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ABSTRACT

One important but undervalued aspect of productive vocabulary is collocation--the ways in which words are combined with one another. To move from receptive to productive vocabulary, students need to learn a wide variety of ways that words collocate with each other. This paper describes the major types of collocations, typical collocational errors made by English-as-a- Second-Language (ESL) students in their learning process, and the teaching applications. Major topics covered include the following: vocabulary instruction and collocation; what is collocation; the arbitrary nature of collocation; pervasiveness of collocations; differences over collocation among linguists; a practical approach for classroom use; ESL students' errors that are related to collocation; how to teach collocations. The four attached appendices include a two week-long lessons of collocations, a 4-week vocabulary list, and a scoring sheet. (Contains 27 references.) (KFT)

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Teaching Collocations for Productive Vocabulary Development

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I. Vocabulary instruction and collocation

In recent years, vocabulary instruction has drawn increased attention in ESL teaching and research (Coady & Huckin, 1997; Zimmerman, 1997). Studies have shown the critical importance of teaching vocabulary in developing ESL students' academic writing skills (Leki & Carson, 1994; Meara, 1984), and some have indicated a greater need for vocabulary instruction than for grammar instruction (Laufer, 1986; Meara, 1984).

In dealing with issues of vocabulary instruction, a distinction is sometimes made between receptive and productive vocabulary skills (Zimmerman, 1998). Receptive knowledge enables students to comprehend word meanings appropriately. However, to attain productive skills, i.e., the ability to use words fluently and with accuracy, ESL students have to acquire a multitude of features in addition to knowing word meanings.

One important, but undervalued, aspect of productive vocabulary is collocation, i.e., the ways in which words are combined with each other. To move from receptive to productive vocabulary, students need to learn a wide variety of ways that words collocate with each other. This presentation will describe major types of collocations, typical collocational errors made by ESL students in their learning process, and the teaching applications.

II. What is collocation?

Collocation refers to how words typically occur together. For example, in English, promise goes with make, keep, or break,as in *If I make a promise, I'll keep it*, but not with do or take. Also, we may say *The president called, addressed,* or *convened the meeting,* but not **The president performed the meeting*, since perform is not used with meeting.

Church, Gale, Hanks, and Hindle (1991) looked at collocations of *strong,* and *powerful* in a corpus of press reports. Although they are similar in meaning, these two words show interesting differences in their collocational patterns.

STRONG	***POWERFUL***
northerly	tool
showings	minority
believer	neighbor
currents	symbol
supporter	figure
odor	weapon
coffee	post

(Adapted from Collocations, 1999)

III. The arbitrary nature of collocation

Collocation is often regarded as arbitrary. Smadja (1989) says, "Many wording choices in English sentences cannot be accounted for on semantic or syntactic grounds; they can only be

expressed in terms of relations between words that usually occur together" (p.163). For example, one may say, "John is an eligible bachelor," but not "John is an available bachelor." There is no logical explanation as to why bachelor occurs with eligible but not available (Collocations, 1999). According to Benson, Benson, and Ilson:

> Collocations are arbitrary and non-predictable. Non-native speakers cannot cope with them; they must have a guide. They have no way of knowing that one says in English *make an estimate*, (but not **make an estimation*), *commit treason* (but not **commit treachery*). In English one says *commit fraud* and *perpetrate fraud*. However, only the collocation *commit suicide* is possible; one does not say **perpetrate suicide*. One says *bake a cake*, but *make pancakes* (p. 258).

Raising students' awareness of collocations will motivate them to find their guide from readings, dictionaries, and communication with native speakers. All these will help their language production and development. They will learn to use appropriate word patterns rather than simply put individual words together according to English syntactic rules. When it comes to writing, where greater accuracy is required and more opportunities for self-monitoring are possible, a knowledge of appropriate word combinations will prove to be especially useful.

IV. Pervasiveness of collocations

Many linguists agree on the pervasiveness of collocation. Tannen (1989), for example, observes, "Language is less freely generated, more pre-patterned than most current linguistic theory acknowledges ." She goes on to say that collocation "is a vastly more pervasive phenomenon than we ever imagined, and vastly harder to separate from the pure freedom of syntax" (pp.37-38).

Nattinger (1980) also suggests that patterns in speech (used here synonymously with collocations)are more prevalent than many linguists perceived, and that too sharp a distinction is often made between patterned speech and more creative speech:

> It is more likely that what constitutes a pattern and what does not is relative, a matter of degree instead of kind, for one usually finds a continuum in the amount of variation involved from more invariable and frozen forms (such as idioms and cliches) to less invariable (non-canonical) forms. (p. 338)

He concludes by saying that this relative view of patterns allows the traditional notion of lexicon to be expanded.

V. Differences over collocation among linguists

Although collocation is a very common language phenomenon, linguists and researchers traditionally differ as to what collocation really is. For example, some regard idioms* and free combinations as collocations, and some don't (Lai, 1995), since the former are so tightly knit that they have virtually become single lexical items, while the latter exhibit a great deal of variability (Benson et al. 1986, pp.252-253). Many who hold the view of collocations as a continuum

* Benson et al. use the following examples for idioms: to have an axe to grind, to jump on the bandwagon, etc., and their examples of free combinations are to condemn, cry out against, decry, etc. a murder."

believe that idioms and free combinations are at the opposite ends of the collocation spectrum (see Alverson, 1994, p.45; Bolinger as cited in Alverson, 1994, p.46; Lai, 1995; Nattinger, 1980).

In addition to differences in what are perceived to be collocations, there is often overlap, sometimes confusion, in the terminology used. The following is a summary of some frequently used terms (adapted from Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Fillmore, 1976; 1982; Kennedy, 1990; cf. Bolinger, 1976; Nattinger, 1980; Tannen,1989):

free combinations: *commit, analyze, boast of, condemn, discuss, (*etc.*) a murder*

prefabricated routines: *how are you*

polywords: *put up with, for good, kick the bucket*

phrasal constraints: *by pure coincidence, down with the king,* etc.

sentence builders: *that's a* ___

formulaic speech: *as a matter of fact*

idioms: *kick the bucket, step on the gas, raining cats and dogs*, etc.

cliches: *as a matter of fact*

lexicalized sentence stems: *as a matter of fact*

non-canonical forms: *on with the show*

deictic locutions: *as a matter of fact*

situational utterances: *I'm glad to meet you*

verbatim texts: *better later than never, oozing charm from every pore, a watched pot never boils,* etc.

fixed phrases: *in brief, at the present time*

set phrases: *in brief, at the present time*

The term patterned speech is sometimes used to refer to the myriad of terms that have been employed for collocation.

VI. A practical approach for classroom use

Despite the difficulty in characterizing the exact nature of collocation, it is possible to construct a model that is not only sound theoretically, but also useful pedagogically. The approach of Benson et al. (1986) represents such a model. They define collocation as follows:

> In any language, certain words regularly combine with certain other words or grammatical constructions. These recurrent, semi-fixed combinations, or *collocations*, can be divided into two groups: *grammatical collocations* and *lexical collocations*. Grammatical collocations consist of a dominant word--noun, adjective/participle, verb--and a preposition or a grammatical construction.[1] Lexical collocations, on the other hand, do not have a dominant word; they have structures such as the following: verb + noun, adjective + noun, noun + verb, noun + noun, adverb + adjective, adverb + verb.[2] (p.ix)

This approach systematically incorporates syntax into a predominantly semantic and lexical construct, thus encompassing a wider range of data. The broader scope is consistent with the pervasive nature of collocation, and the inclusion of syntax makes the model more amenable to teaching.

For the purpose of teaching as well as for theoretical coherence, it is desirable to expand the framework to include idioms and free combinations, since one may find patterns of the same nature, albeit in varying degrees, in either frozen or more creative speech.

In the view of Benson et al., the word <u>murder</u> "combines **freely** (bold added) with hundreds of verbs." For example, it goes with all of the following: <u>abhor</u>, <u>accept</u>, <u>acclaim</u>, <u>advocate</u>, etc. A combination like *commit murder*, on the other hand, is a collocation.

While the free combinations cited above do seem to occur without restriction, a closer look can reveal a certain combining force in some cases. In the "free combination" <u>*accept murder*</u>, for example, the word <u>*accept*</u> cannot simply be replaced by any other synonym such as <u>*take*</u>, which would not be an inappropriate substitute in the case of <u>*accept credit cards*</u>. For an ESL student, such seemingly random combinations often lead to confusion.

In the adapted approach, free combinations may be categorized as either grammatical or lexical, depending on the characteristics they exhibit.

Idioms are considered an integral part of collocation, since they represent the most fixed type on the collocation continuum. However, they may vary in ways that are not unlike lexical collocations: *for good*, an example of extreme fixity, cannot be changed in any way; on the other hand, *by contrast* has the variant *in contrast*, and *as a consequence* can be changed to *in consequence*. Also, while *kick the bucket* cannot be passivized, *turn someone off* can be used both actively or passively. These varying degrees of tightness lend support to the continuum view.

---

1. Grammatical collocations are further divided into 8 categories (some with subcategories) according to different types of grammatical constructions.

2. The following are some of the lexical collocation types (seven in all): verb + noun: <u>inflict a wound</u>, <u>withdraw an offer</u>; adjective + noun: <u>a crushing defeat</u>; noun + verb: <u>blizzards rage</u>; noun + noun: <u>a pride of lions</u>; adverb + adjective: <u>deeply absorbed</u>, verb + adverb: <u>appreciate sincerely</u>.

Thus, we can expand the definition as follows: Collocations are recurrent ways in which words occur together. There are three categories: grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, and idiomatic expressions.

(1) Lexical collocations

Lexical collocations are recurrent word combinations that involve mainly content words:

1. perform an operation, a task, one's work
   (not *perform a trip or group discussion)
2. a big, or major difference (not *a high difference)
3. destroy someone's hopes, a relationship, a building, etc.(not *destroy a problem; a situation)
4. an explanation, a law, or a problem can be complicated (not *this customer is complicated)

(2) Grammatical collocations

Grammatical collocations are recurrent word combinations that involve mainly a preposition or grammatical structure. In the following examples, prepositions and grammatical structures are italicized:

A) Grammatical collocations that contain a preposition:

1. catch up <u>*on/with/to*</u> (not *under*)
2. aware *of* (not *with*)
3. have several things to choose *from*
4. *in/out of* danger

B) Grammatical collocations that involve a grammatical Structure:

5. Something caused him *to change* his mind. (cause sb to + verb infinitive)
6. Something made him *change* his mind. (make someone + bare infinitive)
7. Someone convinced him *that something was true*. (convince sb (that) + clause)
8. He was trying to avoid answer*ing* my questions (avoid + verb-ing)
9. He wants me *to go* with her. (The same as in 5.)
10. The money would help her (*to*) start her own business. (help sb + (*to*) infinitive)

Note: Patterns in grammatical collocations are not to be confused with grammatical rules. The former are word-specific, i.e., the patterns occur with certain words and not others, as in the case of any collocation. For example, in the sentence "It caused him *to change* his mind," the word *cause* must be followed by a *to*-infinitive. If <u>make</u> were used, a bare infinitive would be required.

By contrast, grammar rules apply to a whole category in which many different words can appear. In the following sentence, for example, the use of *-s* is required by a singular subject and the simple present tense, irrespective of what word happens to appear in that slot:

He makes regular visits to the hospital to see her.

Here is another pair of contrasting examples:

He never explained to me what had happened.
John left without saying good-bye.

The first sentence involves a grammatical collocation *to*, which is required by *explain* (compare: He never told me what had happened). The second sentence involves a grammar rule that after a preposition, a verb takes its *-ing* form. In this case, the use of the *-ing* form is called for by the use of a class of words (prepositions) rather than a particular preposition.

3) Idiomatic expressions

Idiomatic expressions are the most fixed word combinations where substitution of any of their components is virtually impossible.

kick the bucket, play it by ear, let one's hair down, put on airs, pull someone's leg; stick one's neck out; as a matter of fact, on the other hand, in brief, etc.

VII. ESL Students' errors that are related to collocations

The categories described in the previous section are useful for understanding ESL students' linguistic performance and help them improve it. They show that many of the errors that students make are related to different kinds of collocation. The following data were collected from about 20 two-page essays written by advanced ESL students; not all of the collocation errors are included.

A) ERRORS RELATED TO LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS:

1. He spoke a story to me.

2. She always talks the truth.

3. Before I start, I open my radio first.

4. I close the radio because if the radio is on, it will take my mind off the subject.

5. There was a high difference between the two teams

6. To have a happy marriage, you should keep the promise you did to the person you are with.

7. People's living levels have improved.

B) GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATIONS:

8. We speak English, but in my house we speak Spanish because we want that our children learn their own language.

9. This will help them knowing how to be good parents

10. My grandmother suggested me to do it again more carefully and neatly.

11. Sometimes, I go to fishing.

12. A friend of mine suggested me to go to the movies because it would help me to get used to the sounds of English words.

13. I really enjoy talk to them in my free time.

14. Once I start play with them, I forget about my tiredness.

15. The stressful life in New York City makes me wanted to go back to the quietness of my country.

16. Exactly at twelve o'clock lunch time starts. Almost everybody leaves their jobs, schools dismiss their class, workers stop to work and take the two hour break.

17. Spanking makes these children be wild and rebellious.

18. In today's society, many of the parents have difficulty to find an effective way to discipline their disobedient children.

19. Our customers enjoy to come to us.

20. In the other hand, ... I do the same things every Sunday.
(This may also be seen as an error related to an idiomatic expression)

21. He didn't want people made fun of him.

22. In contrast of these forms of discipline, a lot of people think spanking children is the best way to discipline teenagers.

23. We laughed of him.

VIII. How to teach collocations

The overwhelming number of collocations: According to some rough estimates, there are tens of thousands of collocations. 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) . Obviously, collocations are too numerous for all of them to be taught in the classroom.

While the number of collocations is considerable, we need to bear in mind that not all of the tens of thousands of collocations have to be learned. Focus needs to be placed on building students' consciousness of how words work in combination with one another, so that they can continue developing their collocational competence after they leave the ESL class.

Clear and explicit presentation need to be used to provide guidance in building students' awareness. Appendix I, (Wei, 2000) shows a page where collocations are saliently grouped under different words and an exercise where collocations are presented in a way clear to the eye. Exercises should be designed to reinforce learning. Finally, activities need to be interactive and student-centered to encourage students' initiative and maximize feedback.

Kennedy (1990)captures the presenter's feelings about teaching collocations in the following statement:

> 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 – the company words keep. (Kennedy, p. 227)

Selection of words and collocations: In deciding what to teach, it is important to consider the frequency of words, since the most frequently used collocations are most likely formed by equally frequent lexical items. In selecting words, a useful source is The Educator's Frequency Guide (WFG), the most comprehensive word frequency study that has ever been done. In teaching advanced ESL students collocations, the presenter used the frequency guide to select some words that are common but may be problematic for students. (See Appendix II for some of them: Wei, 2000).

After selecting the words, it might also be necessary to select meanings. 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 have their own distinct collocations: the former most 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*, etc. A General Service List of English Words, featuring a semantic count, is a useful source in this regard.

Learner's dictionaries are also excellent sources of commonly used collocations.

Techniques, activities, and exercises that can be used in teaching collocations: There are many useful ways of teaching collocations. The most useful ones are interactive and present challenge to students. The following are some of the activities and techniques that the presenter has found effective.

1. Peer correction Peer correction is a student-centered procedure that provides instant feedback and reinforcement. It lends itself to the learning of collocations since students assume the responsibility of marking exercises or quizzes and have multiple chances to reinforce what they have learned. (See some of the exercises in Appendix III that are designed to be scored). The scoring procedures are as follows:

1) Ask students to put their names at the top of the page(s) and start the exercise. (after a while you may walk around to encourage the students to keep pace with each other. Or you may want to set a time limit right at the beginning)

2) Collect the books (or pages) and redistribute them. It is usually preferable to give someone's paper to a student from a different cultural and language background. Also, it may be helpful to have students use a different color pen for scoring.

3) Give the answer to each item and explain it as necessary. Be sure that students know how points are to be awarded. In general, the first time may need a little more explanation, but students will soon catch on. Sometimes, it is helpful to use an overhead projector.

4) Read the names alphabetically and record the scores that students have come up with. It is helpful to use a scoring sheet to record all the scores of the semester. (For an example of a scoring sheet, see Appendix IV: Wei, 2000) If you want to preserve privacy, you may want to use secret codes instead of real names, or collect papers to check on the grades yourself later. In the author's experience, however, the announcement of grades is like getting the results of a sports game, and students are always interested to know their grades right away. If a student does not do well, then it will motivate him or her to do better next time.

5) Have students return the corrected exercises to their original owners so that they can check that the scoring is correct.

2. Sentence making (individual as well as group work)

The presenter has students use a notebook or one part of a notebook for the sentences they make. As a regular, semester-long homework assignment, they can be asked, out of the 24 total for each week, to make sentences with 8 words during the week and the remaining 16 over the weekend. In writing sentences, students are encouraged to use the RDRR approach.* In the classroom, the following activities are useful:

<u>1) Initial trial of the RDRR approach</u>

As an instructor, you may want to get students started by trying the first three steps of the RDRR approach in class. Ask students to (1) read the collocations and examples of the words you select; (2) make one sentence with each word without looking at the examples; and (3) write down their sentences on the board so that you and other students may comment on them. After this trial, you may then suggest that they use the same approach in making sentences at home.

*RDRR approach refers to the following steps: (1) **Read:** Study the collocations and examples.(2) **Don't read:** Make at least one sentence with each word without looking at the book; (3) **Reread:** Look at the book again carefully, and check each sentence against the collocations and examples to make necessary correction or revision; (4) **Reread and reuse:** Review and use the words regularly because the more they are used, the better the understanding will be of how they work. Finally, reinforcement will solidify learning.

Once or twice a week, you can ask some students to write on the board the sentences they have made at home. This activity doesn't have to be longer than a half hour.

2) Group work on sentence making

Later on in the semester, instead of having students put sentences on the board, you may start group work. This activity is helpful because students will verbalize, hear, and comment on what they have written, reinforcing their learning and training their critical thinking skills. Here are some strategies for managing group interaction:

- Divide the class into groups of three or four. A group of three with students from different ethnic backgrounds is ideal. A group with more than four members becomes a little hard to manage. Members are encouraged to sit close to each other.

- Members take turns reading one sentence at a time and are encouraged to read clearly and loudly enough for the whole group to hear. If the recitation is not clear, members may look at the written sentence.

- Lengthy comments should be avoided. In general, encourage discussion, but steer students away from arguing picky points in order to keep the rotation moving. The purpose is achieved if they verbalize, hear, and think critically about what they have written, even if not everyone is absolutely correct at this point. To keep the focus, you may guide students with these two questions: (1) Does the sentence make sense? (2) Is it correct? And then you can ask students to move on.

- The group work can be 20 to 30 minutes. You may want to walk around the groups to guide discussion, especially when students are doing it for the first time. After one or two times, they will become familiar with the routine and feel comfortable.

Students do not need to turn in their sentences, but you may want to take 5 minutes or so in class each week to look at their notebooks and perhaps answer one or two questions.

These activities are designed to raise students awareness of collocation and the principles they learn will benefit them in their on-going process of vocabulary learning.

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APPENDIX I

(From Wei, 2000)

accept, achieve, adequate, admire, advantage, advise, affect, afford, alive, allow, alone, along, analysis, annoy, anxious, apparently, appear, appointment, appropriate, arrange, arrive, ask, asleep, aspect

accept *-verb-* **(accepted, accepted)** take or receive willingly
-noun- **(acceptance)**
-adjective- **(acceptable)**

verb: 1. [accept + noun: a gift, help, a job, credit cards, money, an offer, someone's advice, an invitation, an apology, etc. (from someone)]
1) Do you accept credit cards?
2) According to our company policy, managers cannot accept gifts from employees.

2. [accept ... as]
3) Thank you for accepting me as your friend.

noun: [the acceptance of]
4) His acceptance of illegal money led to his arrest.

adj. [something is acceptable]
5) Your proposal is not acceptable because it does not include a budget.

achieve *-verb-* **(achieved, achieved)** to succeed in doing something
-noun- **(achievement)**

verb: [achieve + noun: success, happiness, one's dream, a goal, a purpose, wealth, a good name, good results, one's ambition, etc.]
1) To achieve good results in this test, you need to prepare yourself well.
2) He achieved great success in business.

noun: [something is an achievement]
3) She finished college when she was almost 80 years old. It was quite an achievement.

adequate *-adjective-* enough, sufficient

1. [be adequate (for something)]
1) Sarah's instructor said that her answer was not adequate because she didn't include enough details.
2) They didn't hire Tom because they thought that his accounting experience was not adequate for the job.

2. [adequate pay, income, salary, wages, food, housing, water supplies, experience, skills, knowledge, information, etc.]
3) Without adequate income to support his family, George had to quit school and work more hours.

Week 1, Exercise A: Collocations

Directions (You may do this exercise in groups): Cross out an item (a word or an expression) that DOES NOT go with the capitalized word. In each list, one or two items may be crossed out.

Examples:

One may DEVELOP
- one's ideas in writing
- one's reading skills
- ~~one's age~~

We may
- have a MEETING
- hold a MEETING
- cancel a MEETING
- ~~speak a MEETING~~
- address a MEETING

---

1. We may or may not have ADEQUATE
- space for parking
- experience for this job
- asleep these day
- income to support our family
- knowledge of a subject
- time to finish an essay

2. Something may AFFECT
- our health
- us
- our work
- our job performance
- our confident
- our grades
- our plans for the trip

3. We may say that someone can or cannot AFFORD
- $1,000
- to take a taxi
- to buying a house
- offend one's boss
- a computer
- to raise seven children
- to lose one's job

4. We may ALLOW
- someone to use our telephone
- pets come into the building
- smoking
- someone to talk loudly in the classroom

5. One may ACHIEVE
- one's dream
- success
- one's goal
- famous
- one's purpose
- nothing
- a high unemployment rate

APPENDIX II

(From Wei, 2000)

VOCABULARY LIST

(Page #) WEEK 1

15 accept
15 achieve
15 adequate
16 admire
16 advantage
16 advise
17 affect
17 afford
17 alive
17 allow
18 alone
18 along
18 analysis
18 annoy
19 anxious
19 apparently
19 appear
19 appointment
20 appropriate
20 arrange
20 arrive
20 ask
21 asleep
21 aspect

WEEK 2

31 assume
31 attention
31 authority
31 available
31 average
32 avoid
32 aware
32 be
33 belief
33 belong
33 benefit
33 beside
34 besides
34 break
34 brief
34 bring
35 capable
35 carry
35 catch
35 cause
36 choose
36 comfortable
36 commit
37 compare

(Page #) WEEK 3

47 compete
47 complicated
47 complain
47 concerned
48 confident
48 conflict
48 confuse
49 consider
49 consist
49 constant
49 contain
49 content
50 continue
50 control
50 convince
50 damage
51 danger
51 dead
51 decide
51 definite
51 demand
52 deserve
52 desire
52 destroy

WEEK 4

63 determine
63 discuss
64 divide
64 doubt
64 effect
64 efficient
65 eliminate
65 encourage
65 enter
65 essential
66 establish
66 eventually
66 excite
66 exhaust
67 expect
67 experience
67 explain
68 express
68 extend
68 failure
69 false
69 familiar
69 famous
69 fault

APPENDIX III

(From Wei, 2000)

Week 1, Exercise B: Collocations

Name _____

Directions: Underline the correct choice(s) according to the collocations of the **boldfaced** words (For each item, at least one is correct, but sometimes, two or all the choices are correct).

(You score 4 points by choosing a right answer or not choosing a wrong answer. The maximum score is 100.)

Example: *He was afraid _____ dogs.* *+ 8 points*

a) of *b) with* *c) at*

Explanation: *Eight points are awarded here because the student chose the right answer a) (4 points), did not choose the wrong answer c) (4 points), and selected the wrong answer b) (no points).*

---

1. Sarah **admires** her boyfriend _____ his intelligence.

   a) by b) for

2. Mary's teacher **advised** _____.

   a) to her taking a speech class b) her to take a speech class c) her what to take next semester

3. If you don't _____ **advantage** of this opportunity, it may not come again.

   a) get b) make c) take

4. I can't **afford** _____ a taxi.

   a) to taking b) take c) to take

5. She doesn't like to be left _____ in the house.

   a) **alone** b) **along**

6. How did you _____ so successfully?

   a) **achieve** b) achieve this

7. They do not **allow** students _____ dictionaries during the writing test.

   a) using b) to use c) use

8. His English is not very fluent, but it's **adequate** _____ the job.

a) by b) for

9. He _____ a thorough **analysis** of the subject.

a) did b) took

10. I didn't think that she _____ after being buried under the collapsed building for so many days.

a) would still **alive** b) would still be alive c) could still alive

Total score _____

24

Week 1, Exercise D: Correcting Errors in Collocations or Parts of Speech

Name _____

Directions: Read the following sentences and correct any errors that you find. When you are correcting errors, change words only; *DON'T* change the whole sentence. If you change a part of the sentence that's not related to an error, you don't gain or lose any points. The errors are related to the **boldfaced** words.

(You score 5 points by correcting each error, and the maximum score is 105.)

Example: *He adviced her to taking Speech 100. (2 errors)*

Student 1: *She took Speech 100 because he told her it was a great course.* *+ 0*
Explanation: *No points are awarded in this case because the whole sentence is different from the original one.*

Student 2: *He advised her to taking a speak course.* *+ 5*
Explanation: *Five points are given because one error is corrected. Although a new error is made in correcting the sentence ("Speech 100" is erroneously changed to "a speak course"), no points were deducted because it is not relevant to the original errors.*

---

1. The doctor **adviced** him get plenty of rest. (2 errors)

2. He works long hours, but his salary still not **adequate** for supporting a large family. (1 error)

3. Students who have good writing skills have an **advantage** than those who do not write well. (1 error)

4. He **admired** her sister with her athletic ability. (1 error)

5. We need to **analysis** the situation before making a decision. (1 error)

6. George was very **annoying** because the constant noise interfered his **asleep**. (2 errors)

7. Too much **anxious** will not help you deal with the problem. (1 error)

8. **Apparent**, she doesn't want to listen to our **advise**. (2 errors)

9. My roommate has some **annoyed** habits: he leaves dishes in the sink, plays loud music, and eats the food I put in the refrigerator. (1 error)

10. It is not **appropriate** to you to stay out so late with John. (1 error)

11. While I am away, I need to **arrange** by someone to take care of my cat. (1 error)

12. I am so exhausted that I can fall **sleep** right away. (1 error)

13. You should **ask** to somebody by help. (2 errors)

14. He **appears** to be very happily today. (1 error)

15. The police did not **allow** the crowd getting near the crime scene. (1 error)

16. Don't let him have **advantage** of you. (1 error)

17. Pets are not **allow** here. (1 error)

Total score _____

II. Complete the passage with the most appropriate words or expressions (use each word or expression only once).

accept, achieved, adequate, advice, alive, anxious, appear, appointment, appropriately, asked, asleep, aspect

Jennifer was an accounting student at the University of Florida. She worked hard and _____ an almost perfect GPA. Shortly before graduation, she applied for a job to a few prestigious companies in New York. One of the companies she had sent her resume to was particularly interested in her background and called to schedule an interview with her. Having made the _____, Jennifer started to prepare for this important occasion. She _____ several friends for their _____ on how to conduct herself _____ during a job interview. Jennifer was confident that she had _____ skills to qualify for the position, but she wanted to prepare herself well so that she would not _____ unprofessional in any way.

The night before her scheduled flight to New York, she was so _____ that she could hardly sleep. She missed her late grandmother who had influenced every _____ of her life. Her grandmother taught her how to believe in herself and _____ the challenges that life has to offer. Jennifer talked to her grandmother as though she was still _____. After a while, Jennifer felt much better and fell _____.

Total score _____

APPENDIX IV

(From Wei, 2000)

Scoring Sheet

NAMES																				

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