
55. people **pour/stream** somewhere
56. **a stream** of visitors/traffic
57. **dark**: times/days/ thoughts
58. face **darkens**/ eyes **darken**/expression **darkens**
59. call for/ order/ demand/declare/sign/achieve/secure/break/violate **a truce/ceasefire**
60. the sun **shines**
61. a star **twinkles**
62. a diamond **sparkles**
63. a candle-flame **flickers**
64. a gold object **glitters**
65. white-hot coal **glows**
66. a camera gives **a flash of light**
67. a torch gives **a beam of light**
68. study for/take **a degree or a subject**

69. obtained/ award / complete **a degree**
70. receive /give **a grade**
71. obtain/acquire **a qualification**
72. skip lessons
73. full mark
74. concentration span
75. provide training
76. first/ final draft
77. fulfill pledge
78. face backlash
79. renew call
80. lead opinion polls
81. interest grows
82. a flood of tears
83. restore order
84. reach a compromise
85. battle rages
86. run contrary
87. deeply concerned
88. highly controversial
89. below the poverty line
90. latest news
91. large size
92. adopt a topic

A) Collocational Range:

1-War/attack/violence

- total war/ full-scale war/ attack هجوم/حرب شاملة
- carry out attacks ينفذ هجمات / يشن هجوما
- declare war يعلن الحرب
- launch attack يبدأ الهجوم
- war broke out/ was waged اندلعت الحرب
- fierce battle حرب ضروس / معركة ضارية
- limited war حرب محدودة
- cold war حرب باردة
- war of nerves حرب أعصاب
- verbal war حرب كلامية
- devastating war حرب مدمرة
- guerrilla war حرب عصابات
- avert war يتفادى الحرب
- violence/troubles flare up يتصاعد العنف
- the intifada erupted اندلعت الانتفاضة

2-Peace:

- lasting peace سلام دائم
- just peace سلام عادل
- comprehensive peace سلام شامل
- peace negotiations مفاوضات السلام
- peacekeeping forces قوات حفظ السلام
- treaty of peace معاهدة السلام
- establishment of peace اقامة سلام
- achievement of peace تحقيق السلام
- maintaining peace المحافظة على السلام
- time of peace وقت السلم
- peace activist ناشط سلام
- sign a peace treaty يوقع معاهدة سلام
- blowing up the peace process نسف عملية السلام

3-Defeat:

- humiliating defeat هزيمة قاسية
- crushing defeat هزيمة ساحقة
- honorable defeat هزيمة مشرفة
- concede defeat يعترف بالهزيمة

4-Relations:

- establishment of diplomatic ties إقامة علاقات دبلوماسية

○ severance of diplomatic relations	قطع العلاقات الدبلوماسية
○ freezing of relations	تجميد العلاقات
○ tense(strained) relations	علاقات متوترة
○ lukewarm relations	علاقات فاترة
○ active relations	علاقات نشطة
○ frosty relations	علاقات باردة
○ restore relations	يستعيد العلاقات
○ revive relations	يحيي العلاقات
○ normalize relations	يطبع العلاقات
○ developing friendly relations	تنمية علاقات صداقة

5-Talks:

○ deadlocked talks	محادثة متعثرة
○ protracted talks	محادثة مطولة
○ constructive talks	محادثة بناءة
○ cordial talks	محادثة ودية
○ frank talks	محادثة صريحة
○ talks broke down	تعثرت المحادثات
○ talks collapsed	فشلت المحادثات
○ suspend talks	يعلق المحادثات
○ resume talks	يستأنف محادثات

6-Fire:

○ friendly fire	نيران صديقة
○ firing range	ميدان ضرب النار
○ a fire broke out/blazed	اشتعلت النار
○ set fire	يشعل النار
○ catch fire	يخمد النار
○ bring fire under control	السيطرة على النيران
○ open fire	يطلق النار

7-Policy:

○ domestic policy	سياسة داخلية
○ foreign policy	سياسة خارجية
○ political apathy	لا مبالاة سياسية
○ political turmoil	اضطراب سياسي

8-Conference:

○ call a news conference	يدعو لمؤتمر صحفي
○ call off the conference	يلغي المؤتمر
○ postpone the conference	يؤجل المؤتمر
○ withdraw from the conference	ينسحب من المؤتمر
○ adjourn the conference sine die	

9- Government:

- legitimate government حكومة شرعية
- national unity government حكومة وحدة وطنية
- transitional government حكومة انتقالية
- the government's policy statement بيان الحكومة
- the government formation تشكيل الحكومة
- bring down the government يسقط الحكومة
- head the government يترأس الحكومة
- the government resignation استقالة الحكومة
- a binding agreement اتفاق ملزم
- oppressive regime نظام (سياسي) مستبد

10- Vote:

- vote counting/sorting out of votes فرز الأصوات
- garner votes يحصل على أصوات
- vote down يصوت ضد

11- Majority:

- absolute majority أغلبية مطلقة
- thin/slight majority أغلبية ضئيلة
- overwhelming majority أغلبية ساحقة

12-Commitment:

- international commitment التزامات دولية
- honor commitments يحترم الالتزامات

13-Diplomacy/ breach:

- upgrade diplomatic representation رفع التمثيل الدبلوماسي
- breach the diplomatic norms خرق العرف الدبلوماسي
- a grave breach انتهاك خطير

14-Invitation:

- extend an invitation to visit يوجه الدعوة لزيارة
- accept the invitation يقبل الدعوة

15-Visit:

- official/ state visit زيارة رسمية
- private visit زيارة خاصة
- red carpet reception استقبال رسمي
- pay a visit يقوم بزيارة

16-Heavy:

- heavy rainfall مطر غزير
- heavy fog ضباب كثيف
- heavy sleep سبات عميق
- heavy seas بحار هائجة

- heavy meal وجبة دسمة
- heavy smoker مدخن مفرط
- heavy industry صناعة ثقيلة

17. استيطان:

- halting settlement expansion وقف التوسع الاستيطان
- intensify settlement activity يكتنف النشاط الاستيطاني
- dismantling settlements تفكيك المستوطنات
- disengagement plan خطة فك الارتباط

18. خسائر/تضحيات/عواقب:

- losses خسائر عامة
- casualties خسائر بشرية
- huge losses خسائر فادحة
- immense sacrifices تضحيات هائلة
- dire consequences عواقب وخيمة

19. سلاح:

- weapons of mass destruction أسلحة الدمار الشامل
- armed forces القوات المسلحة
- demilitarized zones مناطق منزوعة السلاح

20. تسوية:

- settle a dispute يسوى النزاع
- a just settlement تسوية عادلة
- peaceful and accepted settlement تسوية سلمية مقبولة

21. بشدة:

- severely condemn يشجب بشدة
- categorically deny ينكر بشدة

22. برلمان:

- parliamentary immunity حصانة برلمانية
- dissolve parliament يحل البرلمان
- speaker رئيس البرلمان

23. انقلاب:

- coup attempt محاولة انقلاب
- abortive coup انقلاب فاشل

24. يلقي:

- give a lesson/lecture يلقي محاضرة/درسا
- strike terror in some one's heart/ to frighten يلقي الرعب في قلبه
- lay down one's arms يلقي السلاح
- lend one's ear to someone يلقي السمع إليه

- ask someone a question/ put a question to someone
يلقي عليه سؤالاً
- place responsibility on some one
يلقي عليه المسؤولية
- make a public a dress/speech
يلقي خطاباً
- give free rein to.
يلقي الحبل على الغارب
- brush aside
يلقي جانبا

25 . يكسر :

- break silence
يكسر حدار الصمت
- the enemy was defeated
ينكسر العدو
- break the strike
يكسر الإضراب
- break the hunger strike
يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام
- break the law
يكسر القانون
- break the heart
يكسر القلب
- humiliate the opponent
يكسر انف خصمه (يذل)
- eliminate the enemy's power
يكسر شوكة العدو
- quench thirst
يكسر العطش
- the waves break
تتكسر الأمواج
- break the oath
يكسر اليمين

B) Binominals:

- 26.fate
قضاء و قدر
- 27.lawful and unlawful
حلال و حرام
- 28.bread and butter
خبز و ملح
- 29.bed and breakfast
فطور و مبيت
- 30. destiny
قسمة و نصيب
- 31.alive and kicking
حي يرزق
- 32.sink or swim
إما أن تصيب أو تخيب
- 33.sooner or later
عاجلاً أم آجلاً
- 34.take it or leave it
إما أن تأخذها أو تتركها
- 35.neither here nor there
لا في العير ولا النفير
- 36.with heart and soul
قلبا و قالبا
- 37.hit-and-run
الفر والكر
- 38.move heaven and earth
يقم الدنيا ويقعدها
- 39.unity and diversity
الوحدة و التعدد

C) Collective Nouns:

- 40. A crowd of people
حشد من الناس
- 41.A group of people
مجموعة من الناس
- 42.A pile of (papers/ clothes/ dishes/ toys
كومة أوراق/ ملابس/ أطباق/ ألعاب

43. a bunch of flowers	باقة ورود
44. a bunch of grapes	عنقود من العنب
45. a school of whales	سرب من الحيتان
46. a flock of sheep	قطيع من الأغنام
47. flock of birds	سرب من الطيور
48. a herd of cows/ deer/ goats	قطيع من الأبقار/ الإبل/ الماعز
49. a swarm of bees	سرب النحل

D) Compounds:

50. absent-minded	شارد الذهن
51. easy-going	سهل المنال
52. good-tempered	طيب المزاج
53. warm-hearted	رحيم القلب/ عطوف
54. quick-witted	سريع البديهة
55. two-faced	مناقق/مراء/ذو وجهين
56. self-centered	أناني

E) Miscellaneous :

(Note: the following collocations have originally headwords or core words that occur within a range of frequent set of associations and coin expressions. However, what are included here are only the coin expressions used in the media without their sets of associations because they are out of the fields of the study).

57. ethnic cleansing	التطهير العرقي
58. influx of refugees	تدفق اللاجئين
59. a displaced person	نازح
60. mass expulsion	طرد جماعي
61. racial discrimination	تمييز عنصري
62. right of self-determination	حق تقرير المصير
63. quadripartite committee	اللجنة رباعية
64. charter of the united nations	ميثاق الأمم المتحدة
65. a stumbling block	حجر عثرة
66. maintain contacts	يجري اتصالات
67. horrendous disaster	كارثة رهيبه/ مروعة
68. confrontation pace	وتيرة المواجهة
69. the Palestinians' public opinions	آراء الشارع الفلسطيني
70. opposition functions	فضائل المعارضة
71. decisive moments	لحظات مصيرية

72. the world organization	المنظمة العالمية
73. break a ceasefire	يخرق الهدنة
74. brief reporters (on)	ينقل للصحفيين أنباء
75. decline comment	يبتنع عن التعليق
76. underscore	يوضح أهمية
77. refute an argument	يفند حجة
78. renew a pledge	يجدد العهد
79. press release /statement	بيان صحفي
80. good offices	المساعي الحميدة
81. special envoy	المبعوث الخاص
82. note of protest	مذكرة احتجاج
83. rigged elections	انتخابات مزورة
84. early results	النتائج الأولية
85. final results	النتائج النهائية
86. landslide victory	فوز ساحق
87. sign on the dotted line	يوقع على بياض
88. take the lead	يأخذ زمام المبادرة
89. accept it unwillingly	يقبله على مضض
90. give someone the cold shoulder	يقلب له ظهر الجفن
91. the search must be sustained	يجب أن يستمر البحث
92. turning point	نقطة تحول
93. overextension of power	بسط النفوذ
94. irreversible decision	قرار لا رجعة فيه
95. scanty information	معلومات ضئيلة
96. generous contributions	مساهمات كبيرة
97. massive human problems	مشاكل إنسانية كبيرة
98. a special case	حالة خاصة
99. a pathetic sight	منظر مثير للشفقة
100. incomparable/ matchless view	مشهد منقطع النظر
101. abject poverty	فقر مدقع

Appendix (B)
Collocations List
The Jury Selection
(The Final Version)

1. Collocations within English language:

1. **become not get:** popular/ homeless/ famous/available/ depressed
2. **get:** drunk/ lost/ involved / infected / ready
3. **go:** mad / crazy/ far/ wrong/ astray
4. **turn** white/ a blind eye/a profit/a deaf ear/ the tables
5. **pass:** an exam/ the ball/ the time/ judgment/ a law
6. **fall:** silent/ ill/asleep / in love /into a place
7. **have:** a broken leg/ a meeting/ an accident/ a good time/ a headache/ a haircut
8. **take:** care/ a seat/photos/ an exam/ a bath/ a break
9. **give:** an answer/ a chance/ a kiss/ a lift/ evidence/ an impression/ feedback
10. **catch:** a bus/ a cold/ fire/ a thief/ a glimpse
11. **keep:** a notebook/ control/ a promise/ quiet / a secret
12. **make:** a contribution/ a mistake/progress / a decision/an offer/ a trouble/ success
13. **do:** your best/ favor/ homework/ nothing/an exam/ damage
14. **break:** a habit/ someone's heart/ a window/a promise/news/ the peace
15. **come:** amiss/ here/ good/ of age/ right/ to a compromise
16. **pay:** attention/ a compliment/ respect/ a visit/ a salary
17. **play:** a guitar/ tennis/ a role/ a song/ a fool
18. **gain:** weight/advantage/ access/ support/ wages/ experience
19. **watch:** television/ a match/ the sky/ a race/ a parade
20. **raise:** an issue
21. **quick:** look/ glance/ answer/ decision/ shower/ lunch
22. **rapid:** increase
23. **hasty:** decision
24. **promote:** response/ reply/ payment
25. **swift:** action/ response/ reaction/ recovery
26. **brisk:** walk/ pace/ business/ efficiency
27. **heated** argument/discussion/ conversation/debate
28. **hold** a class/ a meeting/ a view/ an examination
29. **run** a risk/a company/ a business
30. **strike** a balance/ gold/ oil/ a bargain/ an agreement
31. **reject** an idea/a suggestion/a proposal/ a design
32. send / leave / pass on / give / get **a message**
33. public/ develop/take/ attract/ common **interest**
34. drop/ leave/ withdraw from **a course**
35. give/ deliver/ attend **a lecture**
36. constructive **criticism**
37. ideas, conversation **flow**
38. a star **twinkles**
39. obtained/ award / complete **a degree**
40. deeply concerned
41. highly controversial
42. below the poverty line
43. latest news
44. large size
45. adopt a topic

2. Collocations across English language – Arabic language:

A) Range:

1-War/attack/violence

- total war حرب شاملة
- carry out attacks ينفذ هجمات / يشن هجوما
- declare war يعلن الحرب
- launch the attack يبدأ الهجوم
- war broke out/ was waged اندلعت الحرب
- fierce battle حرب ضروس / معركة ضارية
- avert war يتفادى الحرب
- violence/troubles flare up يتصاعد العنف
- Intifada erupted اندلعت الانتفاضة

2-Peace:

- lasting peace سلام دائم
- just peace سلام عادل
- comprehensive peace سلام شامل
- peace negotiations مفاوضات السلام
- maintaining peace المحافظة على السلام
- peace activist ناشط سلام
- sign a peace treaty يوقع معاهدة سلام
- blowing up the peace process نسف عملية السلام

3-Defeat:

- crushing defeat هزيمة ساحقة

4-Relations:

- severance of diplomatic relations قطع العلاقات الدبلوماسية
- freezing of relations تجميد العلاقات
- tense(strained) relations علاقات متوترة
- restore relations يستعيد العلاقات
- revive relations يحيي العلاقات
- normalize relations يطبع العلاقات

5-Talks:

- deadlocked talks محادثات متعثرة
- constructive talks محادثات بناءة
- the talks broke down تعثرت المحادثات
- the talks collapsed فشلت المحادثات
- suspend the talks يعلق المحادثات
- resume the talks يستأنف محادثات

6-Fire:

- friendly fire نيران صديقة

- firing range ميدان ضرب النار
- set fire يشعل النار
- open fire يطلق النار

7-Policy:

- domestic policy سياسة داخلية
- foreign policy سياسة خارجية

17. يلقي:

- give a lesson/lecture يلقي محاضرة/درسا
- strike terror in some one's heart/ to frighten يلقي الرعب في قلبه
- lay down one's arms/ surrender يلقي السلاح
- lend one's ear to someone يلقي السمع اليه
- ask someone a question/ put a question to someone يلقي عليه سؤالاً
- place responsibility on some one يلقي عليه المسؤولية
- make a public a dress/speech يلقي خطاباً
- break silence يكسر جدار الصمت
- the enemy was defeated ينكسر العدو
- break the strike يكسر الإضراب
- break the hunger strike يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام
- break the law يكسر القانون
- break the heart يكسر القلب
- humiliate someone يكسر أنف فلان
- eliminate the enemy's power يكسر شوكة العدو
- break the oath يكسر اليمين

B) Binominals:

- 19.fate قضاء و قدر
- 20.bread and butter خبز و ملح
- 21.bed and breakfast فطور و مبيت
- 22.alive and kicking حي يرزق
- 23.sink or swim اما ان تصيب أو تخيب
- 24.sooner or later عاجلاً أم آجلاً

25.with heart and soul

قلبا و قالبا

26.hit-and-run

الفر والكر

C) Collective Nouns:

27. a crowd of people

حشد من الناس

28.a group of people

مجموعة من الناس

29. a bunch of flowers

باقة ورود

30. a bunch of grapes

عنقود من العنب

31. a school of whales

سرب من الحيتان

32. a flock of birds

سرب من الطيور

33. a herd of cows/ deer/ goats

قطيع من الأبقار/ الإبل/ الماعز

D) Compounds:

34. absent-minded

شارد الذهن

E) Miscellaneous:

(Note: the following collocations have originally headwords or core words that occur within a range of frequent set of associations and coin expressions. However, what is included here is only the coin expressions used in the media without their sets of associations because they are out of the fields of the study).

35. a displaced person

نازح

36. racial discrimination

تمييز عنصري

37. right of self-determination

حق تقرير المصير

38. quadripartite committee

اللجنة رباعية

39.charter of the united nations

ميثاق الأمم المتحدة

40.a stumbling block

حجر عثرة

41.maintain contacts

يجري اتصالات

42.confrontation pace

وتيرة المواجهة

43.the Palestinians' public opinions

آراء الشارع الفلسطيني

44.opposition functions

فضائل المعارضة

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

Appendix (C)
(The Initial Version of the Diagnostic Test)

اختبار تشخيصي
Diagnostic Test

يرجى تعبئة البيانات التالية:

	الكلية :
	التخصص:
	المستوى:
	الجنس:
	★ المعدل التراكمي :

إرشادات:

✘ تدور أسئلة هذا الاختبار حول (collocations) أو ما يسمى باللغة العربية (المتلازمات اللغوية) وهي عبارة عن كلمتين أو أكثر تشيع بينهم علاقة تؤدي الى ثبات ظهورهم في الاستعمال اللغوي.

مثال على ذلك: *commit a crime* ويقابلها في العربية: يرتكب / و يقترف جريمة فالدقة اللغوية هنا تسترعي استخدام الفعل (يرتكب) أو (يقترف) مع (جريمة) عدا عن أي فعل آخر، كذلك في الانجليزية نستخدم الفعل (commit) ولا نقول (make).

✘ ينقسم هذا الاختبار إلى قسمين: الأول يدور حول استخدام المتلازمات اللغوية في اللغة الانجليزية، أما الثاني فيدور حول ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية من اللغة الانجليزية إلى العربية والعكس.

✘ يوجد مثال توضيحي في بداية كل سؤال مطروح

✘ الدقة و التركيز في حل أسئلة هذا الاختبار سيساعد الباحثة على تحقيق الأهداف المرجوة من هذا البحث.

✘ الرجاء عدم اللجوء لأي نوع من أنواع المساعدة)

★ ملاحظة هامة: ذكر المعدل التراكمي هو لغرض الدراسة و ليس لأي اعتبارات أخرى، لذلك يرجى كتابة المعدل أعلاه حتى يتسنى للباحثة تحقيق أهداف الدراسة، مع العلم أنه لا يوجد ذكر اسم للطالب/ة الممتحن/ة.

وشكراً لتعاونكم معي وأسأل الله لكم التوفيق

والله من وراء القصد

مع تحيات الباحثة: آية المشهراوي

Part (1):

Question (1):

Make collocations by matching a word in the column (A) with a word in the column (B):

The first word is done as an example.

(A)	(B)
1- settle a balance
2- carry out a compromise
3- friendly a study
4- a heated defeat
5- severely fire
6- come to a ceasefire
7- strike condemn
8- a crushing 1 a dispute
9- promote discussion
10- break a response
11- a candle the lead
12- highly concerned
13- take criticism
14- deeply twinkles
15- a star flickers
16- constructive experience
 controversial

Question (2): Circle the correct collocation:

Example: you must (submit - send - write) your application before the end of June.

- 1- Will the teacher (give - provide - make) us some feedback on our essays?
- 2- It is not compulsory to (attend - assist- listen) all the lectures at this university.
- 3- The author of the book (adopts - adapts - affects) an unusual position on the topic.
- 4- How long will it take you to (complete - carry out - fulfill) your degree?
- 5- At the end of the presentation, we could (raise- rise- arise) any issues that we want to discuss.
- 6- There has been a (fast- rapid- quick) increase in the number of Palestinian martyrs since the beginning of Al Aqsa Intifada.
- 7- It is a terrifying experience to come within a (firing distance - firing area - firing range) of the enemy.
- 8- The president had done everything possible to (avert - prevent - rage) war, but there was no alternative.

- 9- If you come to a (hasty – prompt – brisk) decision, it may well be the wrong one.
- 10- More Palestinian people than ever are living (below – under – underneath) the poverty line.
- 11- Did you listen to the (latest – last– final) news?
- 12- Did you (spend- have – make) a good time on holiday?
- 13- I wanted the sweater in the (big – large – huge) size.
- 14- What is most likely to *flare up*: (love – interest – violence)
- 15- What is most likely to *flow*: (people – ideas – tears)

Question (3):

Cross out the incorrect collocation in each of the following sets:

Example: come ~~bad~~, come **amiss**, come **here**, come **right**, come **good**, come of **age**

1. pay **a visit**, pay **respect**, pay **a compliment**, pay **attention**, pay **an offer**, pay a **salary**
2. give **an answer**, give **an impression**, give **the risk**, give **a lift**, give **a chance**, give **an evidence**
3. turn **a blind eye**, turn **a profit**, turn **a deaf ear**, turn **justice**, turn **white**, turn **tables**
4. get **infected**, get **drunk**, get **lost**, get **won**, get **involved**, get **ready**
5. go **far**, go **mad**, go **wrong**, go **good**, go **ahead**, go **astray**
6. pass **an exam**, pass **a ball**, pass **the time**, pass **judgment**, pass **a law**, pass **a decision**
7. make **a mistake**, make **a trouble**, make **success**, make **progress**, make **an exercise**, make **a damage**
8. do **your best**, do **nothing**, do **favor**, do **homework**, do **peace**, do **an exam**
9. take **an answer**, take **care**, take **a seat**, take **photos**, take **place**, take **a bath**
10. catch **a cold**, catch **a thief**, catch **a bus**, catch **fire**, catch **a glimpse**, catch **break**
11. keep **a meeting**, keep **a promise**, keep **control**, keep **quiet**, keep **secret**, keep **a notebook**
12. fall **ill**, fall **bald**, fall **asleep**, fall **in love**, fall **into place**, fall **silent**

13. have a **headache**, have an **accident**, have a **haircut**, have **fun**, have a **broken leg**, have an **action**
14. become **famous**, become **homeless**, become **available**, become crazy, become **popular**, become **depressed**
15. break **one's heart**, break **thirst**, break a **promise**, break a **habit**, break **news**, break **the peace**
16. quick **look**, quick **food**, quick **answer**, quick **decision**, quick **shower**, quick **lunch**
17. **send** a message, **leave** a message, **pass** on a message, **give** a message, **tell** a message, **get** a message
18. play a **guitar**, play **tennis**, play a **role**, play **computer**, play a **song**, play a **fool**
19. watch **television**, watch a **match**, watch a **view**, watch a **race**, watch **the sky**, watch a **parade**
20. **public** interest, **develop** an interest, **take** an interest, **give** an interest, **attract** interest, **common** interest

Part (2): Question (1): Translate the following English collocations into Arabic:

complete confusion	ارتباك تام
1. total war	
2. declare the war	
3. the war broke out	
4. carry out attacks	
5. launch attacks	
6. the Intifada erupted	
7. maintaining peace	
8. the peace negotiations	
9. the peace activist	
10. the peace treaty	
11. blowing up the peace process	
12. normalize the relations	
13. restore the relations	
14. revive the relations	
15. tense relations	
16. severance of the relations	
17. freezing the relations	
18. deadlocked talks	
19. the talks broke down	
20. the talks collapsed	
21. resume the talks	
22. suspend the talks	
23. constructive talks	
24. open fire	
25. set fire	
26. national unity government	
27. transitional government	
28. legitimate government	
29. government formation	
30. bring down government	
31. international commitments	
32. honor commitments	
33. heavy smoker	
34. heavy sleep	
35. bed and breakfast	
36. hit and run	
37. alive and kicking	
38. with heart and soul	
39. sink or swim	
40. a school of whales	
41. sooner or later	
42. absent-minded	
43. a displaced person	
44. generous contributions	
50. make a contribution	

Question (2): Translate the following Arabic collocations into English:

Press release	بيان صحفي
	1. تفكيك المستوطنات
	2. خطة فك الارتباط
	3. يكثف النشاط الاستيطاني
	4. أسلحة الدمار الشامل
	5. القوات المسلحة
	6. سلام عادل
	7. سلام دائم
	8. سلام شامل
	9. حرب ضروس
	10. حجر عثرة
	11. قضاء و قدر
	12. قسمة و نصيب
	13. حشد من الناس
	14. مجموعة من الناس
	15. حالة خاصة
	16. يجري اتصالات
	17. الشارع الفلسطيني
	18. فصائل المعارضة
	19. المنظمة العالمية
	20. نقطة تحول
	21. غارة جوية
	22. وتيرة المواجهة
	23. معلومات ضئيلة
	24. ينقل للصحفيين أنباء
	25. ميثاق الأمم المتحدة
	26. تمييز عنصري
	27. حق تقرير المصير
	28. اللجنة الرباعية
	29. سياسة داخلية
	30. سياسة خارجية

Question (3):

Underline the correct translation of the following Arabic collocation:

Example: زيارة خاصة (a special – a private – a specific) visit

1. يلقي محاضرة (address – give – present) a lecture
2. يلقي خطابا (speak - make- throw) a public address
3. يلقي سؤالا (ask – throw – give) a question
4. يلقي السمع إلى فلان (give – lend – throw) an ear to someone
5. يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (place- put – throw) a responsibility on some one
6. يلقي السلاح (put off – throw away - lay down) arms
7. يلقي الرعب في قلبه : enter – put – strike) terror in some one's heart
8. يكسر جدار الصمت (break – smash – damage) silence

- 9 يكسر شوكة العدو. (break the enemy's fork - crush the enemy's thorn – eliminate the enemy's power)
- 10 يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام: (break – cut off – interrupt) the hunger strike
- 11 يكسر القانون. (break – cut down – smash) the law
- 12 يكسر اليمين: (cut down - change – break) the oath
- 13 يكسر انف فلان. (break the nose of– burst the nose of - humiliate) some one
- 14 سرب من الطيور. (a flock – a swarm- a herd) of birds
- 15 قطيع من الأبقار. (a herd - a flock – a swarm) of cows
- 16 باقة ورد. (a bunch – a group – a pile) of flowers
- 17 عنقود من العنب: (a bunch – a group – a stack) of grapes
- 18 خسائر بشرية: (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
- 19 خسائر عامة: (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
- 20 شاي ثقيل : (strong – heavy – dark) tea

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

Appendix (D)
(The Modified Version of the Diagnostic Test)
اختبار تشخيصي
Diagnostic Test

يرجى تعبئة البيانات التالية:

	الكلية :
	التخصص:
	المستوى:
	الجنس:
	★ المعدل التراكمي :

إرشادات:

- ☒ تدور أسئلة هذا الاختبار حول (collocations) أو ما يسمى باللغة العربية (المتلازمات اللغوية) وهي عبارة عن كلمتين أو أكثر تشيع بينهما علاقة تؤدي إلى ثبات ظهورهم في الاستعمال اللغوي.
- مثال على ذلك: *commit a crime* ويقابلها في العربية: يرتكب أو يقتترف جريمة فالدقة اللغوية هنا تسترعي استخدام الفعل (يرتكب) أو (يقتترف) مع (جريمة) عدا عن أي فعل آخر، كذلك في الإنجليزية نستخدم الفعل (commit) ولا نقول (make).
- ☒ ينقسم هذا الاختبار إلى قسمين: الأول يدور حول استخدام المتلازمات اللغوية في اللغة الإنجليزية، أما الثاني فيدور حول ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى العربية والعكس.
- ☒ يوجد مثال توضيحي في بداية كل سؤال مطروح
- ☒ الدقة و التركيز في حل أسئلة هذا الاختبار سيساعد الباحثة على تحقيق الأهداف المرجوة من هذا البحث.
- ☒ الرجاء عدم اللجوء لأي نوع من أنواع المساعدة
- ★ **ملاحظة هامة:** ذكر المعدل التراكمي هو لغرض الدراسة و ليس لأي اعتبارات أخرى، لذلك يرجى كتابة المعدل أعلاه حتى يتسنى للباحثة تحقيق أهداف الدراسة، مع العلم أنه لا يوجد ذكر اسم للطالب/ة الممتحن/ة.

وشكراً لتعاونكم معي وأسأل الله لكم التوفيق
والله من وراء القصد

مع تحيات الباحثة: آية المشهراوي

Part (1):

1- Make collocations by matching a word in the column (A) with a word in the column (B):

The first word is done as an example.

(A)	(B)
1- settle a balance
2- carry out	...1... a dispute
3- constructive a study
4- a heated experience
5- severely fire
6- friendly ceasefire
7- strike condemn
8- promote a compromise
9- a crushing discussion
10- break a response
11- come to defeat
 criticism

2- Circle the correct collocation:

1- You must (**submit** - send – write) your application before the end of June.

- 2- Will the teacher (give - provide – make) us some feedback on our essays?
- 3- It is not compulsory to (attend – assist- listen) all the lectures at this university.
- 4- The author of the book (adopts – adapts – affects) an unusual position on the topic.
- 5- How long will it take you to (complete – carry out – fulfill) your degree?
- 6- At the end of the presentation, we could (raise- rise- arise) any issues that we want to discuss.
- 7- There has been a (fast- rapid- quick) increase in the number of Palestinian martyrs since the beginning of Al Aqsa Intifada.
- 8- More Palestinian people than ever are living (below – under – underneath) the poverty line.
- 9- Did you listen to the (latest – last– final) news?
- 10- What is most likely to *flare up*: (love – interest – violence)
- 11- What is most likely to *flow*: (people – ideas – tears)

3- Cross out the incorrect collocation in each of the following sets:

1. get **infected**, get **drunk**, get **lost**, get ~~won~~, get **involved**, get **ready**
2. pay **a visit**, pay **respect**, pay **a compliment**, pay **attention**, pay **an offer**, pay **a salary**
3. go **far**, go **mad**, go **wrong**, go **good**, go **ahead**, go **astray**
4. pass **an exam**, pass **a ball**, pass **the time**, pass **judgment**, pass **a law**, pass **a decision**
5. make **a mistake**, make **a trouble**, make **success**, make **progress**, make **an exercise**, make **a damage**
6. do **your best**, do **nothing**, do **favor**, do **homework**, do **peace**, do **an exam**
7. take **an answer**, take **care**, take **a seat**, take **photos**, take **place**, take **a bath**
8. catch **cold**, catch **a thief**, catch **a bus**, catch **fire**, catch **a glimpse**, catch **break**
9. keep **a meeting**, keep **a promise**, keep **control**, keep **quiet**, keep **secret**, keep **a notebook**
10. have **a headache**, have **an accident**, have **a haircut**, have **fun**, have **a broken leg**, have **an action**
11. break **one's heart**, break **thirst**, break **a promise**, break **a habit**, break **news**, break **the peace**

Part (2): 1- Translate the following English collocations into Arabic:

1. complete confusion	ارتباك تام
2. total war	
3. carry out attacks	
4. the Intifada erupted	
5. blowing up the peace process	
6. the talks broke down	
7. bring down the government	
8. severance of relations	
9. open fire	
10. a displaced person	
11. a fierce battle	
12. absent-minded	
13. bread and butter	
14. alive and kicking	
15. a school of whales	
16. heavy smoker	

2- Translate the following Arabic collocations into English:

press release	1. بيان صحفي
	2. تفكيك المستوطنات
	3. خطة فك الارتباط
	4. سلام دائم
	5. آراء الشارع الفلسطيني
	6. أسلحة الدمار الشامل
	7. المنظمة العالمية
	8. حالة خاصة
	9. سياسة خارجية
	10. سياسة داخلية
	11. حشد من الناس

Appendix (E)
Diagnostic Test
(Key Answers)

يرجى تعبئة البيانات التالية:

	الكلية :
	التخصص:
	المستوى:
	الجنس:
	★المعدل التراكمي :

إرشادات:

- ☒ تدور أسئلة هذا الاختبار حول (collocations) أو ما يسمى باللغة العربية (المتلازمات اللغوية) وهي عبارة عن كلمتين أو أكثر تشيع بينهم علاقة تؤدي إلى ثبات ظهورهم في الاستعمال اللغوي.
- مثال على ذلك: *commit a crime* ويقابلها في العربية: يرتكب / و يقترف جريمة فالدقة اللغوية هنا تسترعي استخدام الفعل (يرتكب) أو (يقترف) مع (جريمة) عدا عن أي فعل آخر، كذلك في الانجليزية نستخدم الفعل (commit) ولا نقول (make).
- ☒ ينقسم هذا الاختبار إلى قسمين: الأول يدور حول استخدام المتلازمات اللغوية في اللغة الانجليزية، أما الثاني فيدور حول ترجمة المتلازمات اللغوية من اللغة الانجليزية إلى العربية والعكس.
- ☒ يوجد مثال توضيحي في بداية كل سؤال مطروح
- ☒ الدقة و التركيز في حل أسئلة هذا الاختبار سيساعد الباحثة على تحقيق الأهداف المرجوة من هذا البحث.
- ☒ الرجاء عدم اللجوء لأي نوع من أنواع المساعدة

★**ملاحظة هامة:** ذكر المعدل التراكمي هو لغرض الدراسة و ليس لأي اعتبارات أخرى، لذلك يرجى كتابة المعدل أعلاه حتى يتسنى للباحثة تحقيق أهداف الدراسة، مع العلم أنه لا يوجد ذكر اسم للطالب/ة الممتحن/ة.

وشكراً لتعاونكم معي وأسأل الله لكم التوفيق
والله من وراء القصد

مع تحيات الباحثة: آية المشهراوي

Part (1):

1- Make collocations by matching a word in the column (A) with a word in the column (B):

The first word is done as an example.

(A)	(B)
1- settle	...7... a balance
2- carry out	...1... a dispute
3- constructive	...2... a study
4- a heated	...-... experience
5- severely	...6... fire
6- friendly	...10... ceasefire
7- strike	...5... condemn
8- promote	...11... a compromise
9- crushing	...4... discussion
10- break	...8... a response
11- come to	...9... defeat
	...3... criticism

2- Circle the correct collocation:

1- You must (submit - send – write) your application before the end of June.

12- Will the teacher (give - provide – make) us some feedback on our essays?

13- It is not compulsory to (attend – assist- listen) all the lectures at this university.

14- The author of the book (adopts – adapts – affects) an unusual position on the topic.

15- How long will it take you to (complete – carry out – fulfill) your degree?

16- At the end of the presentation, we could (raise - rise- arise) any issues that we want to discuss.

17- There has been a (fast- rapid - quick) increase in the number of Palestinian martyrs since the beginning of Al Aqsa Intifada.

18- More Palestinian people than ever are living (below – under – underneath) the poverty line.

19- Did you listen to the (latest – last– final) news?

20- What is most likely to *flare up*: (love – interest – violence)

21- What is most likely to *flow*: (people – ideas – tears)

3- Cross out the incorrect collocation in each of the following sets:

1. get **infected**, get **drunk**, get **lost**, get ~~won~~, get **involved**, get **ready**
12. pay **a visit**, pay **respect**, pay **a compliment**, pay **attention**, pay ~~an offer~~, pay **a salary**
13. go **far**, go **mad**, go **wrong**, go ~~good~~, go **ahead**, go **astray**
14. pass **an exam**, pass **a ball**, pass **the time**, pass **judgment**, pass **a law**, ~~pass a decision~~
15. make **a mistake**, make **a trouble**, make **success**, make **progress**, make **an exercise**, make ~~a damage~~
16. do **your best**, do **nothing**, do **favor**, do **homework**, do ~~peace~~, do **an exam**
17. take ~~an answer~~, take **care**, take **a seat**, take **photos**, take **place**, take **a bath**
18. catch **cold**, catch **a thief**, catch **a bus**, catch **fire**, catch **a glimpse**, catch ~~break~~
19. keep ~~a meeting~~, keep **a promise**, keep **control**, keep **quiet**, keep **secret**, keep **a notebook**
20. have **a headache**, have **an accident**, have **a haircut**, have **fun**, have **a broken leg**, have ~~an action~~
21. break **one's heart**, break ~~thirst~~, break **a promise**, break **a habit**, break **news**, break **the peace**

Part (2):

1- Translate the following English collocations into Arabic:

1. complete confusion	ارتباك تام
18. total war	حرب شاملة
19. carry out attacks	ينفذ هجمات / يشن هجوما
20. the Intifada erupted	اندلعت الانتفاضة
21. blowing up the peace process	نسف عملية السلام
22. the talks broke down	تعثرت المحادثات/ المباحثات
23. bring down the government	اسقاط الحكومة
24. severance of relations	قطع العلاقات
25. open fire	يطلق النار
26. a displaced person	نازح
27. a fierce battle	معركة ضارية / حرب ضروس
28. absent-minded	شارد الذهن
29. bread and butter	عيش وملح
30. alive and kicking	حي يرزق
31. a school of whales	سرب من الحيتان
32. heavy smoker	مدخن مفرط

Translate the following Arabic collocations into English:

press release	10. بيان صحفي
dismantling settlement	11. تفكيك المستوطنات
disengagement plan	12. خطة فك الارتباط
lasting peace	13. سلام دائم
the Palestinians' public opinions	14. آراء الشارع الفلسطيني
weapons of mass destruction	15. أسلحة الدمار الشامل
the world organization	16. المنظمة العالمية
a special case	17. حالة خاصة
foreign policy	18. سياسة خارجية
domestic policy	10. سياسة داخلية
a crowd of people	11. حشد من الناس

3. Underline the correct translation of the following Arabic collocation:

1. زيارة خاصة : (a special – a private – a specific) visit
2. يلقي المسؤولية على فلان : (place- put – throw) responsibility on some one
3. يلقي السلاح : (put off – throw away - lay down) arms
4. يلقي الرعب في قلبه : (enter – put – strike) terror in some one's heart
5. يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام : (break – cut off – interrupt) the hunger strike
6. يكسر أنف فلان : (break the nose of– burst the nose of - humiliate) some one
7. سرب من الطيور : (a flock – a swarm- a herd) of birds
8. قطيع من الأبقار : (a herd - a flock – a swarm) of cows
9. خسائر بشرية : (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
10. خسائر عامة : (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
11. شاي ثقيل : (strong – heavy – dark) tea

3. Underline the correct translation of the following Arabic collocation:

12. زيارة خاصة : (a special – a private – a specific) visit
13. يلقي المسؤولية على فلان : (place- put – throw) responsibility on some one
14. يلقي السلاح : (put off – throw away - lay down) arms
15. يلقي الرعب في قلبه : (enter – put – strike) terror in some one's heart
16. يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام : (break – cut off – interrupt) the hunger strike
17. يكسر أنف فلان : (break the nose of– burst the nose of - humiliate) some one
18. سرب من الطيور : (a flock – a swarm- a herd) of birds
19. قطيع من الأبقار : (a herd - a flock – a swarm) of cows
20. خسائر بشرية : (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
21. خسائر عامة : (losses – casualties – sacrifices)
22. شاي ثقيل : (strong – heavy – dark) tea

Appendix (F) A List of Categorized Main Collocation Errors

English Majors:

❖ **The First Dimension: Errors of Collocations Based on the Knowledge of Native Language (NL) and Foreign Language (FL)**

1- Improper Synonyms

- *fast / quick* increase
- *under / underneath* the poverty line
- *pay* an offer
- *keep* a meeting
- *pass* a decision
- *catch* break

- The Intifada erupted: اشتعلت الانتفاضة / ثارت الانتفاضة / تفجرت الانتفاضة (tafajart al intifada/ thart al intifada / isht?lat al intifada)
- total war: حرب كاملة / حرب كلية / حرب تامة / حرب عامة (harbun ? ama/ tamma / kulia / kamela)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن شديد / مدخن شره/ مدخن محترف/ مدخن مزمن (mudakhenun shaded/ shareh / muhtaref /muzmen)
- the talks broke down: توقف المحادثات/ انقطعت المحادثات / تعطل المحادثات: (tawqufu al muhadathat / inqat?t al muhadathat / t?tulu al muhadathat)
- bringing down the government: تفكيك الحكومة/ تعطيل الحكومة/ تحطيم الحكومة (tafqueequ al hukuma / ta?teelu al hukuma / tahteemu al hukuma)
- a displaced person: انسان مشرد/ شخص مقال / شخص مبعد (insanun musharad / shakhsun muqal / shakhsun mub?d)
- a fierce battle: معركة متأجشة (m?raka mut?ajesha)
- اسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): massive / maximal/ global destructive weapons, total destroyed weapons, arms of whole destruction, complete arms of destruction, weapons of general destruction

- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhliia): in-home / inside/ local/ Indoors policy
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): outside / out policy/ outdoors / abroad policy
- سلام دائم (salamn da?em): peace for ever/ life long peace/ constant peace
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a lot of people/ a mass of people/ a school of people
- حالة خاصة (halah khasa): particular situation / exclusive state / a private case
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqueequ al mustawtanat): Breaking down / Bringing down settlements
- سرب من الطيور (serbun men atuyoor): a swarm / a herd of birds
- قطيع من الأبقار (qatte?un men al abqaar): a flock / a swarm of cows
- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): losses / sacrifices
- خسائر عامة (khasa?erun ?ama): casualties / sacrifices

2- Miscellaneous:

A) False Literary Style:

- total war: حرب بمعنى الكلمة (harbun bem?na alkalema)
- carry out attacks: يهاجم على حين غرة (yuhajemu ?la heni ghera)
- a fierce battle : حرب إثبات القوة (harbu ithbatu al qwa)
- bread and butter: الحلو و المر / الحياة حلوة / الرفاهية (alhelu wa almur / alhelu wa almur / alhayah hulwa / arrafahia)
- absent-minded: عقول متحجرة/ تائهة (?uqul mutahajerra / ta?eha)
- bringing down government: فلنذهب الحكومة (faltazhab alhukoma)
- alive and kicking: ساتر نفسه /يعيش و يأكل غيرها/ الحياة و النجاة /عيش و طنش (saterun nafsah / yi?eesh wa yakul gherha / alhayah wa annajah/ ?eesh wa tanesh)
- the talks broke down: كسر حاجز الصمت: (kasara hajezu assamt)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن ذو عيار ثقيل (mudakhenun zu ?iar thaqeel)
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone

B) Words Coinage:

- A school of whales: غابة حيتان (ghabatu al hittan)
- Intifada erupted: فوضى الانتفاضة (fawda al intifada)
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): *dislinking* settlement
- سالم دائم (salamn da?em): *long peace / all peace*

C) Graphic Ambiguity:

- a displaced person: شخص معاق (shakhsun mu?aq) [**misreading a displaced as a disabled**]
- severance of relations: العديد من العلاقات / العديد من الأقارب / خدمات العلاقات (al?adeedu men al ?laqat / al?adeedu men al?qareb / khadamatu al ?laqat)
[**misreading severance of relations as several of relations / several of relatives / services of relations**]
- carry out attacks: يصرخ في الهجوم (yasrukhu fi alhuju:m) [**misreading carry out as cry**]

D) Omission:

آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?ra? ashare? Al felstinin) : views of Palestinians /opinions of Palestinians

E): Irrelevant Collocations:

- carry out attacks: وقف الهجمات (waqfu alhajamat)
- blowing up the peace process: عرقلة عملية السلام / دفع عملية السلام قدما السلام / أحياء عملية السلام / مفاوضات عملية السلام / يقوي عملية السلام (?rqlatu amaliati asalm / daf?u amaliatu asalm quduman / Ihia? amaliati asalm / mufawadatu amaliati asalm / yuqawi amaliatu asalm)
- a displaced person: شخص غير مؤتمن (shakhsun ghir m?utaman)

3-Literal Translation:

- Alive and kicking: عايش و يرفس / العيش بالركل (?aysh wa yarfus / al?ayshu berrakel)
- a school of whales: مدرسة حيتان (madrasatu hittan)
- bread and butter: خبز و زبدة (khubzun wa zibddah)
- the talks broke down: كسر المحادثات (kasru almuhadathat)
- blowing up the peace process: يفجر عملية السلام (yufajeru amaliatu assalam)
- absent-minded: عقول غائبة /عقول فارغة (?uqu:lun ghaeba, faregha)

- total war: كامل الحرب (kamelu al harb)
- carry out attacks: ما حمل خارج الهجوم (ma humela khareja alhujoom)
- open fire: يفتح النار / (yaftahu annar)
- severance of relations: حدة العلاقات / علاقات حادة (hedatu al ?alaqat / ?alaqatun hada)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن ثقيل (mudakhen thaqeel)
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqqeequ al mustawtanat): disconnecting settlements
- المنظمة العالمية (Al munazama al?lamia): international organization
- آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?rra?u alshare? Al felestini): opinions of Palestinians street
- أسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): arms of total destroy
- سلام دائم (salamn da?em): always peace
- يكسر انف فلان (yakseru ?nfa fulan): break the nose of someone
- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel): heavy tea
- يلقي السلاح (yulqi asselah): throw away the arm
- يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi almas?ulia ?la fulan): throw responsibility on some one
- last / final news: the respondents might choose those two terms because they used in Arabic the term آخر الأنباء (?kher al-?nba?).
- break thirst: the respondents might admit this term because they used in Arabic the term يكسر العطش (yakseru al-?ttash).
- do peace: the respondents might choose this term because they used in the colloquial Arabic the term يعمل سلام (y?malu salam); though in formal Arabic, the used the term يصنع سلام (yasna?u salam).

4- False Analogy:

- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel): dark tea

[interpreting شاي ثقيل as غمق الشاي (ghamiqaa ?shai) and translating غمق into dark]

- يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi al-mas?ulia ?la fulan): put responsibility on some one

[interpreting يلقى as يضع (yadda?) and translating it into put]

- يلقي السلاح (yulqi asselah): put off arms

[interpreting يلقى as يوقف (ywqufu) and translating it into put off]

- يلقي الرعب في قلبه (yulqi arr?uba fi qalbih): enter / put terror in some one's heart
[interpreting يلقي as يدخل or يضع (yudkhilu / yada?u) and translating them into *enter / put*]
- يكسر الإضراب عن الطعام (yakseru al-?idrab ?n ?tta?m): cut off / interrupt the hunger strike
[interpreting يكسر as يقطع or يقاطع (yaqtta? / yuqati?) and translating them into *cut off / interrupt*]
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): International policy
[interpreting خارجية as عالمية (?alamia) and translating it into *International*]
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqeequ al mustawtanat): destroying / separating the settlements, evacuation of the settlement, the settlement removing, withdrawal
[interpreting تفكيك as إزالة المستوطنات / الانسحاب من المستوطنات / فصل / إخلاء / تدمير and translating them into *destroying / separating/ evacuation/ removing/ withdrawal* respectively]
- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhliia): national / local policy
[interpreting داخلية as وطنية or محلية (mahalia / watania) and translating them into *national / local*]
- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharia): sacrifices
[interpreting خسائر as تضحيات (tadhiat) and translating it into *sacrifices*]
- آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?ra? ashare? Al felstinin): ideas of Palestinians street
[interpreting آراء as أفكار then translating it into *ideas*]
- total war: حرب عالمية/ دمار شامل (harbun ?alamia / damarun shamel)
[interpreting *total war* as *world war/ mass destruction* resulting from the war then translating them into *حرب عالمية/ دمار شامل*]
- open fire: ابدأ القتال/ يفتتح القتال/ يشعل النار / حرب مفتوحة (?ibd? al-kittal / yaftatihu al-kittal / ishtibakat ?anifa / yush?lu annar / harbyn maftwha)
[interpreting *open* as *start / initiate / begin* then translating them into *ابدأ القتال* يفتتح / القتال, interpreting *open fire* as *set fire* then translating it into *حرب* يشعل النار , and interpreting *open fire* as *open war* then translating it into *مفتوحة*]
- a heavy smoker: دخان كثيف (dukhanun katheef)
[interpreting *a heavy smoker* as *heavy smoke* then translating it into *دخان كثيف*]

- absent-minded: مجنون (majnu:n) [interpreting *absent-minded* as *crazy/mad* and translating them into مجنون]

5- Ignorance of Rules:

- provide us some feedback on our essays [using the verb *provide* without the preposition *with*]
- listen all the lectures at this university [using the verb *listen* without the preposition *to*]
- go the course this semester [using the verb *go* without the preposition *to*]
- affects on the topic [using the preposition *on* with the verb *affect*]
- severely experience [using a adverb with a noun]
- promote condemn [using a verb with another verb]

6-Approximation:

- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a group of people / many groups of people
- a school of whales: مجموعة من الأسماك (majmu?a men alasmak)
- bread and butter: طعام (ta?am)

7-Paraphrasing:

- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): the plan of attack to break down the settlements / the plan of withdrawal from the settlements
- a displaced person:
 - شخص في غير مكانه الصحيح او المناسب- (shakhsun fii ?er makaneh almunaseb)
 - شخص منعزل عن مكانه- (shakhsun mun?zel ?n mkaneh)
 - وضع شخص في مكان اخر- (wad?u shakhsin fii makanen ?khar)
 - شخص متنقل من مكان لآخر- (shakhsun mutanaqelun men mkanen le ?khar)

❖ The Second Dimension: Errors related to collocation categories of range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals

Collocation Errors Related to Range:

- *make a damage*
- *take an answer*
- *pay an offer*
- *go good*
- *a crushing fire*
- *strike fire*

• In the third question of the first part in the test, there is a full scale of errors regarding choosing the odd collocation out of range. The following correct collocations are crossed out as odd ones by many participants of English majors:

- pay a visit
- pay respect
- pay a compliment
- go wrong
- go astray
- go mad
- pass a law
- pass judgment
- make success
- make progress
- do favor
- do an exam
- take a bath
- take photos
- catch fire
- catch a glimpse
- catch a thief
- keep a promise,
- keep control,
- keep a notebook
- have a haircut
- have a broken leg
- break one's heart
- break a promise
- break a habit
- break the peace
- يلقى المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi al-mas?ulia ?la fulan): throw/ put responsibility on some one
- يلقى السلاح (yulqi asselah): throw away / put off arms
- يلقى الرعب في قلبه (yulqi arr?uba fi qalbih): put /enter terror in some one's heart
- يكسر انف فلان (yakseru?nfa fulan): break the nose of someone
- يكسر الاضراب عن الطعام (yakseru alidrab ?n ?tta?m): interrupt / cut off the hunger strike
- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhlia): in-home/ inside/ local/ Indoors policy
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): outside/ out policy/ outdoors / abroad policy

- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): sacrifices / losses
- خسائر عامة (khasa?erun ?ama): causalities / sacrifices

Collocation Errors Related to Collective Nouns:

- a school of whales: مدرسة حيتان (madrasatu hittan)
- سرب من الطيور: (serbun men atuyoor): a swarm / a herd of birds
- حشد من الناس: (hashdun men annas): a group of people/ a lot of people/ a mass of people/ a school of people
- قطيع من الإبقار: (qatte?un men al abqaar): a flock / a swarm of cows

C) Collocation Errors Related to Binominals:

- alive and kicking: العيش بالركل / عايش و يرفس (?aysh wa yarfus /al?ayshu berrakel)
- bread and butter: خبز و زبدة (khubzun wa zibddah)

D) Collocation Errors Related to Compounds:

- absent-minded: عقول غائبة / عقول فارغة / عقول متحجرة / عقول تائهة / مجنون (? uqu:lun gha?eba / faregha / mutahajerra / ta?eha / majnu:n).

❖ The Third Dimension: Errors related to three fields (political, educational and daily life collocations)

A. Political Collocation Errors:

- come to defeat
- promote a ceasefire
- friendly ceasefire
- friendly condemn
- promote condemn
- carry out a compromise
- break a compromise
- do peace
- pass a decision
- The Intifada erupted: اشتعلت الانتفاضة / ثارت الانتفاضة / تفجرت الانتفاضة (tafajart al intifada/ thart al intifada / isht?lat al intifada)

- total war: حرب عامة / حرب تامة / حرب كلية / حرب كاملة / حرب بمعنى الكلمة / كامل الحرب (harbun ? ama/ tamma / kulia/ kamela/ harbun bem?na alkalema/ kamelu al harb)
- blowing up the peace process: يفجر عملية السلام / يفرقع عملية السلام (yufajeru amaliatu assalam / yfarqe? Amaliatu assalam)
- the talks broke down : توقف المحادثات/ انقطعت المحادثات / تعطل المحادثات/ كسر المحادثات : (tawqifu al muhadathat / inqat?t al muhadathat / t?tulu al muhadathat / kasru almuhadathat)
- bringing down the government: تفكيك الحكومة / تعطيل الحكومة/ تحطيم الحكومة/ فلتذهب الحكومة (tafjeequ / ta?teelu / tahteemu al hukuma/ faltazhab al hukoma)
- a displaced person: انسان مشرد/ شخص مقال / شخص مبعود (insanun musharad / shakhsun muqal / shakhsun mub?d)
- a fierce battle: معركة متأجشة / معركة شرسة (m?raka mut?ajesha / m?raka sharesa)
- open fire: يفتح النار (yaftahu annar)
- severance of relations: حدة العلاقات / علاقات حادة (hedatu al ?alaqat / ?alaqatun hada)
- السلاح الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): massive /maximal/ global destructive weapons, total destroyed weapons, arms of whole destruction, complete arms of destruction, weapons of general destruction
- سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhliia): in-home/ inside/ local/ Indoors policy
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): outside/ out policy/ outdoors / abroad policy
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafjeequ al mustawtanat): Breaking down / Bringing down settlements / disconnecting settlements
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): dislinking settlement
- سلام دائم (salamn da?em): peace for ever/ life long peace/ constant peace
- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): losses / sacrifices
- يلقي السلاح (yulqi asselah): throw away / put off the arm
- يلقي المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi almas?ulia ?la fulan): throw responsibility on some one
- اراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?rra?u alshare? Al felestini): opinions of Palestinians street
- المنظمة العالمية (Al munazama al?lamia): international organization
- يكسر الاضراب عن الطعام (yakseru al-?idrab ?n ?tta?m): cut off / interrupt the hunger strike

B. Educational Collocations:

- severely experience
- strike experience
- take an answer
- provide us feedback
- carry out degree
- fulfill degree
- severely discussion
- affect on the topic
- adapts on the topic
- go good
- assist lectures
- listen lectures
- absent-minded: عقول غائبة / عقول فارغة (?uqu:lun ghaeba, faregha)

C. Daily Life Collocations:

- keep a meeting
- people flow
- tears flow
- make a damage
- interest flare up
- love flare up
- fast / quick increase
- catch break
- under the poverty line
- carry out a balance
- bread and butter: خبز و زبدة / الرفاهية و الرغد
(khubzun wa zibddah / arafahia wa arraghad)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن شديد / مدخن شره / مدخن محترف / مدخن مزمن
(mudakhenun shadeed, shareh, muhtaref, muzmen)
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a lot of people/ a mass of people/ a school of people

- حالة خاصة (halah khasa): particular situation / exclusive state / a private case
- سرب من الطيور (serbun men atuyoor): a swarm / a herd of birds
- قطيع من الابقار (qatte?un men al abqaar): a flock / a swarm of cows
- خسائر عامة (khasa?erun ?ama): casualties / sacrifices
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone
- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqeel): heavy tea / dark tea
- يلقي الرعب في قلبه (yulqi arr?uba fi qalbih): enter / put terror in some one's heart

Journalism Majors:

❖ **The First Dimension: Errors of collocations based on the knowledge of native language (NL) and foreign language (FL):**

1- Miscellaneous:

B) False Literary Style:

- the talks broke down: كسر الحواجز في الحديث (kasru al-hawajez fi al-hadeeth)
- alive and kicking: اضراب و القى / عيش وارمي وراء ظهرهك / الحياة غدارة / مقالبا الحياة: (?ddrub wa ?ilqa / ?i:sh wa ?irmi wra? zahrik / al-haia ghaddara / maqalbu al-haia)
- blowing up the peace process: اغراق عملية السلام (ighraq amalit assalm):
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone

B) Words Coinage:

- absent-minded: عقل خفي (?qulun khafi)
- carry out attacks: هجوم مستقطع (huju:m musta?t?)
- blowing up the peace process: تدرج عملية السلام (tadahruju ?maliti assalm)
- المنظمة العالمية (al-munazama al-alamia): all organization

C) Irrelevant Collocations:

- blowing up the peace process: إعادة إحياء عملية السلام/تطور/ خرق / استمرارية عملية السلام (i?adet ?ihia? amalit assalm/ jatawru / kharq / ?istmrarit ?maliti assalm)
- a school of whales: مدرسة المشاغبين / مدرسة كبيرة (madrastu al-mushagheen / madrasatun kabi:ra)

- bringing down the government: مساندة الحكومة / تشكيل الحكومة/ ينشأ حكومة (musanadatu al-hukuma / tashkeelu al-hukuma / unshe?u al- hukuma)
- open fire: حرب باردة / حرب جماعية (harbun jamma?ia / harbun bareda)
- carry out attacks: (hemaia mena al-huju:m/ attasadi lilhuju:m) حماية من الهجوم/ التصدي للهجوم
- the talks broke down: كلام محبط (kalamun muhbit)
- total war: حرب دائمة / (harbun da?ema)
- the intifada erupted: اخماد الانتفاضة (?ikhmad al-intifada)

D) Omission:

- آراء الشارع الفلسطيني (?ra? ashare? Al felstinin) : *Palestinians' opinions*
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): *the plan of settlements*

2- Improper Synonyms:

- *take an answer*
- *have an action*
- *pass a decision*

• the intifada erupted:

انطلاقة الانتفاضة / ثورة الانتفاضة/ نشوب الانتفاضة / قامت الانتفاضة/ شبت الانتفاضة

(intelaqitu al-intifada / thawratu al-intifad/ nushu:b al-intifada / qamat al-intifad/ shabat al-intifada)

- bringing down government: انحلل / تعطيل / تفكيك الحكومة: (inhelal / ta?ti:lu / tafqeeq / al- hukuma)
- severance of relations: علاقات مبتورة (?lakat mabtu:ra)
- blowing up the peace process: يفتك بعملية السلام/ يدمر عملية السلام / انتهاء العملية السلمية / محاربة السلام / تخريب خطة السلام/هدم عملية السلام (yaftequ be?malit assalm/ yudameru ?malit assalm/ inteha? al-amalia asselmia /muharabit assalm/ takhri:b khutet assalm / hadem ?malit assalm)
- the talks broke down: احتدم الكلام / فشلت المناقشات (?ihtadam al-kalam / fashelat al-munakashat)
- a heavy smoker: مدخن شديد (mudakhen shadi:d)
- a displaced person: شخص منبوذ (shakhsun manbu:z)
- absent-minded: غائب التركيز/عقول تافهة/عقل فاضي /جاهل / فاقد عقله/ غياب العقل
- (gha?eb ?ttarki:z/ ?qu:lun tafeha/ ?aqulun fadi / jahel / faqedun ?qlah / ghiab ?l?qel)
- سلام دائم (salamun da?em): *eternal peace /continuous peace*
- حشد من الناس (hashdun mena annas): *a swarm of people*

- المنظمة العالمية (al-munazama al-alamia): a universal organization
- اسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): a comprehensive destroyed weapons
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): an exterior policy

3- Literal Translation:

- heavy smoker: مدخن ثقيل (mudakhenun thaqi:l)
- a fierce battle: معركة متوحشة: (ma?rakatun mutawahisha)
- absent-minded: عقل غير موجود/ عقول غائبة (?qel ghir mawju:d / ?u:qu:lung ha?eba)
- the talks broke down: تحدث بانكسار / خرق المحادثات: (tahadtha be?inkesar/kharqu al-muhadathat)
- a school of whales: مدرسة الحيتان (mdrasatu al-hittan)
- alive and kicking: عايش و يرفس (?aish wa yarfus)
- شاي ثقيل (shai thaqi:l): heavy tea
- خطة فك الارتباط (khtet faqu al-?irtebat): the plan of breaking down the relations

Also, the many respondents chose the word *final* to collocate with *news* as a literal translation of آخر الانباء (?kher al-?nba?) in Arabic.

3- False analogy:

- absent-minded: عقول خاملة / عقول ضائعة: (?uqulu:n khamela/ da?e?a)
[interpreting *absent* as *lost* / *lazy* and translating it into *خاملة/ ضائعة*]
- total war: تصفيات الحرب / الحرب النهائية: (tasfiat al-harb/ al-harbu anneha?ia)
[interpreting *total* as *final results of something* then translating it into *تصفيات* / *النهائية*]
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqi:ku al-mustawtanat): settlement leaving
[interpreting *ترك* (tarku al-mustawtant) and translating *ترك* into *leaving*]
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqi:ku al-mustawtanat): distributing / dividing the settlements
[interpreting *تقسيم/توزيع* (taqseemu/tawzi:? al-mustawtant) and translating *تقسيم/توزيع* into *distributing / dividing the settlements*]

- اسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): whole destroyed weapons [interpreting الشامل as كلها (kuliha) and translating it into whole]

4- Ignorance of Rules:

- a heated condemn [using an adjective with a verb]
- strike condemn [using a verb with another verb]
- severely criticism [using an adverb with a noun]
- provide us some feedback on our essays [using the verb *provide* without the preposition *with*]

5- Approximation:

- a school of whales: جماعة من الحيتان/ مجموعة من الحيتان/عالم الحيتان (majmu:?a men al-hittan / jamma?a men al-hittan / ?alam al-hittan)
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a group of people

6- Paraphrasing:

- a heavy smoker: مدخن كثير التدخين (mudakhen kathi:r attadkhi:n)
- a displaced person: شخص في مكان ما/ الرجل ليس في محله (shakhsun fi makanin ma / arrajulu laisa fi mahleh)
- خطة فك الارتباط (khutatu faqi al?rtibat): a plan for separating the connection
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a huge number of people

❖ The Second Dimension: Errors related to collocation categories of range, collective nouns, compounds and binominals

A) Collocation Errors Related to Range:

- *keep* a meeting
- *have* an action
- *break* thirst
- *go* good
- *severely* fire
- *strike* a response
- In the third question of the first part in the test, there is a full scale of errors regarding choosing the odd collocation out of range. The following correct collocations are crossed out as odd ones by many participants of journalism majors:
 - pay respect
 - pay a compliment

- pay a visit
 - pay attention
 - go mad
 - go astray
 - go far
 - go wrong
 - go ahead
 - pass the time
 - pass a law
 - pass judgment
 - make success
 - make progress
 - make a mistake
 - make a trouble
 - do homework
 - do favor
 - do an exam
 - take place
 - take a bath
 - take photos
 - catch cold
 - catch fire
 - catch a glimpse
 - catch a thief
 - keep control
 - keep a promise
 - keep secret
 - have an accident
 - have a haircut
 - have a broken leg
 - break the peace
 - break news
 - break one's heart
 - break a promise
 - break a habit
- open fire : حرب مفتوحة / يشعل النار (harbun maftu:ha / yush?elu annar)
 - سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): outside/ internal /outdoors policy
 - سياسة داخلية (siasa dakhlia): inside/external / Indoors policy
 - خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): losses
 - خسائر عامة (khasa?erun ?ama): causalities
 - يلقى المسؤولية على فلان (yulqi al-mas?ulia ?la fulan): throw/ put responsibility on some one
 - يلقى السلاح (yulqi asselah): throw away / put off arms

- يلقى الرعب في قلبه (yulqi arr?uba fi qalbih): put /enter terror in some one's heart
- يكسر انف فلان (yakseru?nfa fulan): break the nose of someone / burst the nose of someone
- يكسر الاضراب عن الطعام (yakseru alidrab ?n ?tta?m): interrupt / cut off the hunger

Collocation Errors Related to Collective Nouns:

- a school of whales: مدرسة الحيتان / جماعة من الحيتان / مجموعة من الحيتان / مجموعة من الاسماك (madrasatu hittan / jamma?tun men al hittan / majmou?tun men al hittan/ majmmou?a men al ?smak)
- قطيع من الابقار (qatte?un men al abqaar): a swarm / a flock of herds
- سرب من الطيور (serbun men atuyoor): a swarm / a herd of birds

Collocation Errors Related to Binominals:

- alive and kicking : حي يركل / عايش و يرفس (haiun yarkul / ?aysh wa yarfus).
- bread and butter: خبز و زبدة / خبز و مربى (khubzun wa muraba / khubzun wa zibddah)

D) Collocation Errors Related to Compounds:

- absent-minded: غائب التركيز/عقول تافهة/عقل فاضي / جاهل / فاقد عقله / عقول غائبة: (gha?eb ?ttarki:z/ ?qu:lun tafeha/ ?aqulun fadi / jahel / faqedun ?qlah / ghiab ?l?qel/ ?u:qu:lun gha?eba)

❖ The Third Dimension: Errors related to three fields (political, educational and daily life collocations)

A. Political Collocation Errors:

- last/ final news
- a heated condemn
- strike condemn
- severely condemn
- a crushing ceasefire
- break news
- break a ceasefire
- come to a compromise
- a crushing fire

- a heated defeat
- blowing up the peace process: / يفتك بعملية السلام/ يدمر عملية السلام / انتهاء العملية السلمية / محاربة السلام / تخريب خطة السلام/هدم عملية السلام (yaftequ be?malit assalm/ yudameru ?malit assalm/ inte? al-amalia asselmia / muharabit assalm/ takhri:b khutet assalm / hadem ?malit assalm)
- severance of relations: علاقات مبتورة (?lakat mabtu:ra)
- bringing down government: الحكومة: تفكيك / تعطيل / انحلال (inhelal / ta?ti:lu / tafqeek / al- hukuma)
- the intifada erupted: قامت الانتفاضة/ شبت الانتفاضة / ثورة الانتفاضة/ نشوب الانتفاضة: (qamat al-intifad/ shabat al-intifada/ thawratu al-intifad/ nushu:b al-intifada)
- a displaced person: شخص منبوذ (shakhsun manbu:z)
- talks broke down : انحدم الكلام / انكسرت المحادثات/ فشلت المناقشات (?ihtadam al-kalam / inkasarat ?lmuhadathat / fashelat al-munakashat)
- a fierce battle: معركة متوحشة: (ma?rakatun mutawahisha)
- تفكيك المستوطنات (tafqi:ku al-mustawtanat): distributing / dividing the settlements / settlement leaving
- اسلحة الدمار الشامل (?slehatu addamari ashamel): whole destroyed weapons / a comprehensive destroyed weapons
- خطة فك الارتباط (khtet faqu al-?irtebat): the plan of breaking down the relations
- سياسة خارجية (siasa kharjiaa): an exterior policy
- سلام دائم (salamun da?em): eternal peace /continuous peace
- خسائر بشرية (khasa?erun basharaia): losses

B. Educational Collocation Errors:

- assist lectures
- listen lectures
- strike a study
- strike criticism
- break criticism
- break discussion
- come to experience
- carry out a response
- make us feedback
- affects on the topic

- fulfill degree
- carry out degree
- take an answer
- absent-minded: عقول خاملة / عقول ضائعة / عقول غائبة / عقل غير موجود / عقل خفي: (?uqulu:n khamela/ ?uqulu:n da?e?a/ ?uqulu:n gha?eba/ ?qel ghir mawju:d/ ?qulun khafi)

Daily Life Collocation Errors:

- break thirst
- keep a meeting
- catch break
- pay an offer
- under / underneath the poverty line
- people flow
- tears flow
- make a damage
- interest flare up
- love flare up
- quick / fast increase
- a heavy smoker: مدخن كثير التدخين / مدخن ثقيل (mudakhen kathi:r attadkhi:n/ mudakhenun thaqi:l)
- Alive and kicking: حي يركل / عايش و يرفس / اضرب و القى / عيش و ارمي وراء ظهرك / الحياة غدارة / مقابل الحياة (?aysh wa yarfus/ haiun yarkul /?ddrub wa ?ilqa / ?i:sh wa ?irmi wra? zahrik / al- haia ghaddara / maqalbu al-haia)
- bread and butter: this item is translated into خبز و مربي / خبز و زبدة
- a school of whales: many subjects provided جماعة من الحيتان / مجموعة من الحيتان
- قطيع من الابقار: (qatte?un men al abqaar): a swarm / a flock of herds
- سرب من الطيور (serbun men atuyoor) a swarm / a herd of birds
- يكسر انف فلان (yaksiru ?nfa fulan): burst the nose of someone
- حشد من الناس (hashdun men annas): a group of people / a swarm of people / a huge number of people

Appendix (G)

Recommended References for Collocation Directory

- El-Shahed, S. and Abu-Seida, A. (1988). *A Groundwork of Translation*. Cairo: Al Azhar University.
- Farghal, M and Shunnaq, A. (1999). *Translation with Reference to English and Arabic: A practical Guide*. Irbid: Dar Al-Hilal for Translation.
- Hatim, B (1997). *English-Arabic/Arabic-English Translation: A Practical Guide*. London: British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication.
- Mascull, B. (1995). *Key Words in the Media: Helping Learners with Real English*. London: Harper Collins Publishers Ltd.
- McCarthy, M and O'Dell, F (1994) *English Vocabulary in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M and O'Dell, F (2005) *English Collocations in Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford Collocations: a Dictionary for Students of English* (2002). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- <http://forums.zoomshare.com/viewtopic.php?pid=2816>
- <http://oceansiderevolution.com/verbage/intro.htm>
- حافظ، الطاهر (2004). معجم الحافظ للمتصاحبات العربية: أول معجم من نوعه في اللغة العربية. بيروت: مكتبة لبنان ناشرون.

Appendix (H)

Recommended Websites for Collocation Tasks

<http://www.angelfire.com/wi3/englishcorner/vocabulary/vocabulary.html#colls>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv327.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv318.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv155.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv348.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv351.shtml>
www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv339.shtml
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/quizzes/quiznet/quiz122.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv275.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv217.shtml>
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/grammar/learnit/learnitv58.shtml>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/collocations.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll2.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll3.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll4.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll5.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll6.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll7.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll8.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll9.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll10.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll11.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll12.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll13.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll14.htm>
<http://www.better-english.com/strongcollocation/coll15.htm>
<http://www.edict.com.hk/vlc/collocation/wordpartners1.htm>
<http://www.edict.com.hk/vlc/collocation/wordpartners2.htm>
<http://www.edict.com.hk/vlc/collocation/wordpartners3.htm>
<http://www.edict.com.hk/vlc/collocation/prepositions.htm>

<http://www.edumatic.qc.ca/English/activities/vocabularypower.htm#colloc>
http://www.eisu2.bham.ac.uk/johnstf/k_r071.htm
<http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/collocations-quiz.htm>
<http://www.english-zone.com/idioms/r-idioms.html>
<http://www.english-zone.com/idioms/o-idioms.html>
http://esl.about.com/library/vocabulary/blcollocation_1.htm
http://esl.about.com/library/vocabulary/blcollocation_2.htm
http://esl.about.com/library/vocabulary/blcollocation_3.htm
http://esl.about.com/library/vocabulary/blcollocation_4.htm
http://esl.about.com/library/vocabulary/blcollocation_5.htm
<http://www.eslflow.com/collocationsandphrasalvebs.html>
<http://www.esl-galaxy.com/collocation.html>
http://www.fi.muni.cz/~thomas/collocation/interactive_activities.htm
<http://www.flo-joe.co.uk/fce/students/strategy/p3pt1a.htm#exercise2>
<http://www.flo-joe.co.uk/fce/students/strategy/mcclze/collocbc.htm>
<http://www.geocities.com/SoHo/square/3472/lexapproach.html>
<http://oceansiderevolution.com/verbage/left.htm>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146423>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146424>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146425>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146426>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146427>
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/section.asp?catid=59433&docid=146428>
<http://www.stttelkom.ac.id/graduate/Languages/English/01Grammar/d04.htm>
<http://www.usingenglish.com/handouts/458.html>
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_idioms_in_the_English_language

Appendix (I) EFL Sites

Websites for International Newspapers and Broadcasts:

<http://members.aol.com/eslkathy/esl.htm#news>

<http://www.onlinenewspapers.com/palestin.htm>

http://www.bournemouth.gov.uk/Residents/Libraries/usefl_websites/UsefulWebsitesTEFL.asp

<http://ccc.commnet.edu/grammar>

<http://www.churchillhouse.com/english/exercises/phrasals>

<http://www.csun.edu/~hcedu013/eslplans.html>

<http://www.ego4u.com/en/team-up/partners>

<http://www.esl-eflworld.com/index.php?cat=8>

<http://www.englishstudydirect.com>

www.englishdaily626.com

<http://englishinteractive.net>

http://esl.about.com/od/esleflsites/ESL_EFL_Sites.htm

<http://www.esl-lab.com>

<http://www.esl-tutor.com/2007/10/great-esl-or-efl-sites.html>

<http://literacynet.org/cnnsf/archives.html>

<http://tech.worlded.org/docs/cesol/links.htm>

<http://uk.groups.yahoo.com/group/wordsurfing/>

<http://www.wordsurfing.co.uk>

Practicing the Language with Native Speakers: <http://www.sharedtalk.com/>

Appendix (J)

The List of Juries

Hassan Abu Jarrad	Ph.D. in English	El Azhar University
Waleed Amer	Ph.D. in Linguistics	The Islamic University
Khader Khader	Ph.D. in Linguistics	The Islamic University
Akram Habeeb	Ph.D. in Literature	The Islamic University
Kamal Murtaja	Ph.D. in English	The Islamic University
Awad Keshta	Ph.D. in English	The Islamic University
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إشراف: أ.د. عزو إسماعيل عفانه و د. نظمي عبد السلام المصري
الجامعة الإسلامية - غزة
عمادة الدراسات العليا
كلية التربية
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ملخص الدراسة

أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية التي يقع فيها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية والصحافة في الجامعة الإسلامية بغزة

هدفت الدراسة الحالية إلى تحديد، تصنيف، وتحليل أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية التي يقع فيها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية والصحافة في الجامعة الإسلامية بغزة. و بإتباع المنهج الوصفي التحليلي، فقد عمدت الدراسة إلى تحليل أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية كميًا و نوعيًا من منطلق ثلاثة محاور:

- خلفية الطلبة المعرفية للمتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الأم (العربية) و اللغة الأجنبية (اللغة الإنجليزية)
- نموذج مطور و شامل لتصنيفات المتلازمات اللفظية
- المتلازمات اللفظية المستخدمة في ثلاثة مجالات للمعرفة (السياسة-التعليم-الحياة اليومية)

واستنادًا إلى أن عدد مجتمع الدراسة قليل، فقد كانت عينة الدراسة مسحية مكونة من (245): (202) طالب و طالبة من متخصصي اللغة الإنجليزية في التربية و الآداب، و (43) طالب و طالبة من متخصصي الصحافة، مسجلين في المستوى الرابع في الجامعة الإسلامية بغزة في فلسطين. و من أجل تحقيق أهداف الدراسة فقد قامت الباحثة بدراسة استطلاعية لتحديد المتلازمات اللفظية الأكثر شيوعًا في الاستخدام في المجتمع الفلسطيني وذلك عن طريق تصميم قائمة من المتلازمات اللفظية يتم في ضوءها بناء اختبار تشخيصي للوقوف على أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية. و قد تم تجميع مفردات القائمة من مصادر متعددة للغة الإنجليزية و اللغة العربية ذات مصداقية. و تنقسم هذه القائمة إلى قسمين رئيسيين: الأول يتضمن استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الإنجليزية. أما القسم الثاني فإنه يتضمن ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية والعكس. و تم توزيع هذه القائمة على (10) مدرسين للغة الإنجليزية في الجامعة الإسلامية، جامعة الأزهر و جامعة الأقصى للقيام بعملية الاختيار. و قد تم بناء مفردات الاختبار التشخيصي في ضوء اختيار المحكمين للمتلازمات اللفظية شائعة الاستخدام. و ينقسم الاختبار إلى قسمين رئيسيين: القسم الأول يتعلق باستخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الإنجليزية، ويتألف من ثلاثة أسئلة: المطابقه، الاختيار من متعدد، و حذف المتلازم اللفظي المخالف. والقسم الثاني يتعلق بترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية. ويتألف هذا القسم من ثلاثة أسئلة: ترجمة المتلازمات من اللغة الإنجليزية إلى اللغة العربية، ترجمة المتلازمات من اللغة العربية إلى الإنجليزية، و الاختيار من متعدد لأنسب ترجمة للمتلازمات اللفظية المعطاة. و يعتبر كلا قسمي الاختبار مؤشرين متممين للدلالة على كفاءة الطلبة اللغوية في استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية. فمن خلال هذا الاختبار تم تحديد أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية من منطلق المحاور الثلاثة المذكورة سابقًا، تصنيفها، ضرب أمثلة عليها و

الوقوف على أهم الأسباب الكامنة وراء وقوعها. وقد استخدمت الباحثة الأساليب الإحصائية التالية في تحليل بيانات الدراسة: التكرارات، النسب المئوية، طريقة كودر ريتشاردسون 20، معامل ارتباط بيرسون، معامل ارتباط سبيرمان- براون، اختبار T للعينات المستقلة، اختبار كروسكال ويلس.

و قد أظهرت الدراسة النتائج التالية:

- وقوع طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية والصحافة في أنواع مختلفة من أخطاء التلازم اللفظي مما يشير إلى تدني وقصور كفاءة الطلبة اللغوية في استخدام المتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الإنجليزية و ترجمتها من و إلى اللغة العربية. و يعزى مثل هذا الأداء اللغوي الضعيف لأسباب مختلفة تتعلق بالطلبة، بالنظام التعليمي و بالمادة التعليمية.
- لجوء طلبة كلا التخصصين إلى اللغة العربية الأم و رصيد اللغة الإنجليزية الذي تم تعلمه كوسيلتين في استخدام و ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية مما أدى إلى الوقوع في أخطاء لغوية مختلفة في المحور الأول لأنواع أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية.
- وجود قصور واضح لدى طلبة كلا التخصصين في التعامل مع الكلمة النواة المتلازمة مع العناصر اللغوية المختلفة وفقا للسياقات المتنوعة في ضوء المحور الثاني لأنواع أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية.
- كشفت اخطاء طلبة كلا التخصصين في المحور الثالث للدراسة ضعف تهيئة الفرص و المواقف العملية والخبرات الحية المباشرة أمام الطلبة لاكتساب المتلازمات اللفظية في اللغة الإنجليزية.
- يواجه طلبة كلا التخصصين صعوبات جمة في ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية بشكل اكبر من استخدام تلك المتلازمات في اللغة الإنجليزية فقط.
- انخفاض مستوى أداء طلبة الصحافة في استخدام و ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية مقارنة بمستوى أداء طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية.
- انخفاض مستوى أداء الطلبة الذكور في استخدام و ترجمة المتلازمات اللفظية مقارنة بمستوى أداء الطلبة الاناث.
- كلما ارتفع مستوى التحصيل الدراسي، كلما قلت أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية والعكس بالعكس

واستنادا إلى النتائج التي توصلت إليها الدراسة الحالية، تم تقديم إطارا تربويا مقترحا كتوصيات لمدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية جنبا إلى جنب مع طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية و الصحافة، و كذلك لمصممي المواد التعليمية، و لقسمي اللغة الإنجليزية و الصحافة، وأخيرا تم تقديم توصيات لإجراء المزيد من البحوث. من الجدير ذكره أن هذا الإطار المقترح يجمع بين أفكار تعليمية عملية و بين تقنيات متنوعة و مناسبة لتدريس التلازم اللفظي. من خلال هذا الإطار، يمكن للمعنيين معالجة مسألة أخطاء التلازم اللفظي التي يقع فيها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية والصحافة وتشجيع تبني و بناء هذه الظاهرة اللغوية الهامة.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



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Deanery Of Admission & Registration

عمادة القبول والتسجيل

الرقم.....56.....Ref.

التاريخ.....2007/07/15.....Date

لن يهمه الأمر

بناءً على طلب عمادة الدراسات العليا بتسهيل مهمة الطالبة/ آية خالد المشهوراوي برقم جامعي 2004/2739 المسجلة في برنامج الماجستير بكلية التربية تخصص المناهج وطرق تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية فإنه تم تزويد الطالبة بالمعلومات المطلوبة المتعلقة بمجتمع الدراسة المعنونة بـ:

“Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza”

الطلاب	الطالبات	التخصص
15	40	آداب لغة انجليزية /مستوى رابع
36	199	تربية لغة انجليزية/ مستوى رابع
36	35	آداب صحافة وإعلام/ مستوى رابع

وقد أعطيت لها هذه الإفادة بناء على طلبها دون مسئولية الجامعة فيما يتعلق بحقوق الغير.

عميد القبول والتسجيل

أحمد المبحوح



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هاتف داخلي: 1150

عمادة الدراسات العليا

الرقم ج.م.غ 135

Date 2007/06/27 التاريخ

حفظه الله،

الأخ الدكتور/ عميد القبول والتسجيل

الجامعة الإسلامية - غزة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،

الموضوع / تسهيل مهمة طالبة ماجستير

تهنئكم عمادة الدراسات العليا أعطر تحياتها، وترجو من سيادتكم التكرم بتسهيل مهمة الطالبة/ آية خالد عازمان المشهوراوي برقم جامعي 2004/2739 المسجلة في برنامج الماجستير بكلية التربية تخصص المناهج وطرق التدريس/ اللغة الإنجليزية، وذلك بهدف الحصول على المعلومات التي تساعدنا في إعداد رسالتها والمعتونة بـ:

" Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza "

والله ولي التوفيق،،،

عميد الدراسات العليا

د. مازن إسماعيل هنية



صورة إلى:-
العميد

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



الجامعة الإسلامية - غزة
The Islamic University - Gaza

هاتف داخلي: 2400

مكتب عميد كلية التربية

ج س ع/63/606

Ref. 15 ربيع آخر 1428 هـ

Date 02 مايو 2007 م

الأخ الدكتور/ عميد الدراسات العليا حفظه الله،

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته،،

الموضوع: تسهيل مهمة الطالبة/ آية المشهور اوي

يرجى التكرم بالعلم أن الطالبة/ آية خالد المشهور اوي برقم جامعي
2004/2739، مسجلة ضمن طلبة الماجستير في كلية التربية - قسم مناهج وطرق
تدريس - تخصص لغة إنجليزية، وبحثها بعنوان:

**"Collocation Errors Made by English and Journalism
Majors at the Islamic University of Gaza"**

أرجو التكرم بمخاطبة من يلزم لتسهيل مهمة الطالبة المذكورة أعلاه، للحصول على
إحصائية من القبول والتسجيل بالجامعة الإسلامية.

والله ولي التوفيق،،

عميد كلية التربية

أ.د. محمود أبو نوار

- صورة للملحق.

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ



الجامعة الإسلامية - غزة
عمادة الدراسات العليا
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أخطاء المتلازمات اللفظية التي يقع فيها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية والصحافة في الجامعة الإسلامية بغزة

إعداد الطالبة

آية خالد عليان المشهراوي

إشراف

د. نظمي عبد السلام المصري

أ.د. عزو اسماعيل عفانة

رسالة مقدمة لكلية التربية بالجامعة الإسلامية-غزة استكمالاً لمتطلبات الحصول على
درجة الماجستير

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