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IN L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING**

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**Danışman  
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SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Levent UZUN' a ait Difficulty Inducing Interlexical Factors In L2 Vocabulary Learning (Yabancı Dilde Sözcük Öğreniminde Zorluk Yaratan Sözcüklerarası Etkileşimler) adlı çalışma, jürimiz tarafından Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalında Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Başkan .....

Üye (Danışman): Yrd.Doç.Dr. Meral ÖZTÜRK Üye: .....

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, zorluk yaratan bazı sebepleri tartışırken yabancı dil sözcüklerinin öğreniminde zorluk yaratan faktörleri zorluk derecelerine göre sıralamak. Çalışmanın odağı yabancı sözcüklerinin öğrenilmesindeki zorluğu etkileyebilecek olan diller arasındaki (interlingual) etkileşimden kaynaklanan (hem form hem de anlam), sözcükler arası (interlexical) faktörlerdir.

Bu çalışmadaki katılımcılar Türkiye’de, Uludağ Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu’nda yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenmekte olan, orta üst (upper intermediate) seviyedeki 126 Türk öğrencidir.

Çalışmada kullanılan materyal: 1. çoktan seçmeli sözcük testi, ve öğretimde kullanılan ve iki kısımdan oluşan (öğrenme materyali ve alıştırmaya materyali) 2. çalışma materyalidir. Sözcük testinde altı kategori test edilmiştir. Bunlar false cognate, collocation, convergence, divergence, void ve parallel’dir.

Öğrenciler sözcük testini tamamlamadan önce test edilen 32 sözcüğü çalıştılar. Her sözcük için olduğu gibi, sözcük testindeki her kategori için, doğru cevap sıklık skoru belirlendi.

Divergence sözcüklerinin en zor ve convergence sözcüklerinin en kolay olduğu gözlemlendi. Paralel kategorisinin şaşırtıcı derecede zor olduğu ortaya çıkarken false cognate, collocation ve lexical void kategorilerinin beklendiği kadar zor olmadığı görüldü. Sonuçlar ana dil ve yabancı dil arasındaki farklılıklardan ileri gelen, yabancı sözcüklerinin dikkat çekiciliği bakımından yorumlandığı gibi anlam öğrenmenin karşısı olarak sözcüğün şeklini öğrenmedeki zorluk bakımından da yorumlandı.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to sequence the factors that cause difficulty in the acquisition of L2 words according to their difficulty level in learning while discussing some of the probable sources of interference. The focus of the research is on interlexical factors that stem from interlingual relations (both formal and semantic) between the L1 and the L2 that may affect the difficulty of learning of L2 words.

Participants were 126 Turkish upper intermediate level students who have been learning English as a foreign language in the School Of Foreign Languages at Uludag University, Turkey.

The materials used in the study were: 1. a multiple-choice vocabulary test, and 2. study material, which was used in the treatment and consisted of two parts (learning material, and exercise material). Six categories were tested in the vocabulary test. These were “false cognates”, “collocations”, “convergence”, “divergence”, “void”, and “parallel”.

Students studied 32 words prior to completing the vocabulary test with the same words. A total frequency score was appointed to each word as well as word category in the vocabulary test.

It was observed that divergence items were the most difficult and convergence items the easiest. Parallel category revealed to be surprisingly difficult whereas false cognates, collocations, and lexical voids showed to be not as difficult as expected. The results were interpreted in terms of difficulty of learning of word form as opposed to meaning as well as the salience of L2 words brought about by differences between the L1 and the L2.

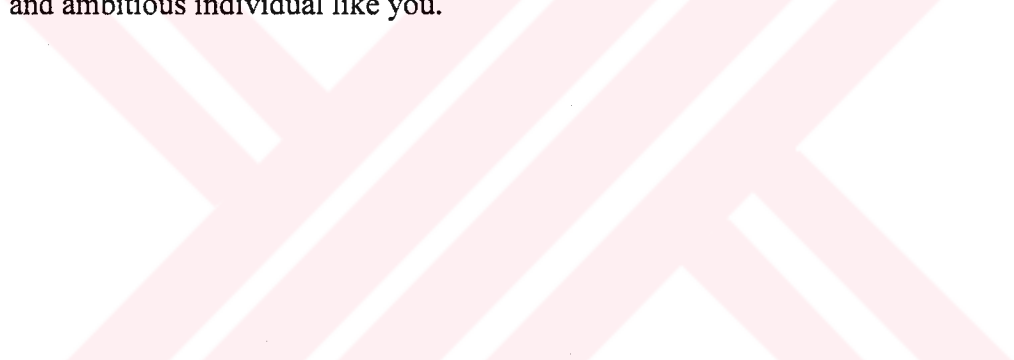
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## CHAPTER ONE (INTRODUCTION)

### 1.0. Introduction

Although it has been very obvious that vocabulary is one of the most important components in SLA, until the last decade it has been unbelievably ignored and neglected. Vocabulary has been viewed as secondary in importance for successful language learning, while grammar has been regarded the most significant. However, *“Krashen has often said that learners do not carry grammar books around in their pockets. They carry dictionaries”* (cit. in Laufer, 1990: 294).

Luckily, during the past decades there has been a steady interest in vocabulary acquisition. Many researchers have accepted the priority of vocabulary and have paid the necessary attention that vocabulary has always merited. Wilkins (1974: 111) has stated that *“While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”*. Likewise, Nickel (1973: 27) pointed out that *“Communication is based more on lexical than on grammatical items”*. Hatch (1983: 74) also concluded that *“Basic communicative competence is largely concerned with the strategies the learners use to solicit the vocabulary they need in order to get meaning across”*. Levelt (1989: 181) postulated that vocabulary is the driving force in sentence production, which he explained as a formulation process. According to him, grammar stems from the necessity to organise and connect the words by which the messages are conveyed. *“Formulation processes are lexically driven. This means that grammatical and phonological encodings are mediated by lexical entries”*.

In order to understand the significance of vocabulary in SLL and/or in FLL, examining learners' errors can be useful. Empirical studies have shown that lexical errors prove to be the most common and serious ones as a source of confusion and misunderstanding between communicators. Politzer (1978) stated that *“Of all error types, learners consider vocabulary errors the most serious”* (cit. in Gass, 1997: 270). Again, Johanson (1978) observed that *“Native speakers find lexical errors to be more*

*disruptive than grammatical errors*" (cit. in Meara, 1984: 229). Gass (1988) also concluded that "*Grammatical errors generally result in structures that are understood, whereas lexical errors may interfere with communication*" (cit. in Gass, 1997: 270). Regarding these quotations it will not be wrong to say that the listener may notice a grammatical error and may infer that the speaker is non-native, but still may understand what is intended. The following examples clearly show that grammatical errors are more local in nature and easier to evaluate and understand by the listener, while vocabulary errors cause global errors, which interfere with successful communication of meaning. No doubt that the "is" in sentence (a) below is grammatically in an inappropriate position, however; it still makes sense when the sentence is taken as a whole. On the other hand, the incorrect use of the word "robber" instead of "rubber" in sentence (b) results in misinterpretation.

- a) Could you tell me where is the rubber?
- b) Could you tell me where the robber is?

Language learning is like learning mathematics in a way. When one is learning mathematics, one needs to learn the numbers before learning the functions like "adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing". In other words, teaching how to add, subtract, multiply, and divide without teaching the numbers cannot be thought, and will be useless. It is same with language learning and teaching. Teaching grammar before vocabulary will be meaningless. The following examples also clearly show the function of grammar and vocabulary in use. In examples (a) and (c) given the numbers, the functions represented by (\*) signs are very easy to guess. In the same way, in examples (b) and (d) where the specific tense verbs, grammatical suffixes, prepositions, and conjunctions are not used, it is still clear to guess what is meant as the words are in place.

- a) 2 \* 3 \* 6
- b) I no want drink milk.
- c) 7 \* 70 \* 77
- d) He say I open door.

Without the functional operations in both mathematics and language one can still infer or guess what is meant. However, without the words in the language and numbers in mathematics nothing is really meaningful.

Since there have been numerous reasons to believe that lexis is probably most significant in second and/or foreign language acquisition, more and more research in various aspects of vocabulary has been conducted during the past two decades (e.g. Meara 1982, 1984; Laufer 1981, 1985, 1986, 1990a, 1990b, 1991; Sinclair 1987, 1991; Bahns 1990; Thomas 1998; Elyıldırım 1997; Perry and MacDonald 2001; Bahr and Dansereau 2001; Liu and Shaw 2001; Foil and Alber 2002; Ruddell and Shearer 2002; Chamizo 2002).

Recent findings in vocabulary research showed that although learning words is a must, it is a very difficult and slow process. Considering that there are thousands of word families in a language one may suggest that vocabulary learning is the most troublesome task for language learners, given the fact that each word has its own context, and that one word can mean very different things in different contexts. The incremental nature of vocabulary acquisition makes it clear that there is not a system in which one can learn all words at a certain period like we do when learning grammar. Even native speakers build their vocabulary knowledge gradually, which takes long years to be fully equipped in their mother tongue. It is very obvious that vocabulary acquisition is not sudden; it is taking place by a series of small changes over a long period. First, learners acquire a word and then add parts to it, like its derivational affixes, its collocations, and connotations. Regarding SL or FL learners, this means much more difficulty, need for attention and motivation. And, if the L1 of the learner is very different from the L2 orthographically, and acoustically it will require a lot of extra effort and careful study before becoming completely competent in the L2. Cultural differences are another factor which may influence the learning additionally.

Accepting the fact that vocabulary learning may be very problematic for learners, many researchers have carried out studies in order to understand the factors that induce difficulty in learning SL words (Anderson and Jordan, 1928; Lado, 1972;

Henning, 1973; Balhouq, 1976; Dagut, 1977; Blum and Levenston, 1979; Odlin and Natalico, 1982; Zimmerman, 1988; Laufer, 1985, 1990; Meara, 1990).

Laufer (1990) divides the various factors of difficulty in vocabulary acquisition into two broad categories: intralexical and interlexical.

- 1) *Intralexical*: These difficulties stem from the features of the word itself. Phonological features like “pronounceability, and length”; grammatical characteristics of the word like “part of speech, inflectional and derivational complexity”; semantic features of the word like “abstractness, specificity, and idiomaticity”; register restrictions, and multiple meaning can affect the learnability of the word.
- 2) *Interlexical*: These difficulties stem from the interaction between the new word and other words, which are familiar to the learner. L1 vocabulary- L2 vocabulary, and L2 vocabulary- L2 vocabulary interactions are the main points of this category. The words that learners know in their L1 may be similar in form and meaning to the words they already know, and will learn in the L2. If the form and the meaning match to a degree, then this will be a facilitating factor. However, differences between languages in the meaning and form of the words may result in confusion or misunderstanding since learners tend to think in L1 when they first meet a new word. On the other hand, regarding the effect of previously learnt L2 words, learners may still have problems in recognising or retrieving the right forms and meanings due to the interference of similar looking words (i.e. ‘synforms’ in Laufer, 1985) or words with similar meanings they know in the L2.

Laufer (1990) suggests that difficulty inducing factors in L2 vocabulary learning may stem from both L1 and L2. Words the learner knows in other languages, mainly L1 but also in other languages the learner may know, and L2 itself influence L2 vocabulary learning by facilitating or interfering with it depending on similarity or difference. The factors that affect vocabulary learning may be *intralingual*, or *interlingual*, which means interrelations within the L2 itself (intralingual), or between the L2 and other languages including L1 (interlingual). It is assumed that people have a single mental

processor and that the total information is stored in that processor. The general assumption is that people learn new words, and that all words are stored in the same place. That is why, L1 and L2 words influence each other by being closely incorporated into the total amount of words stored in the learners' mind.

The *intralexical-interlexical* distinction closely interacts with *intralingual-interlingual* distinction in the sense that both intralexical and interlexical difficulties have intralingual as well as interlingual sources. Thus, identifying and grouping the factors that induce difficulty according to these four categories will be appropriate, and of great benefit for future studies in that this can help to distinguish the sources of the problematic items, and also may enable us to make a clear cut distinction between these potentials of difficulty.

*Interlexical- interlingual* difficulties may be identified as difficulties stemming from the interaction of L1 words with L2 words, as a result of similarity or difference between the L1 and the L2. The interaction may be both formal and/or semantic. Each interaction of similarity and difference is explained below:

- a) Similarity in both form and meaning: A word in L1 has almost the same form and meaning in L2. For instance, words like “Freund”, “Schule”, “Tausend”, “Vater”, “Buch” in German, and “friend”, “school”, “thousand”, “father”, “book” in English are both formally and semantically similar. These words are recognised as *cognates* or *true cognates* in the literature. This kind of interaction results in facilitation since it enhances learning, and thus, cognates are seen as the non- problematic units in language learning and teaching. In the learning process of these items, one may notice that almost no learning load is apparent, since both meaning and form could be transferred from L1, which enables the easy and fast acquisition of the words belonging to this group.
- b) Similarity in form but difference in meaning: A word in L1 may have almost the same form, but a very different meaning in the L2. For instance, words like “Mutter(mother)”, “Lesen(reading)” in German, and “mutter”, and “lesson” in English differ greatly in meaning. Again, “express” in English

means to tell an idea, however, “ekspres” in Turkish means non-stop, or fast; “complexion” in English means skin, or skin colour, and in Turkish the word “kompleks” has a similar form but it means a group of connected or similar things. The difference in meaning of similar forms is recognised as *false cognates* in the literature. Words may have similar forms, but very different meanings in each language, which will result in interference or confusion when learning, for the reason that the form is identical in the two languages, and thus, learners may assume that the meaning is identical as well. As a result, learners may transfer a false cognate into the L2 and use it in the L1 meaning.

- c) Similarity in meaning but difference in form: Most of the time languages differ, and therefore, words differ in their form. It is natural that the same objects, or concepts will be lexicalised in different forms in different societies. For instance, as translation equivalents, English “cheese”, German “Käse”, and French “fromage” refer to the same concept. However, the form of the word for the mentioned concept differs in each language. The words belonging to this group are presumed to be easy or not very problematic since they are semantically identical. Each item in L1 or in L2 has an equivalent in the other language and that only the learning of a new label (e.g. form) for a known concept (e.g. meaning) is expected.
- d) Difference in both form and meaning: Although there are exceptions, words usually have different forms in different languages, and conditions where the meanings also differ reveal the presence of words whose meanings are completely different or inexistent in the opposite language because of the inexistence of the concept itself. These words are named *lexical voids* in the literature. For example, “skylight” is a void in Turkish just like “hal (meyve sebze)” is a void in English. In Turkish “hal” is a place where fruits and vegetables, are gathered, and prepared to be sold to the individual grocers or open-market men. The difficulty level in learning the items of this category



is expected to be high for the reason that neither form nor meaning is familiar or known by learners.

*Intralexical- interlingual* difficulties are phonological and orthographical difficulties in the learning of particular L2 words, which are affected by more global interlingual differences such that they contain sounds that do not exist in the L1, or that L1 has a very different orthographic system. For instance, words like “**through, quadrangle, whiskbroom, thwart**” may require extra attention and effort to learn for Turkish learners since “θ, ŋ, w” do not exist in Turkish. What is more, these words are formed of many joint consonants; e.g. kw, θr, θw. Turkish speakers are not used to such words, which may cause difficulty in pronunciation. Again, words like “ışın(ray), mağara(cave), mağlup(defeated)” may be quite problematic to learn and to pronounce for foreign learners of Turkish if the “ı ” and “ğ “ sounds are lacking in their mother language. Similarly, it is very difficult for Turkish learners to learn Bulgarian/Russian words, which contain sounds like “ц- (ts), and ъ- that softens the vowel ‘o’ by preceding it”. These differences may seem to cause local problems, however, sometimes these local problems may result in global misinterpretations because of the change of sounds in the pronunciation. For instance, foreign speakers of Turkish are very frequently misunderstood due to pronunciation errors, which result in meaning errors (e.g. sınır(border)- sinir(nerve), kıl(bristle)- kil(clay), sağlam(whole)- salam(salami)).

*Interlexical- intralingual* difficulties will appear when words interact with each other within the L2 itself, and where they are related to each other. Difficulties here can be divided into two categories according to the aspects stated below:

1. Meaning relation
2. Form relation

The relation between the words within the L2 may be explained as follows:

- a) Meaning relation: Semantic relations between words, i.e. sense relations, like synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc. are important tools that occupy a wide range in foreign language teaching and learning. For decades so far teachers and students benefited from the various relations between the lexical units. It



was a general belief that the semantic associations between words help learners to remember them. Psychologists have assumed that the more associations could the learners see, the more meaningful the word would become to them. That is why, synonyms, antonyms, and hyponyms have been usually learned and taught with an extra focus. However, there are suggestions in the literature that not all meaning associations bring a facilitating effect in vocabulary acquisition (Laufer, 1990; Hatch and Brown, 1995:22; Bogaards, 2001). For instance, antonyms are doubted to be useful for the reason that when presented in couples (e.g. left-right, thin-thick) students might have problems in distinguishing among them, and confuse whether thick is thin, or thin is thin. Especially synonyms have been seen as a major source of difficulty in L2 vocabulary learning. Almost in every language many different words are used for the same or associate meanings. For instance, “free- independent- autonomous- decontrolled- individualistic- liberated- unconnected- etc.” have a similar meaning in English and thus, are synonyms. However, it should not be forgotten that although these words are synonyms, their contexts may differ, and thus, using one word instead of the other may not be always appropriate. There can be slight nuances, which learners should learn. For instance, “garden” and “yard” are synonyms. However, using these synonyms interchangeably in every situation may result in confusion due to the fact that “garden” is a place where necessarily flowers or other plants are grown, whereas, yard is a place where plants are not grown, and is just a place out of the house. On the other hand, “yard” has another meaning, which is used to express a unit of length, which is not synonymous with “garden”. For a beginner learner of English, who knows only the metric meaning of “yard”, it will be extremely difficult to infer what is intended when he/ she hears the sentence “How big is your yard?”. Synonyms may be more difficult to learn than other sense relations in another respect: they may seem superfluous to the learner as they can be seen as two names for the same concept. One of these may seem redundant and

unnecessary. On the other hand, in antonyms and hyponyms different words correspond to different concepts albeit related.

- b) Form relation: Almost in every language there are words whose forms are nearly the same, but the meanings of which differ sharply. For instance, “except- expect, thorough- through, quite- quiet” are words which look or sound very similar, but whose meanings are very different. This kind of words are identified as *synforms* by Laufer (1985). Form relation between words within a language, as well, may cause problems in vocabulary acquisition.

*Intralexical- intralingual* difficulties arise within a language when the form, meaning and usage of some certain words within the language make it hard on its own. Some words may be especially long, hard to pronounce, extremely abstract, very restricted in use, which can make them a real problem on their own, even for native speakers.

The purpose of this study will be to sequence the factors that cause difficulty in the acquisition of L2 words according to their difficulty level in learning while discussing some of the probable sources of interference. The focus of the research will be on interlexical factors that stem from interlingual relations (both formal and semantic) between the L1 and the L2 that may affect the difficulty of learning of L2 words.

## CHAPTER TWO (LITERATURE REVIEW)

### 2.0. Literature Review

This chapter consists of two main sections. The following section 2.1. provides the description and the features of the various lists of difficulty inducing factors offered in the literature on vocabulary learning. In section 2.2. a more detailed view of each difficulty inducing factor has been given: in 2.2.1. false cognates, in 2.2.2. convergence, in 2.2.3. divergence, in 2.2.4. collocation, in 2.2.5. lexical void, and finally in 2.2.6. parallel words have been presented in detail.

### 2.1. Lists

To be able to make a clear cut distinction between the factors that cause difficulty in vocabulary acquisition, a well defined list is needed, where each factor will be put under a certain category. Various lists have been proposed in the literature. Anderson and Jordan (1928), Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (1965), Lado (1972), Dagut (1977), Nation (1990), and Laufer (1990) provide us with lists each of which have some common and similar components, but with slight differences in content and focus. Present lists may help in that they will serve as a base, and a source for the list of this study.

Anderson and Jordan (1928) provide us with the following list of words ordered according to difficulty, and give examples of Latin-English words:

- a) *identical words: words similar in form and in meaning between L1 and L2. [i.e. provincia/province]*
- b) *associative words: words whose sounds are dissimilar but for which there are derivative L1 words closely associated to the L2 word in sound and meaning. [i.e. lingua/language/bilingual]*
- c) *non- associative words: words different in sound in the two languages.*

According to their study, the “identical words” were learnt and retained better than the “associative words” and the “non- associative” ones; the “associative words”

better than the “non- associative” (cit. in Fisiak, 1990: 575). This list is probably the earliest list provided so far, thus, maybe the simplest. They gave the definition of three groups of words and ordered them according to degree of difficulty in learning. Their list is basically interlingual in that either *identical words* or *associative words* and *non-associative words* deal with the problems stemming from the differences in L1 and L2. In other words, their concern is mostly the similarities or contrasts between languages. Also, the focus of their list is largely pronunciation. Although they order words according to difficulty level, it is a very limited list.

Lado (1972) also ordered the components of his list according to their easiness/difficulty. However, he did not provide any definitions about the patterns he studied. He proposed that:

- 1) cognates are easy to learn
- 2) false cognates are difficult to learn
- 3) words similar in meaning but different in form have normal difficulty
- 4) words that have ‘strange’ meanings are difficult to learn
- 5) new form types or idioms (phrasal verbs) are difficult to learn
- 6) words that have different connotations in the two languages are difficult to learn
- 7) geographically restricted words are difficult to learn

Lado’s patterns 1 and 2 address the issue of similarity in form with and without similarity in meaning respectively. Pattern 3 refers to the cases where the two languages classify meaning in the same way, where the only task is to learn a new form for a familiar meaning. Words with “strange meanings” in pattern 4 refer to different ways of coding a given meaning in different languages. For example, while in American English first floor means number one at ground level, in Spanish “primer piso” is number one above the ground level (Laufer, 1990b). Pattern 5 refers to the unfamiliar forms and/or combinations of forms; 6 includes words which reflect cultural differences; and 7 demonstrates the case of language varieties. Although the list offers a number of difficulty inducing factors it does not provide any clues as how these factors can be ordered according to difficulty level. The interlingual and intralingual factors were not

clearly distinguished, either. It is not clear, for example, if pattern 3 refers to translation equivalents between two languages or synonyms in the same language.

Later, Dagut (1977) provided an improved list, which consists of three main titles, “incongruencies in lexical gridding”, “cultural differences”, and “different collocations”, under which more detailed sub- titles and definitions were given:

#### *I- Incongruencies in lexical gridding*

1) *One-to-many correspondence* refers to the classification of semantic differences between languages into cases of divergence and convergence.

a) *convergence*: several words in L1 are equivalent to one word in L2

b) *divergence*: one word in L1 may be represented by several words in L2

2) *Partial overlap in meaning* means that a particular word in one language may cover only part of the uses of the word in the other language, but each of them will also have other uses of its own.

3) *Metaphorical extension* refers to the differences languages exhibit in the word usage. For instance, “light” in English may refer to a colour, a problem, a drink, an athlete. In all these instances Turkish would use different terms like “açık, önemsiz, hafif, çevik”.

#### *II- Cultural Differences*

1) *Different connotative meaning* means that words can have different impact in different cultures (e.g. “fat” is a compliment in Spanish).

2) *Lexical void* is the lack of translation equivalents and largely stem from cultural differences. An item in L1 may not exist in L2 or vice versa. This means that besides form difference there is also a meaning gap.

#### *III- Different Collocations*

“Knowing a word implies the knowledge of the possible combinations into which a given item can enter. Such combinations are called collocations” (Fisiak, 1990: 583). Collocations are problematic when

their meaning is apparent at first glance but their constituent elements cannot be given their translation equivalents. Brown (1974) points out that “collocational difference between languages is a well- recognised difficulty factor, even with advanced learners”.

Dagut’s list is more comprehensive in that it provides information regarding L1-L2 interaction in lexicon. However, this list fails similarly by being insufficient in the sense that it does not order them according to difficulty level. Nevertheless, he provides a more detailed classification of interlingual factors.

Nation (1990: 36) presents a table in which he attempts to generalise the difficulty inducing factors by grouping them under the following titles, “form”, “position”, “function”, and “meaning” as follows:

1) *Form*

- a) *Spoken: Does the word contain only familiar sounds or clusters of sounds? Is the stress predictable?*
- b) *Written: Is the script like the mother- tongue script? Is the written form predictable from the spoken form? Does the written form follow regular spelling patterns?*

2) *Position*

- a) *Grammar: Does the word occur in the same patterns as the corresponding mother- tongue word? Does the word occur in a common pattern or common set of patterns?*
- b) *Collocation: Does the word commonly occur with predictable words or types of words?*

3) *Function*

- a) *Frequency: Does the mother- tongue word have the same frequency?*
- b) *Appropriateness: Does the degree of politeness, formality, etc., of the word match the corresponding mother- tongue word, or the other English words learned so far?*

#### 4) *Meaning*

- a) *Concept: Does the English concept correspond to a mother- tongue concept? Are the various meanings of the word obviously related to a central concept? Is the meaning predictable from the form of the word?*
- b) *Associations: Does the mother- tongue word give rise to associated words similar to the English word?*

Nation's table is a well-structured list of factors affecting difficulty of learning. However, interlingual and intralingual difficulties are mixed, and there is no indication of the relative difficulty of items. It is far from clear if *form* is placed before *position*, for example, because it is easier to learn the form of a word than its usual position in a sentence.

On the other hand, Laufer (1990b) provides us with a list by which she consciously focuses on the *interlexical* factors that affect vocabulary learning, and also in which she has made a distinction between the facilitating and difficulty inducing factors, and also provides these in contrast. The lack of her list is that it does not order these factors according to difficulty level. Her table is as the following:

#### 1) *Facilitating factors*

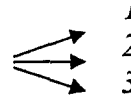
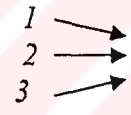
- a) *Similarity to L1 in form and meaning*
- b) *Overlap in semantic grids between the word in L1 and L2*
- c) *Similar connotations*
- d) *Meaning relation- hyponymy, antonymy, converseness*

#### 2) *Difficulty inducing factors*

- a) *Similarity to L1 in form with difference in meaning*
- b) *Incongruencies in gridding: one- to- many correspondence, partial overlap in meaning, metaphorical extension*
- c) *Different connotation, lexical void*
- d) *Meaning relation: synonymy*
- e) *Similarity in sound to other words in L2*



Stockwell, Bowen, and Martin (in Hatch and Brown, 1995: 134) made a contrastive analysis of Spanish and English as a result of which they set a schedule about the difficulty of acquisition of phonological forms in terms of the degree of interlingual similarity as follows:

<u>Ease-Difficulty(0-5)</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>Relationship</u>		<u>Process</u>
		<u>Native Lang.</u>	<u>Target Lang.</u>	
4	<i>Overdifferentiate (new category)</i>	0	→ 1	<i>learn new item</i>
3	<i>Split category</i>	1		<i>make new distinction</i>
2	<i>Underdifferentiate (absent)</i>	1	→ ∅	<i>avoid production</i>
1	<i>Coalesced</i>		1	<i>overlook distinctions</i>
0	<i>Parallel (no difference)</i>	1	→ 1	<i>transfer</i>
3	<i>Reinterpret shape or distribution differs</i>	1	→ 1	<i>give familiar item-new shape or position</i>

This list, unlike all other lists attempts to sequence the phonological forms according to their difficulty level in learning. This list is much more process focused in that given a specific type of relation between the L1 and L2 (e.g. parallel), it predicts what happens in the learning process (e.g. transfer). The ease/difficulty rating is then based on this learning process.

This is the list that has been adapted and is going to be used in this study. Although it is phonological, it will be used to investigate lexical difficulties. The main reason of using this list in the study is that it provided opportunity to categorise, and order lexical difficulties that result from differences between the L1 and the L2.



Lexical differences can be nicely fit in with the phonological categories of Stockwell et al. (1965) (see Table 2.1. below). The “overdifferentiate” category (0-1) can be matched with the ‘lexical void in L1’ for the reason that the learner is to acquire a completely new L2 word, which means that the target word has no equivalent in the learner’s native language. The “split” category can be matched with ‘divergence’ (1-1,2,3) since the learner needs to learn the distinctions between several L2 words that all have only one L1 equivalent. The “underdifferentiate” category (1-0) is considered as the ‘void in L2’, which is not in the scope of this study. Again, similarly to split category, the “coalesced” category can be matched with ‘convergence’ (1,2,3-1) where multiple words in L1 correspond to only one L2 word. The “parallel” category (1-1) is assumed to be the same with the one in the list, for the reason that corresponding words in L1 and L2 define the same concept or action in both languages, and there is no difference in meaning. This corresponds to overlap in semantic grids between L1+L2 in Laufer’s list (1986). In other words, given words have direct translation equivalents in the native language and in the target language. Thus, the learners are expected to just transfer and match the meanings of the words in the two languages. And consequently, the “reinterpret shape or distribution differs” category (1-1) can be matched with ‘false cognate’ as false cognates require reinterpretation of an L1 meaning and/or shape, as well as ‘collocation’, as collocations can have different distributions in different languages (i.e. different combinations of known words). Differing from the parallel category, this category urges the learner to give familiar L1 words new meanings and positions in L2.

Table 2.1. Difficulty Inducing Interlexical-Interlingual Factors Based On Meaning and Form

<u>Category</u>	<u>Native Language</u>		<u>Target Language</u>	<u>Process</u>	<u>Difficulty(0-4)</u>
Divergence	1	→	1	make new	3
		↘	2	distinction	
		↙	3		
Parallel	1	→	1	transfer	0
Void in L1	0	→	1	learn new item	4

False Cognate	1	→	1	give familiar item new meaning	3
Collocation	1	→	1	make new L2 combinations for known L1 items	3
Convergence	1 2 3	→ → →	1	overlook distinctions	1

## 2.2. Difficulty Inducing Variables

The observations and experiences in the field has proved that almost all language learners all around the world face some different kinds of lexical difficulties in their learning process, which also causes problems for the teachers in their teaching. In this section, the literature will be reviewed on the sources of difficulty in lexical learning identified above.

### 2.2.1. False Cognates

Almost in every language there are some words that may look like words in other languages regarding their forms. Words that are similar between languages both in form and in meaning are called *cognates* or *interlingual homographs* (Laufer, 1990; Ellis and Beaton, 1993; Thomas, 1997; Dijkstra et. al., 1999, 2000). It is usually assumed that the more similar in form and in meaning a word is to L1, the easier it is to learn. For instance, “Freund(German)– friend(English)”, “Schule(German)– school(English)– scuola(Italian)”, “studie(German)– study(English)– studio(Italian)”, “spreche(German) – speak(English)”, “parlez(French) – parli(Italian)” are very similar words both in form and meaning, and thus, should be very easy to learn for the students of the present countries. Cognates are considered as the easiest items in FL vocabulary acquisition, because they involve virtually no concept learning, and only minimal form learning.

However, the problem arises when the form of the words is similar but the meaning is not. These kinds of words are called *false cognates*, *non-cognate homographs*, *deceptive cognates*, or *false friends* (Kirk-Greene, 1981; Hirsch and Birckbichler, 1982; Birbrajer, 1987; Sobel and Sobel, 1988; Laufer, 1990; Hartmut, 1997; Thomas, 1997; Dijkstra et al. 1999, 2000; Chamizo Dominguez and Nerlich, 2002; Downes, 1977). Keeping in mind the fact that especially learners of lower levels do usually tend to transfer from their native languages, expecting false cognates to be a problem for foreign language learners will not be wrong. This group of words do usually mislead students and prevent them from learning the L2 word. Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) found that false cognates were among the most difficult categories of words to recognise for meaning. The following sentence exemplifies this difficulty factor that they observed in Hebrew learners of English: "Language is focal for consideration of man's mental nature", where the word *mental* was interpreted as "emotional" because this was the meaning of *mentali* in Hebrew. Similar misinterpretations would probably occur in learning any foreign language where false cognates exist.

In the past various classifications of false cognates have been proposed (Carroll, 1992: 101; Chamizo Dominguez, 1999). According to Chamizo Dominguez (1999) false cognates can be divided into four types: 1. *phonetic types* (*bitch*-English/ *bicho*-Spanish); 2. *spelling types* (*rape*-English/ *rape*-Spanish); 3. *borrowings* (*meeting*-English/ *mitin*-Spanish); 4. *semantic types* (*preservative*-English/ *preservativo*-Spanish). Another distinction that he has made is based on the degree of the formal completeness of false cognates: 1. *complete ones* (*bigot*/ *bigote*); 2. *partial ones* (*preservative*/ *preservativo*).

Chamizo Dominguez and Nerlich (2002), concentrated on two types of false cognates: *chance false cognates* and *semantic false cognates*. They describe that chance false cognates are those words, which are graphically and/or phonetically similar or equivalent in two or more languages, but without there being any semantic or etymological reason for this overlap. For instance, Spanish "burro" (donkey) and Italian "burro" (butter), French "auge" (basin, bowl) and German "Auge" (eye) are

accidentally similar. Chamizo Dominguez and Nerlich (2002) commented that this type of false cognates could be regarded to be equivalents, in two or more languages, of homonymic words in a given single language. Semantic false cognates, on the other hand, are words that are graphically and/or phonetically similar in various languages whose meanings have diverged, and can be regarded the equivalents, in two or more given languages, of polysemous words in a given single language (e.g. sympathy-English (sharing the feelings of others; understanding) / *sempati*-Turkish (a feeling of liking someone; having a nice impression of someone)).

They divide semantic false cognates into two groups: *full false cognates* and *partial false cognates*. In this respect, “full false cognates” are those words whose meanings in different languages diverge widely, and are on the edge of becoming equivalent to homonyms. For example, “fastidious (English) - fastidioso (Spanish), which means annoying”. Again, “learn (English) – *lehren* (German)” are complete false friends because “*lehren*” in German does not mean “to learn”, but “to teach” as a translation equivalent in English. “Partial false cognates”, in contrast, are those words that have several senses, some of which *coincide* in both languages whereas others do not. For instance, *professor*(English)- *professeur*(French)- *profesor*(Spanish). Because “professor” and “teacher” are distinguished in English the word “professor” doesn’t share the meaning of “a teacher” with the Spanish and French words, which makes them partial false cognates with respect to this meaning only. Another example may be “study(English) – *studie*(German) – *studio*(Italian)” which are partial false cognates, or in other words partial cognates. While the English meaning is shared by the other two words, the English “study” and the German “*studie*” do not have senses corresponding to the workplace of an artist that is the sense of the Italian “studio”. The Italian word “studio” has other equivalents both in English, “studio”, and in German, “studio”.

When dealing with false cognates, many complex chains appear to take part if regarded crosslingually. A very wide scope of word relations appears to exist between languages. It is a fact that animals’ names are used metaphorically in many languages to refer to individuals because people think that animals have particular characteristics. For this reason, when the name of an animal is used for a person, it is used

metaphorically euphemistically. So, even when the same word with the same basic translation equivalent is used, if the metaphorical or euphemistical uses do not match in two or more languages, false cognates arise. For instance, Bulgarian “камила /kamila/”, German “Kamel”, Turkish “deve” form a chain of false cognates as they are used in different senses in each language. So, although these words are etymologically related and mean exactly the same animal, and are “cognates” when used literally, they suddenly become complete false cognates when they are used metaphorically because whereas in German “camel” is used to refer to a person who is silly, in Bulgarian to a person who walks very slowly, and in Turkish to a tall, big person. Other animal names like “donkey- cow- sheep-bull- bear” may be used to express different personal characteristics in different languages. So, the same word does not have the same meaning in every language.

Chamizo Dominguez and Nerlich (2002), draw attention to another relationship between false cognates and metaphors, and explain this as it is below:

*Another complex chain of figures of speech can be found in the English words seminary and seminar, and the Spanish one seminario. All three words derive from Latin semen.... Thus seminary meant literally and originally ‘seedbed’.... From that standard meaning the following meanings of seminary evolved: 1, school, by means of metaphor; 2, school for the ministry, by means of a specialisation; 3, school for girls, by means of a second order specification; 4, brothel, by means of a euphemism; and 5, the female genitals, by means of both metonymy and a euphemism. The chain of figures for Spanish seminario is quite different: 1, school, by means of metaphor; 2, school for the ministry, by means of a specialisation; 3, a special kind of meeting or class in the universities ...; 4, the classroom where these meetings occur; and 5, the team of teachers who teach a specific subject in a high school. In other words, seminary, seminar, and seminario are partial false friends as a result of the different chains of figures that changed the meanings of these words in different ways in the two languages.*

Although there have been enough descriptive studies, articles and books on cognates (Chamizo Dominguez, 1999; Chamizo Dominguez and Nerlich, 2002; Chamizo Dominguez, 2002; Hill, 1982; Birbrajer, 1987; Kirk-Greene, 1981), research on the acquisition of these words in the literature is very limited. The necessity of research on cognates has been primarily seen by linguists working in the areas of translation, bilingualism, and foreign language teaching. Klein and Doctor (1992) found that false cognates were recognized more slowly compared to the recognition of

cognates. In another study, Grainger and Dijkstra (1992) found that if a word had more orthographic neighbours (i.e. other words similar in written form) in the other language than its own, it was recognized more slowly, which proposes that false cognates cause difficulty in recognition. Dijkstra et al. (1999) found facilitating effects of cross-linguistic orthographic and semantic similarity, but inhibitory effects of phonological overlap in word recognition. Likewise, Dijkstra et al. (2000) found an interfering effect of false cognates on foreign vocabulary learning. However, they also concentrated on the frequencies of the false cognates, and concluded that if the false cognate in question is of high frequency in L2 and low frequency in L1, the L2 word form would become active more quickly, and to a greater extent than the L1 word form. They observed that target language homographs were often overlooked, especially if the frequency of their other-language competitor was high.

### **2.2.2. Convergence**

Some words in the L2 may have more than one translation equivalent in the L1, and even these translation equivalents can be used in similar conditions and contexts, they may have slight differences in meaning and usage. This is called “convergence”. For example, “belt” can be translated as “kemer, kayış, or kusak” into Turkish, however, these three words are not total synonyms, and thus, although possible in some general conditions, all of these three words have their own characteristics and differences, so it would not be very correct to use them interchangeably in all linguistic environments. To make it more comprehensible, focusing on the meanings of these three words will be useful. For example, “kemer” when narrowing its meaning to this instance is a strip of leather, cloth, metal, etc. usually worn around the waist. “Kayış” is a strip necessarily made of leather and not any other material that is worn around the waist, and “kuşak” is a piece of cloth, which is wrapped around the waist. On the other hand, all of these words are available to be used in many different meanings of their own such as the following: “kemer- arch: a bridge with three arches”, “kayış- strap: my camera strap has broken, “kuşak- generation, or zone: time zone, or new generation”.

In the following there are other English- Turkish convergence items: “infertile- kısır; verimsiz (completely infertile), bereketsiz (very little yield)”, “bounce-



zıplatmak (to bounce up and down), sektirmek (to hit a hard ground here and there and go forward by jumping)", "boast- övünmek (to be proud), böbürlenmek (to exaggerate the pride)", "mercy- insaf (justice based on conscience), merhamet (a feeling of pity or protection)". As it is obvious, regarding the examples above, a Turkish learner of English will need to learn just one word in English, which has the potential and force to do for two or three words in Turkish. This is what saves time and effort for students.

In the literature on second language acquisition "convergence" category is touched, though not very explicitly, when discussing about "sense relations" between words (synonymy, homonymy, hyponymy, polysemy, etc.), and when speaking about "direction of learning", that is from L2 to L1 learning, and when discussing "translation" and "transfer" between languages. When we take an L2-to-L1-point of view and focus on the L1 equivalents of a certain L2 word, we reach the situation of dealing with convergence items (infertile- verimsiz, kısır; bend- katlamak, bükmek, kıvrırmak), where the L2 word serves as a stimulus and L1 words as response. Thus, it means that learning convergence items is learning polysemy of an L2 word, which is assumed to be easy. Laufer (1986) suggests that creating associations between the new word and its superordinate, antonym, or converse may increase its meaningfulness, and therefore, facilitate its learning (cit. in Fisiak, 1990: 588). Although there are not very explicit studies on learning convergence items, there is evidence that convergence items are not very problematic in L2 vocabulary learning, and that from L2-to-L1 processing is a facilitating factor in foreign language acquisition (Laufer, 1986; Schneider et al., 2002).

### **2.2.3. Divergence**

In the case of "divergence", some L1 words may have more than one translation equivalent in the L2, and again even these translation equivalents can be used in similar conditions and contexts, they may have slight differences in meaning and usage. For instance, "cüzdan" can be translated as "wallet or purse" into English, and although these two words may be seen in dictionaries as synonyms, there are still some differences between them in that "wallet" is what men use, but "purse" is used by women. So, that some words have identical meanings or translation equivalents in

another language would not necessarily mean that they can substitute each other in all contexts. In the following there are some other Turkish- English divergence items: “nem- damp, moist, humidity”, “karışmak- interfere, intervene”, “sadakat- fidelity, loyalty”. In this respect, a Turkish learner of English will have to learn two or more words for one word in his/ her L1, and the distinctions between them additionally. In other words, students will have to learn all translation equivalents of an L1 word, and aside this, the differences between the equivalents, which will certainly be a much harder task.

Though not very deeply, in the area of second language vocabulary acquisition, “divergence” category, as “convergence” category, is touched when discussing about “sense relations” between words, and when speaking about “direction of learning”, that is from L1 to L2 learning, and when discussing “translation” and “transfer” between languages. When we occupy an L1-to-L2-point of view and focus on the L2 equivalents of a certain L1 word, we reach the situation of dealing with divergence items (kazmak- excavate, dig, unearth; gelir- income, revenue), where the L1 word serves as a stimulus and L2 words as response. Thus, it means that learning divergence items is learning synonyms, which are seen to be problematic for the reason that they bring a special learning load. In the literature many studies have revealed that acquisition of synonyms is more difficult than the acquisition of other meaning associations, and that the existence of synonyms usually cause disadvantage in vocabulary learning for foreign language learners (Laufer, 1990; Linnarud, 1983).

#### **2.2.4. Collocations**

In the recent years collocations have received a spate of interest by many researchers (Benson, 1985, 1990; Cowie, 1978, 1981; Carter, 1992; McCarthy, 1990), which turned out to be very beneficial in the sense that it enhanced the better understanding of this variable and its effect on the FL/SL learners’ vocabulary learning. Teachers also became more aware of this variable and more ready in their teaching which lessened the potential problems that could arise in their classrooms.

Collocations are a type of multi-word units (MWUs). A MWU is “a string of words with a single meaning” (Schmitt, 2000:97). Researchers agree that language



learning should not be seen as learning single words, or just acquiring particular grammatical rules and/or forms. This means that some words are attached or bound to each other, and should be considered as a whole. Carter (1998) presents the following list consisting of a variety of MWUs (cit. in Schmitt, 2000:97):

<i>as a matter of fact</i>	<i>to smell a rat</i>
<i>as old as the hills</i>	<i>honesty is the best policy</i>
<i>spick and span</i>	<i>for good</i>
<i>if I were you</i>	<i>bottoms up</i>
<i>a watched pot never boils</i>	<i>a good time was had by all</i>
<i>light-years ago</i>	<i>how do you do?</i>
<i>as far as I know</i>	<i>no way</i>
<i>you can say that again</i>	<i>in no uncertain terms</i>
<i>a stitch in time saves nine</i>	<i>I thought you'd never ask</i>
<i>by and large</i>	<i>like it or lump it</i>

Various classifications of MWUs have been advanced (Alexander, 1978; Yorio, 1980; Nattinger, 1980, 1988; Cowie, 1981, 1988; Benson et al, 1986). Researchers divided MWUs into two categories, and identified phrasal verbs and idioms as two important areas for students. However, the rest, including collocations was neglected and just generally called “idiomatic usage”. It is only recently through the rise of corpus linguistics that the fixedness of much language has been discovered. The general agreement was that language is not arbitrary, and that most structures are interrelated. This means that although there are single words, what forms a language is expressions that consist of words which co- occur very naturally in certain contexts.

Hill (ed. in Lewis, 2000, pp. 50-51) recognises “collocations” as a separate category from idioms and phrasal verbs, and defines them as follows:

Idiom: An expression, which is relatively fixed and allows little or no change, and is often metaphorical. For example, *he put the cat among the pigeons; don't count your chicken.*

Phrasal verb: A unit that contain a verb plus one or more articles. For example, *make up* a story, *put* the light *out*.

Collocation: Predictable combinations of words. For example, *get lost*, *make up for lost time*, *speak your mind*. "... in a sense, all collocations are idiomatic and all phrasal verbs and idioms are collocations or contain collocations...".

Hill takes attention to some characteristics of collocations. He states that some combinations are very highly predictable from one of the component words, like; *foot the bill*, *mineral water*, *spring to mind*. He also underlines that some collocations are very strong, which are not guessable and are non-generative, and that these have the status of idioms (e.g. *shrug your shoulders*). On the other hand, he points out that some collocations may seem so common and hardly worth remarking upon, like, *a big flat*, *a nice car*, *have lunch*. However, when the subject matter is foreign language learning, then what may seem unremarkable to a native speaker can be a problem for a learner. Because of their L1, some students may find *eat lunch/ take lunch/ prefer lunch/ get lunch/ enjoy lunch/ etc.* as a more appropriate choice than *have lunch*.

Although there is not a single understanding and/or definition for collocations, it will be practical to say that collocation is the way that words combine in a language to produce natural sounding speech and writing. It is widely accepted that in every language some certain words co- occur under some certain conditions, and that this is not by chance. Depending on his studies, Cowie (1981) introduces the following definition: "*Collocation is a composite unit which permits the substitutability of item for at least one of its constituent elements*". Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986) explain that in English, as in other languages, there are many "fixed, identifiable, non- idiomatic phrases and constructions". They name such groups of words as "recurrent combinations", "fixed combinations", or collocations. Pawley and Syder (1983) describe collocations as "lexicalised" or "institutionalised" sentence stems, which help learners in native- like selection and native- like fluency (cit. in Elyıldırım, 1997). They also add that collocations are lexical units, which have familiar concepts and speech act function.

In spite of the fact that researchers have diverged in their attempts to find a unique and more comprising definition, they have agreed on the main characteristics of the collocations. The most observable features of collocations are that their meanings reflect the meaning of their constituent parts, unlike idioms, and that they are used very frequently, and readily in a smooth and natural way. Texts analyses have shown that the words “blow” and “wind” co- occur very frequently in topic related contexts of “weather”. What is more, there are some restricted collocations where certain words occur almost entirely in the co- text of one or two other words, or of a very narrow set of words. For example, the word “Torrential” do appear as a modifier of the word “rain” in a rate of approximately 90%.

According to Hill, collocations can be very long as in the following: adverb + verb + article + adjective + noun + preposition + noun as in *seriously affect the political situation in Bosnia* (cit. in Lewis, 2000: 51). He suggested the following collocations of different kinds:

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*

Lewis (2000: 133-134) also presented examples of collocations of different types. He mentioned that all of the following are collocations in the sense that we readily recognise that these word groups are regularly found together:

1. *a difficult decision*: adjective + noun
2. *submit a report*: verb + noun
3. *radio station*: noun + noun
4. *examine thoroughly* : verb + adverb
5. *extremely inconvenient*: adverb + adjective
6. *revise the original plan*: verb + adjective + noun

7. *the fog closed in*: noun + verb
8. *To put in another way*: discourse marker
9. *a few years ago*: multi- word prepositional phrase
10. *turn in*: phrasal verb
11. *aware of*: adjective + preposition
12. *fire escape*: compound noun
13. *backwards and forwards*: binomial
14. *hook, line and sinker*: trinomial
15. *On the other hand*: fixed phrase
16. *A sort of ...*: incomplete fixed phrase
17. *Not half!*: fixed expression
18. *See you later/ tomorrow/ on Monday*: semi- fixed expression
19. *Too many cooks ...*: part of a proverb
20. *To be or not to be ...*: part of quotation

These various collocational patterns are grouped under two categories by Benson et al. (1986).

a) Grammatical collocations: these consist of a noun, adjective, or a verb plus a preposition or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a clause. For example, “creak under, forget about, by accident, to be afraid that ..., blame for, etc.”.

b) Lexical collocations: these include various combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs (Halliday, 1966; Jones and Sinclair, 1974; Sinclair, 1987, 1991; Church and Hanks, 1990). Lewis (2000: 134) suggests that lexical collocations combine two equal lexical components (open class words), while grammatical collocations combine a lexical word, typically a noun, verb or adjective, with a grammatical word (one open class word and one closed class word).

Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986) have grouped these structural types of lexical collocations in six categories:

1. verb + noun: *to launch a smile, to revoke a licence, etc.*
2. adjective + noun: *reckless abandon, sweeping generalisation, etc.*

3. noun + verb: *adjectives modify, alarms go off, etc.*
4. noun + of + noun: *a bunch of flowers, a piece of advice, etc.*
5. adverb + adjective: *deeply absorbed, closely acquainted, etc.*
6. verb + adverb: *to apologise humbly, to affect deeply, etc.*

Acquisitional studies on collocations (Elyıldırım, 1997; Fayeze- Hussein, 1990; Bahns, 1993; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Herbst, 1996; Cowie and Howarth, 1996) focused mainly on the issue of transfer and L1 influence. Researchers suggested that collocations should be taught explicitly to the EFL/ESL learners. They compared native speakers with non- native speakers of English and showed that knowledge about collocations is a must for competence in a language. Elyıldırım (1997) found that learners did not have a major difficulty in comprehending collocations, but that target collocations posed problem in production, though they were comprehended easily. She also observed that transparent collocations were produced to a greater extent than non-transparent collocations, and concluded that results revealed positive influence of the native language in the case of having a translation equivalent. Bahns (1993) proposed that there is a considerable number of collocations in English that have direct translation equivalence in German, and that these do not have to be taught. He claimed, however, that the acquisition of the collocations for which there is no direct translation equivalent in the L1 is much harder, and thus, teaching collocations in EFL should concentrate on these. Again, the study by Farghal and Obiedat (1995) propose that learning collocations is usually an effort-demanding task, which influence learners' production in the target language. So, for native-like fluency deficiencies in this area should be overcome.

Hill (cit. in Lewis 2000: 50) has introduced the term *collocational competence*, suggesting independence from other areas of linguistic competence. According to him, everyone in the field is familiar with the concept of *communicative competence*, but the concept of collocational competence should be added as a need in language learning and teaching. He states that research has revealed that lack of collocational competence forces learners into grammatical mistakes, because they create longer utterances since they do not know the collocations, which express concisely and precisely what they

want to say. For example, “His disability will continue until he dies.” should be “He has a permanent disability.”, so it is clear that verb + adjective + noun collocation is lacking, and in addition, even if students successfully navigate the grammar, what they produce often sounds awkward and very “intermediate”. He discusses that analysis of essay writing often shows a serious lack of collocational competence with the “de-lexicalised” verbs such as “get, put, make, do, bring, take”. For instance, “I make exercise every morning in the gym.”

Ellis (cit. in Schmitt and McCarthy 2001: 129) argues that native-like selection is not a matter of syntactic rule alone. He proposes that speaking natively is speaking idiomatically using frequent and familiar collocations, and the job of the language learner is to learn these familiar word sequences.

#### 2.2.5. Lexical Void

Most probably when considered interlingually, one might notice that almost in every language there could be some gaps regarding translation equivalents of certain words in the other language(s). In other words, some words may not have a translation equivalent in another language, which are named ‘lexical voids’.

The reasons of this semantic absence are most commonly due to cultural differences, technological developments, historical and geographical exceptions, etc. For instance, Spanish does not have common equivalents for “fussy, fidget, grudge” (Macaulay, 1966 cit. in Fisiak 1990). Again, Laufer notes that Hebrew does not have one- word equivalents for “weeds, quaint, cosy” (cit. in Fisiak, 1990: 582). In Turkish also there are many words that do not exist in English, *geçıştirmek*: to have or do something not completely or satisfactorily; *kürümek (kar)*: to clear snow away by scraping it off; *hal (meyve-sebze)*: a place where fruits, vegetables, and other food like fish, which are sold in an open market, are stored before distributed to greengrocers or individual sellers and sold to the public; *pazaracı*: a person (profession) who sells fresh fruits, vegetables, or other goods like fish to the public regularly in specific open markets.

Lexical voids can be discussed in two separate groups: voids in L2, and voids in L1. It is possible to assume that voids in L2 would be problematic in production, for the



reason that learners would find a gap in the target language for the concepts that they want to talk about, which can not be compensated for very satisfactorily, and thus, will interfere with the production process and their fluency in the L2. On the other hand, voids in L1 would be problematic in recognition, for the reason that learners would find a conceptual gap in their mother language, which would cause them to be involved in a process of new concept formation.

Lexical voids may exist in all languages for various reasons. However, societies have found a way to reduce the number of these items by borrowing new words from other languages. Another way to cover the gap is extending the meaning of the existing words. Metaphorical extension is a way to convey more messages by the help of a certain word by expanding its meaning and usage in everyday speech. Still, there may be many voids between languages. For instance, “ford” is a lexical void in Turkish because it does not have a single equivalent word, and can be explained only by a set of descriptions. For this reason, lexical voids remain as a difficulty-inducing factor in foreign language learning.

The following examples are some voids of English in Turkish: *loiter- indent- porch- skylight- prow- globule*. For a Turkish learner of English learning these words is learning a new concept that does not exist, or exists but simply does not have a name in the Turkish culture. Also, there are some Turkish voids in English like *kaçıncı* and *pazarıcı*. So, extending the meaning of “greengrocer”, the translation equivalent of Turkish “manav”, in order to meet the Turkish word “pazarıcı- a person who sells fruit and vegetables” would not be enough, and would not have the same impact on a Turkish person whose perception of “pazarıcı” is so clear.

In the literature there is not much research on the acquisition of lexical voids. When a word in L2 does not have an L1 equivalent, learners need an explanation, and may be an example to form a shape of an unfamiliar concept in their minds. This means that students have to learn not only a new word but also to create a new concept in their minds. In an experiment with Serbo-Croatian speaking learners of English, it was observed that the words “kettle” and “fireplace” were remembered and used less frequently than any other word because of the absence of these concepts in the students’

culture (Vilke, 1983). This is probably because learners did not understand these concepts very well.

#### **2.2.6. Parallel**

Parallel words are those natural items, which have a single one-word equivalent in two or more languages free of any tricky sense relations, or orthographic and/or acoustic distraction. In other words, parallel words are those items that have one-to-one translation equivalents in L1 and in L2 with complete overlap in meaning (e.g. glasses, vein, strike, etc.).

Since these word types have been seen as very natural and neutral elements of vocabulary, they have received very little or no interest, and thus, there is not much research recorded about this category. It would be expected, however, that L2 words with parallel words in L1 should be easy to learn because of the semantic similarity between the L2 and L1 words.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **(METHOD)**

#### **3.0. Method**

This chapter consists of four sections. In section 3.1 information about the participants, in 3.2 information about the materials used in the study, in 3.3, description of the procedure followed, and finally in 3.4 explanation about the scoring method used has been presented.

#### **3.1. Participants**

Participants in this study were 126 Turkish students who have been learning English as a foreign language in the School Of Foreign Languages at Uludag University, Bursa- Turkey. 45 of these students were used in conducting the pilot study in order to eliminate the less appropriate items from the test, and to evaluate and prepare the ultimate test. The rest of the students, the number of which was 81, were used in the main data collection. The learners ranged in age from 19 to 22 years. The mother tongue of the learners was Turkish, and they represented similar backgrounds. They were all upper- intermediate level students. All students became initially successful at a general Admissions Test (ÖSS) in Turkey as a result of which they became students of different departments at Uludag University. Next, they took a proficiency exam of English at the School Of Foreign Languages at Uludag University and were placed in the upper-intermediate classes (Class 1, Class2, Class 3, Class 4, Class 5). This is the standard application in the School Of Foreign Languages. Every year, the students that deserve to enrol in a program at Uludag University, have to take a general proficiency exam. Because having a certain level of a foreign language (English, French, German) is a must as a condition of becoming a student at Uludag University, the students have to prove their foreign language proficiency before they continue to their own program. In this respect, the ones who attain at least 70 from the proficiency exam directly go to the faculty and program that they have already deserved to go after the Admissions Test. The ones who attain a lower score have to go to the School Of Foreign Languages first

to study a foreign language more intensively, and to improve their foreign language. For this reason, every year the School Of Foreign Languages prepare a proficiency exam for the new coming students, which also serves as a placement test in the later processes of organising the program and classes.

### **3.2. Materials**

The materials used in the study were: 1. vocabulary test, and 2. study material, which was used in the treatment and consisted of two parts (learning material, and exercise material).

#### *3.2.1 Vocabulary Test*

The purpose of the vocabulary test (cf. Appendix I) was to diagnose the effectiveness of the teaching material, and mainly to distinguish between the difficulty level in the process of learning and retrieving the meanings of the provided words of the six word categories under investigation.

Vocabulary test consisted of 32 items all of which were multiple-choice items where students were asked to choose the word that completes the blank in the sentence stem. The sentences were very carefully constructed in order to ensure that they are simple and easy to understand, and most importantly that they are contextualised so that students could be able to distinguish the right and most appropriate choice given. Some of the sentences used in the vocabulary test were adopted or adapted from the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Metro- Longman Dictionary, Collins Cobuild Dictionary, and Oxford Collocations Dictionary. All sentences were checked for acceptability in English by an English native speaker. Five choices were given for each item, four of which were distractors.

Six categories were tested in the vocabulary test. These were false cognates, collocations, convergence, divergence, void, and parallel (cf. Appendix II for the list of items in each category).

False cognates were totally 4 items (moral- menagerie- complexion- industrious) all of which were semantic and full false cognates. The English meanings of these were tested. The false cognates in this study were words that had exactly the same, or similar

pronunciation or spelling in Turkish and English but very unrelated meanings in the two languages. For instance, the word “moral” in English means concerning principles of right and wrong behaviour; ethical. However, in Turkish it means the mood state of someone, whether her/his mood is good or bad. The example below is the item that was presented in the vocabulary test.

*He refused to join the army on \_\_\_\_\_ grounds.*

- a) *hard*                      b) *unbelievable*                      c) *moral*  
d) *strange*                      e) *admirable*

Collocations were also 4 items. There were two types of collocations in the test, verb-noun collocations (build a fantasy- run a deficit), and adjective-noun collocations (strong tea- heavy traffic). None of these collocations had direct equivalents in the native language of the learners’ that is Turkish. For instance, “run a shop” is a collocation in which run and shop go with each other in English. However, this is not the same in Turkish. The equivalent of this collocation in Turkish is “dükkan işletmek”. The direct translation of the English collocation “dükkan koşmak” is not an acceptable collocation in Turkish. In the test items for verb-noun collocations, the verb was omitted (*run* from run a deficit, and *build* from build a fantasy). In adjective-noun collocations it was the adjective that was omitted (*strong* from strong tea, and *heavy* from heavy traffic). The learners were asked to choose the correct word that completes the sentence from among the alternatives, as in the example for *strong tea* below:

*Too much \_\_\_\_\_ tea is not good for your nerves!*

- a) *strong*                      b) *dark*                      c) *dense*  
d) *well- boiled*                      e) *weak*

As it is clear in the test item above, the appropriate word that completes the collocation is “strong”, which would be translated as “demli çay”, or “koyu çay” into Turkish. However, the direct translation of “strong” is “güçlü” in Turkish, which is an adjective most commonly used to describe people or animals, and thus, “güçlü çay” sounds completely ridiculous. The distractors provided in this example were “dark”,

which is the closest translation of Turkish “koyu çay” into English. Another is “dense”, which translates into Turkish as “yoğun”. Although semantically not incorrect, “yoğun çay” is not a common collocation in Turkish but might be chosen by the learners because of the pure density of the tea flavour. “Well-boiled- çok/iyi kaynamış” tea is again not a very common usage but might be accepted by the learners for the reason that the tea needs to be boiled in order to get the best flavour and colour. Finally, “weak-zayıf”, which is completely unacceptable and incorrect usage “zayıf çay” in Turkish, was the last distractor as the antonym of “strong”, the correct word in this item.

Convergence items were originally 4 (*fragile- kırılğan, and hassas; poverty-yoksulluk, and fakirlik; bend- bükme, and katlamak; hesitate- tereddüt etmek, and duraksamak*), but totally 8 items were prepared for the test. There were 2 items for each word since each word in English had two meanings, which corresponded to two words in Turkish. So, both of the meanings were tested. For instance, the word “poverty” can be translated in two different ways into Turkish as “yoksulluk” or “fakirlik”. There are some slight differences between these words. “Yoksulluk” is used in a condition when something does not exist or exists in very limited amounts, and is a more general term that has a wider usage area. However, “fakirlik” is mostly used when there is little money and in conditions related with lack of money. In the first example below taken from the vocabulary test “poverty” stands for Turkish “yoksulluk”, and in the second for “fakirlik”.

*His later stories show a surprising \_\_\_\_\_ of imagination.*

- a) inflation                      b) ambiguity                      c) product*  
*d) research                      e) poverty*

*\_\_\_\_\_ prevented the boy from continuing his education.*

- a) lack                      b) luck                      c) satisfaction*  
*d) ambition                      e) poverty*

There were eight test items for the four divergence items with two English words for each word in Turkish: (*income- revenue: gelir, excavate- unearth: kazmak, lantern-torch: fener, fragrance- odour: koku*). Both of the English equivalents were tested in

separate items, and in each test item both of the words were placed among the other three choices. For example, both “income” and “revenue” are translated as “gelir” into Turkish. Likewise, income and revenue are different in meaning since “income” is used usually for the money that you receive for your work, but “revenue” is used mostly for the total annual income from taxes. As it is seen in the “revenue-income” pair below, in all divergence items both of the words were put among the other choices. In the following examples “income” was put among the distractors for “revenue”, and “revenue” was put among the distractors for “income”. The purpose of this application was to see whether the students could make a distinction that does not exist in their L1 between “income” and “revenue”.

*The government was short of money because of falling oil \_\_\_\_\_.*

- a) incomes                      b) fees                      c) qualities  
d) revenues                      e) reserves

*People on fixed \_\_\_\_\_ are hurt by inflation.*

- a) revenues                      b) works                      c) taxes  
d) incomes                      e) professions

The fifth category was lexical void, more specifically void in L1. Void in L2 was not investigated because it would be meaningless to test some L1 words like “hal(meyve,sebze); peştamal; rahle”, which do not have equivalents in English but are Turkish. It would be more appropriate to test ‘lexical void in L2’ category if the subjects were not Turkish, or had very limited knowledge of Turkish vocabulary. There were four words of English for which no equivalents exist in Turkish (indent- globule- flicker- prowl). For example, the word “prowl” means to move quietly and cautiously trying not to be noticed, for which there is no single word equivalent in Turkish. All provided distractors were from the same word class with the correct choice: verbs in “indent” and “prowl”, and nouns in “globule” and “flicker” items.

*I heard someone \_\_\_\_\_ about in the garden.*

- a) searching                      b) looking                      c) prowling  
d) shouting                      e) playing

The last category was parallel. There were 4 parallel items that have translation equivalents in both languages (enrol- kaydetmek, exploit- sömürmek, menace- tehlike, provision- tedarik). For example, “exploit” and sömürmek are parallel words and they translate one another into the other language. Below is one of the parallel items used in the vocabulary test:

*The country's mineral resources have been \_\_\_\_\_ by foreign powers.*

*a) prevented                      b) spoiled                      c) exploded*

*d) manufactured                  e) exploited*

Initially 60 items were pilot- tested with 45 subjects. The items were divided into two with 30 in one test and the rest 30 in another test. The main purpose of this application was not to bore students with a long test but to make them more cooperative by giving them a much shorter test. On the basis of item analysis results, some items were eliminated after the pilot according to the rate that they have been known by students. Only the least known items were selected for the main data collection. Items that were answered correctly by less than 20% of the learners were considered as ideal since this rate could be attained just by luck, thus, it did not mean that subjects really knew these words. To further ensure that target words were previously unknown to the subjects, their course teachers were consulted, and course books were examined. This further confirmed that the selected words were unknown to the majority of the students. Furthermore, responses given to each distractor of all 60 items were contrasted and compared. The distractors that were observed to be weak or inappropriate were replaced. Items were randomised according to the “random numbers table” both in the pilot and final version of the vocabulary test.

### *3.2.2. Study Material*

Two types of study material were given to the subjects. These were learning material (cf. Appendix III), and exercise material (cf. Appendix IV). Both materials were constructed in a such way that they completed and supported each other. Directions and explanations were both in English and Turkish in order to avoid any misunderstanding or confusion. The purpose of the study material was to direct and help



students to work on the target words and to learn their meanings. Students studied the 32 words that were tested in the vocabulary test.

#### *3.2.2.1. Learning Material*

Learning material contains all words that were used in the vocabulary test. Subjects were provided with definitions of the meanings of these words and with a sample sentence for each word. Definitions of the words and sample sentences were taken mostly from the Longman-Metro Dictionary, Collins Cobuild Dictionary, and Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Some definitions as well as the sample sentences were modified in order to remove the probable unknown words and to make them easier to understand. Collocations were given as a unit (run a deficit, build a fantasy, strong tea, heavy traffic), and explained in the clearest and simplest way. Convergence and divergence items were introduced in a way that learners would be able to see the distinction between the words, and could understand both meanings. Divergence items were presented such that English words diverging to the same Turkish word (e.g. odour and fragrance for koku) followed one another in the material. In the same way, the two polysemous meanings of convergence items were given in pairs under the L2 word (e.g. poverty). All the sentences that were used in the study material were different from the sentences used in the vocabulary test. The items were presented in a randomised but a different order from the vocabulary test.

#### *3.2.2.2. Exercise Material*

The exercise material consisted exactly of the same words, definitions, and sentences that were used in the learning material. The exercise material consisted of two parts: recognition (cf. Appendix IV) and production (cf. Appendix V).

The recognition part was an exercise list where subjects were asked to match the words with their definitions. There were 28 words and 32 definitions provided. The two definitions of each convergence item were provided separately so that learners should become aware of the polysemy in convergence items, which corresponded to different words in their L1. The order of the target words was exactly the same as in the learning material, and the order of the definitions was randomised. There were not any



unmatched items in the list provided. In the case of convergence items, one word matched two definitions.

In the production part there were sentences in which a blank was left that students were asked to fill with the appropriate words from the words-box given. There were 28 words in the words-box, and 32 sentences each of which had a blank to be completed. The order of both sentences and words was randomised and different from the learning material. Additionally, because the convergence items were introduced with two different definitions in the learning material, students were instructed that one word might be used in more than one gap. In the sentences that collocations were used, for verb-noun collocations the verbs, and for adjective-noun collocations the adjectives were deleted. Thus, “run, build, strong, and heavy” were provided in the words-box.

### **3.3. Procedure**

The data material was given to the learners during normal class hours, in two separate occasions over one week. The first time, the study material, and in the second meeting the vocabulary test was given. Of the two sets of study material, the learning material was given first so that students could study the meanings of the target words. The teacher was in the classroom and conducted the administration. The researcher did not participate in the activities in order not to affect the usual nature of the class. Students were asked to study the material carefully in order to learn the new vocabulary presented to them. They were informed that they would later be tested on these words. Therefore, the subjects examined the definitions of the target words and the example sentences that were provided for 45 minutes. After a short brake the exercise material was given and the learning material was not collected back. Students were asked to go back to the learning material when they were unsure for the reason that having that option could help them retain the correct word and/or meaning. Also, having a look back at the words they studied might serve as a useful feedback to the learners in the way that they might not forget again the meaning of the word that they forgot. In this direction, students completed the exercises with the help of their knowledge attained previously from the learning material. The learning and exercise sessions took two class hours, which was totally 90 minutes.

After completing the exercise material, feedback was given and correct answers were discussed in the classroom. All study material was collected back at the end. Students said that the whole activity was very useful and claimed that they learned all words happily.

After studying the learning and exercise materials, the vocabulary test was applied three days later in their usual class hour. The time allocated for the vocabulary test was 45 minutes. The purpose of the study was not revealed, just said that it was for a Masters thesis.

The efficiency of treatment was considered adequate as in the discussion and feedback session students claimed that they learned every word, and that nothing was vague. The evaluation with the students clarified that the teaching value of the study material was regarded as sufficient enough to learn the words in question.

#### *3.4. Scoring*

A total frequency score was appointed to each word as well as word category in the vocabulary test in order to diagnose the success rate in total regarding the frequency number. Each score showed the number of learners who correctly answered a given item/ a set of items. There were 4 items from each category of the following: false cognates, collocations, void, and parallel words and 8 items from each of convergence, and divergence. The ultimate frequency proportions were expected to predict the ease and/or difficulty level of the six word categories.

## CHAPTER FOUR (RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION)

### 4.0. Results and Discussion

The order of the units in this chapter is as it is in the table of overall results of difficulty inducing factors. In section 4.1 the overall results of difficulty, attained after the data analysis, have been stated. Section 4.2 provides information about the degree of difficulty caused by false cognate category, in 4.3 convergence category, in 4.4 divergence category, in 4.5 collocation category, in 4.6 lexical void category, and finally in 4.7 parallel word category has been discussed, and an evaluation about the probable reasons of difficulty have been stated.

#### 4.1. Overall Results of Difficulty Inducing Factors

In the table below the frequencies and percentages of the correctly answered items in the vocabulary test for each word category have been given. The maximum possible correct responses in the vocabulary test for 4 item categories (false cognate, collocation, void, and parallel) were 324, which represent 81 students multiplied by 4 items, and the maximum possible correct responses for 8 item categories (convergence, and divergence) were 648, which represent 81 students multiplied by 8 items. Calculated in this respect, the following frequencies and percentages have been attained.

Table 4.1. Overall Results Of Difficulty Inducing Factorsrs

	False Cog (N=324)	Conver (N=648)	Diver (N=648)	Collocat (N=324)	Void (N=324)	Parallel (N=324)	Total Possible Frequency (N=2592)
Frequency	270	561	421	272	267	244	2035
%	83,33	86,57	64,96	83,95	82,40	75,30	79,41

By looking at the data in the table, and especially regarding the last column, it is possible to comment that teaching procedure was successful and that the treatment was effective since the total percentage of success was around 79%. Considering the initial knowledge, which was less than 20%, the improvement after the study and exercise sessions reveals to be around 60%, which is a very significant rate. This result also supports the findings of Laufer (2003), where she claims that “intentional” vocabulary acquisition is much useful, compared to the “incidental” vocabulary acquisition. In her study she challenged the notions which claim that reading is the major source of vocabulary acquisition in L2. She reported on three experiments in which vocabulary gains from reading were compared with gains from word-focused tasks. The results of her study revealed that through tasks more words were learned than through reading. Similarly, the study of Paribakht and Wesche (1997) compared the vocabulary acquisition of the learners who took only a reading activity with learners who took reading activity plus some vocabulary exercises. Results showed that learners who took additional vocabulary tasks acquired significantly more words. Again, Lupescu and Day (1993) provided evidence that learners who read a text and looked up unknown words in the dictionary remembered them better compared to learners who read the text without using a dictionary. There are many studies that support the idea that intentional vocabulary learning produces much more output compared to incidental vocabulary learning, and that tasks and dictionaries assist in this process (Knight, 1994; Cho and Krashen, 1994). Thus, having evidence from these studies as well, it is possible to say that word-focused exercises are very effective in providing students with better recognition and recall performance.

On the basis of the results we can order the categories from easier to learn to more difficult to learn as the following:

1. Convergence
2. Collocations, False cognates, Lexical Voids (all around 83%)
3. Parallel
4. Divergence

According to Stockwell et al. (1965), “parallel” category should be the easiest one with 0 rating of difficulty; “convergence” category should be the second easiest with the rating of 1, and “divergence”, “false cognate” and “collocation” categories should follow with a difficulty rating of 3, and “lexical void” with 4. The prediction according to the list of Stockwell et al. from easy to learn to more difficult is as in the following:

1. Parallel (0)
2. Convergence (1)
3. Collocation/ Divergence/ False cognate (3)
4. Void in L1 (4)

The surprising result of the present study was that lexical void, false cognate, and collocation categories revealed not to be that difficult to learn as expected, and that parallel category arose to be surprisingly harder than expected. Thus, the only expected result was observed in convergence category as an easy category as expected, and in divergence category that was predicted to be among the hardest ones, and which revealed to be the most difficult one to learn by the students.

Convergence category was expected to be the second easiest category regarding the list of Stockwell et al., and really easy to learn according to the results from the pilot study. Nevertheless, convergence items revealed to be the easiest as approximately 87% correct responses were given to the questions consisting of the words of this category. This result is not surprising since learners “overlook the distinctions” between the L1 words that correspond to the same L2 word, and thus, there is opportunity for generalisation. Likewise, when there is a relation between L1 meanings, matching an L2 word with its L1 equivalents becomes an easy process. So, for Turkish learners of English, especially in low proficiency levels, all English homographs, homographic and homophonic, and polysemous words are a kind of convergence items. Bogaards (2001: 333) states that many senses of polysemous words have some kind of relationship due to dynamic elements of the lexicon like metonymy and metaphor. And, since there is meaning relatedness between the words of these groups, learning them becomes an easier task compared to other word categories in this study. Bogaards (2001) provided

two experimental studies in which the acquisition of different kinds of lexical units was investigated. In the second study the acquisition of totally new lexical units were compared with the acquisition of different types of new senses of familiar forms (e.g. polysemy and homonymy). According to the findings, the subjects were more successful with polysemous items than with totally new words. Likewise, meaning relation in polysemy (i.e. convergence) facilitated learning in our data as well.

Collocations, false cognates, and divergence items were expected to be the second hardest ones after lexical void category according to the list of Stockwell et al., and all were rated at difficulty level of 3. However, collocations, and false cognates were detected to be the second and third easiest after the convergence category, with less than 1% difference between them (0,62%). These results were unexpected. It was observed that “giving familiar items new shapes or positions”, as is the case in false cognates and collocations, was not such a distracting and difficulty inducing factor in vocabulary learning that would cause a problem of a rate of 3 as predicted. The correct responses given to the “false cognate” and “collocation” items in the vocabulary test was around 83%, which suggests that when considering vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language, false cognate and collocation categories are not among the most difficult categories to learn. The process in learning these two word categories is most probably *adjustment to what is previously known*. Learning false cognates involves *giving familiar forms new meanings*, which is easier than learning both new forms and their meanings. So, the availability of form transfer from L1 to L2 seems to facilitate vocabulary acquisition. Again, when it comes to collocations, learners just have to *make new combinations of previously known L2 words for corresponding L1 collocations*. So, the availability of meaning transfer from L1 to L2 when L1 has combinations with a similar meaning might be another facilitating factor in acquiring the items of collocation category. It was also predicted that the two categories would present learners with equal difficulty, which was supported by the data. The reason for this might be the fact that for both word categories support of L1 exists, which reveals that the assistance of L1 is a facilitating factor. Apparently, students had to learn only a new “form” in the case of collocations, or a new “meaning” in the case of false cognates and not both. Additionally, regarding both word categories, it might have been very interesting and



attention catching for the students to see that the form or meaning they already know has very different equivalent in L2. Thus, making these more salient and noticeable to the learners might facilitate the learning.

Again, the fact that collocations were observed to be the second easiest category in L2 vocabulary learning should not be that surprising. The probable reason of this might be that the rest of the word group was given and only the first part requested. For instance, “..... a fantasy” was given in the sentence and just the blank was requested to be filled in with the correct choice provided below, which would be “build”. The second part of the collocation could simply help learners to recall the first part. A clear support to this idea is the study of Bogaards (2001) in which he observed that the scores for multiword items were statistically higher than it was for one-word items.

Void in L1 category was expected to be the most difficult one as it was rated at a difficulty level of 4 in the list of Stockwell et al., yet, it appeared to be the second easiest together with collocation and false cognate categories. This surprising result may be explained as that students did not have much difficulty in developing a schema and acquiring a completely new shape and its meaning, and attaching it into their mental units. Because of lack of L1 correspondence, this word category probably became much salient, which required more mental effort that resulted in successful learning. Jacoby et al. (1979) and Haastrup (1991) discussed that words that are guessed with some difficulty will be remembered better because difficulty leads to processing effort, which creates a more distinctive memory trace (cit. in Laufer, 2003).

Parallel words were predicted to be the easiest among all others. However, it was observed that 25% of the responses given to the “parallel” items were wrong, which is the second highest rate considering the six word categories. Thus, the parallel category was the second most difficult category after divergence. This is a condition where positive transfer of meaning from L1 was available as it was noted by Stockwell et al. In spite of being regarded as an easy process, it appears to be more complicated than expected. The difficulty inducing factor in this category might be the difficulty of form learning. Although meaning could be transferred from the L1, form cannot be



transferred as it is different in the two languages, and therefore the facilitating L1 factor that existed in the false cognate category was lacking in parallel items. Many researchers claim that form learning is more difficult than the learning of meaning, and that recalling form is harder. Nation (2000: 63-69) provides models of effective vocabulary learning, where he also points out to the necessity of focusing on “form” before focusing on “meaning”, and he offers various techniques to do so including the *What is it?* technique. Experiments on remembering (Jenkins, 1974) have shown that recalling the “form” of a word is more difficult than recalling its “meaning” (cit. in Nation 2000: 67). Again, the focus of the first study in Bogaards (2001) was the acquisition of totally new lexical units compared with the acquisition of multiword items that were made up of familiar forms. According to the findings, it was observed that new senses of well-known forms were better retained than the totally new lexical units. Both studies in Bogaards (2001) provided evidence that in the acquisition of new words, knowledge of “form” was crucial, and that knowledge of previously learned “meaning” was not that important. Similarly, learning a new form was a difficult task for the students in this study, regarding especially the parallel category. Also, because there was not any difficulty in learning the meaning, learners might have underestimated the items of this category, and thus, put less mental effort to learn them. Laufer (2003) argued that the mental effort put into learning a word would affect its retention. Mondria and Wit de Boer (1991) found that words which appeared in rich contexts were guessed with ease, however, were remembered less well than words guessed with difficulty from poor contexts. And since parallel items did not pose any difficulty at the conceptual level as other five categories, they might have been perceived as easier and non problematic, which caused the learners to fail in putting much mental effort while learning. Thus, the consensus in the literature that depth-of-processing is a crucial variable for vocabulary retention seems to be correct (cf. Segler et al., 2002).

Divergence items were expected to be more difficult than convergence items. This word category was also expected to reveal approximate rates with the collocation and false cognate categories. The first prediction revealed to be correct, however, the second prediction was not supported by the data.

According to the data attained from the vocabulary test, divergence items were observed as the most difficult ones. This result is not surprising since learners had to *make new distinctions of the new L2 meanings*, and additionally to learn two new forms corresponding to these meanings, while they had to learn only one in convergence category. Hence, the generalisation opportunity did not exist here.

Again, the L1 support that existed in the collocation and false cognate categories did not exist here. Students had to learn two different L2 forms as the equivalents of a single L1 form, as well as, the difference between the meanings of these two forms.

To sum up, learning divergence items means learning synonyms, and, convergence of polysemy. Laufer (1990) states that learning a multiplicity of forms for one meaning as in the case of synonyms creates an unnecessary load for learners (cit. in Fisiak, 1990). She also points out to the fact that synonymy learning (i.e. divergence) is more difficult than other types of meaning relation like antonyms, hyponymys, and converseness. Linnarud (1983) provided evidence that learners do not acquire synonyms easily. In her study she examined the compositions of Swedish learners of English and found that students repeated the same words since they were not able to describe the same thing with different words. Regarding the empirical evidence in the literature, Laufer (1990) concluded that once a form for a meaning is acquired, another form for the same meaning would be superfluous and would take more time and practice to acquire (cit. in Fisiak, 1990). Finch (2000: 184) also adds that many synonyms differ in their collocational range. This means that not all synonyms co-occur with the same words. For instance, “powerful, mighty, and strong” look interchangeable but they do not all occur with “tea, ocean, and language”, and even they do occur, the meaning would probably be different in each case: “powerful language”, for example, has a different meaning from “strong language”. For this reason, avoiding learning of all aspects of synonyms would probably result in lack of success in learning divergence items, as it was revealed in this study. Laufer (1990) stated that if a learner has acquired two items as synonymous in one context, he might generalise their use into other contexts where they are not synonyms (cit. in Fisiak, 1990). Thus, meaning relation as a

facilitating factor, as it was in convergence items, did not seem to apply to the case of divergence items.

Regarding all the discussion so far, the results attained from the data become not that surprising. Nevertheless, it should not be forgotten that the predictions that Stockwell et al. (1965) postulated were for the acquisition of phonological forms and not for the acquisition of words.

#### 4.2. False Cognates

In the table below the frequency and the rate of the correct responses on false cognates are presented. According to the results in the table, “industrious” (90%) and “menagerie” (86%) seem to be easier to learn compared to “moral” (79%) and “complexion” (78%).

Table 4.2. False Cognates

	Frequency	%
moral	64	79,01
industrious	73	90,12
menagerie	70	86,41
complexion	63	77,77

To comment on the results above, understanding the psychological mood of the subjects, their background knowledge of both mother tongue and the foreign language as well as their preferred learning strategies seems necessary. However, it would not be so naive to say that if there is a kind of relation between the meanings of an L2 word and an L1 false cognate that students can link naturally as a learning strategy, it would be much easier to learn compared to those words without any close or possible relation.

For instance, the word *industrious* does not mean “endüstri” or have any relation with industry in Turkish, which makes it a false cognate, but it probably becomes very easy to learn that word once the students put a link between hard work and creativity or production. Industrious means being hard working as an adjective, and since “endüstri” requires hard work for creativity or production, the retention of this word, may be with very little effort, becomes possible. This kind of reasoning is possible, of course, if learners are making a morphological analysis of the target word. They probably know what industry is, and this word is a cognate in Turkish for they use “endüstri” exactly in the same sense. Thus, this might initially lead their predictions in a wrong way, but luckily not making them too far away of the correct meaning of the word itself. To sum up, derived forms with different meanings might not necessarily be hard to learn since they originally come from the same word family and stem.

The same principle could be applied to the word *menagerie* also. This word is a false cognate in Turkish because the translation equivalent is not “menajer-manager”. However, here also students’ knowledge might lead them to a wrong way as a result of which they might luckily find a good link to put between the correct meaning and the word they already know in Turkish. “Menagerie” means zoo and not “manager” as they might initially predict or guess, but once they are told the meaning they might use their brains in a similar way they do when learning the word “industrious”. Manager rules someone or something. This could be a person, an animal, or a company, etc. and since a zoo needs to be managed as a company or a school does, or since animals need to be ruled much more than people do indeed, the link between menagerie and managing animals becomes a valid way of learning this word. Likewise, “menagerie” derives from the same word family, which could allow learners to do a morphological analysis. Nevertheless, here there might be another important factor that could make the word easy to learn. In many conditions, when learners become so sure about the meaning of a word they think they know just because they know another word coming from the same stem or word family, they might become shocked and very surprised when hearing the correct meaning of the word and seeing that they are very wrong in fact. So, in this example the word “menagerie” might have done the same shocking effect on learners and a kind of strong effect like that might force them to spend more effort, time or

interest on that word in order to learn it. It is a forcing instinct to pay more attention and be more careful when you go wrong about something.

The word *moral* is a good false cognate in Turkish because it seems as a simple cognate and nothing more, but it is not. There is nothing derivational or morphological here. However, the word itself has exactly the same spelling with the word “moral” in Turkish. This is an example of words exactly same written, but occupying different meanings. “Moral” in Turkish means someone’s psychological state, the way he/she feels, the good or bad mood of someone or something. It is very obvious that this word is used very differently in the two languages. To evaluate the situation here, one might comment it as same spelled words, having different meanings, and thus, very normal to be more difficult to learn than the other false cognate items.

On the other hand, the word *complexion* and words of the same type might become a real problem for learners of a foreign language. It neither derives from the same word family nor allows learners to set a link between the word they know and the meaning of this word. “Kompleks” in Turkish is mostly used for bad manner, behaviour or ego. People who are not satisfied intrinsically are mentioned to have a “kompleks”. There is not even a very little relation with the meaning of complexion as skin colour. What is more, the word “complex” that probably students might know does not come from the same word family. If it is seen as the stem of complexion it would lead learners to very wrong meanings and not even near. So, when students cannot get even close to a word either from their native language or from their background knowledge of the foreign language, they might get into big trouble in learning these words. For this reason, when a word is not accessible either from L1 or L2, and when it leads to very different meanings, ambiguity and confusion after morphological analysis, it might become extremely difficult for learners to cope with it. In this example it is clear that “complexion”, “complex”, and “kompleks” are not semantically related in any sense.

To sum up, it would be possible to say that morphological structure and semantic relation are important tools that students benefit from. If these tools are lacking, then learners might need a shocking effect, but after that any attempt to learn an unknown word would probably require extra effort, attention and hard work.

### 4.3. Convergence

In the table below responses given to the convergence items in the vocabulary test are presented. For the reason that a word in L2 has two equivalents in L1, for example, “bend” could be translated either as “katlamak” or “bükme” into Turkish, a detailed analysis of the convergence category has been done. According to this investigation, out of 324 total responses, it has been observed that subjects gave 78% correct answers to both meanings of the words in the L2, 4% of the responses failed to find the correct choices to either meaning, and 18% answers revealed that only one meaning was correctly answered. The figure in this vocabulary category is as L1>L2, which means that L1 comprises L2 in the sense that L1 has more substitutes related to the meaning of a word in L2. This notion is going to be helpful in the further discussions of this chapter. Below in table 4.3 the total numbers for all convergence items are provided. A more detailed data is provided in table 4.3.1 where each item and the responses given to it are presented.

Table 4.3. Convergence

	Both Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	252	14	58
%	77,77	4,32	17,90

As it might be noticed from the table 4.3, there is a huge dominance of “both correct answers”, which might be interpreted as the effect of availability of “overgeneralization” that facilitates the acquisition and correct use of words. In other words, the learners are able to converge their knowledge of the corresponding two words in their native language to the single target language word without any effort to make a distinction because the target word matches both L1 words in meaning.



The table below presents the data results attained for each convergence item. The numbers stated here are clear enough to see that convergence items are generally easy to learn. The only unexpected result was observed in “poverty” item, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Table 4.3.1. Data Results Attained for Each Convergence Item

	Both Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Hesitate	79 %	10 %	11 %
Poverty	60 %	1 %	38 %
Fragile	89 %	0 %	11 %
Bend	83 %	6 %	11 %

In the table below, answers given to the two questions involving “hesitate” are given. It is observed that out of 81 subjects, 79% answered both of the questions correctly, 10% of the participants failed to give any correct answer, and 11% achieved in answering only one of the questions correctly. Among the responses that only one of the meaning was correct, it was observed that “tereddüt etmek” was learned slightly better (6) than “duraksamak” (3). According to this table, saying that learners were generally successful in finding the correct choices in the test, and thus, have learned the word “hesitate” would not be wrong. Also, double words in their L1 seem not to cause much uncertainty or confusion. The fact that hesitate can be converted into more than one possible ways into Turkish might have left room for generalisation. For example, when learners face two different situations or contexts to say “tereddüt etmek” or “duraksamak” they need to make a selection between them in Turkish, but when in English, they just can say hesitate in both situations and get out of trouble without any problem.



Table 4.3.2. Hesitate

	Both Meanings Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	64	8	9
%	79,01	9,87	11,11

The table presented below for the word “poverty” reveals interesting results. Most of the subjects have done both or at least one question correct, which could be a sign of success. However, this word showed a much lower success rate (60%) compared to “hesitate” (79%), “fragile” (89%), and “bend” (83%). Learners clearly have acquired its meaning generally. Here the point for discussion could be that 38% of the students failed to find the correct answer for one of the questions. Among the responses that only one of the meaning was correct, it was observed that “fakirlik” was learned better (25), and “yoksulluk” was not acquired that well (6). The excuse for this rate might be the very close meaning relation between “yoksulluk” and “fakirlik”, which in some conditions can be hard to distinguish even in L1, or purely the effective distractors in the choices given. In this respect, if we consider the number of 31 from a more positive side, we can say that the students have learned at least one of the meanings, and that the success rate of “poverty” is also high.

Table 4.3.3. Poverty

	Both Meanings Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	49	1	31
%	60,49	1,23	38,27

As it could be seen in the table below, the word “fragile” was revealed to be easy to learn. None of the subjects have failed in giving a correct answer, and 89% of the learners managed to give the correct answers to both items. The word fragile may be the easiest, since it is again converted into Turkish for two different conditions. In Turkish “kırmak” has a very wide usage scope although primarily it is used for things and not for people. Thus, in the vocabulary test “kırılğan” meaning was tested for things. When it comes to people, “hassas” would be the most correct word. However, again there is nothing to prevent people from using “kırılğan” in both conditions, but these senses are not so interchangeable as “fakirlik-yoksulluk” in the example of “poverty”. Among the responses that only one of the meaning was correct, it was observed that “kırılğan” was acquired better (7), and “hassas” was not learned that well (2).

Table 4.3.4. Fragile

	Both Meanings Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	72	0	9
%	88,88	0	11,11

In Turkish, equivalents of “bend” are “bükmek”, “katlamak”, and “kivırmak” but after a survey before the data was collected, Turkish people mostly tended to prefer “bükmek” and “katlamak” rather than “kivırmak”, which could be used as a slang for “running away from an uncomfortable position”. In this instance, 83% of the subjects have found it easy to just say “bend” in the situations in which “katlamak” and “bükmek” were stated. However, in Turkish it would not be that appropriate to use just “katlamak” or “bükmek” in both conditions, since “katlamak” is used for things of soft material, but “bükmek” for things made of hard material. Among the responses that only one of the meaning was correct, it was observed that “katlamak” was acquired better (6), and “bükmek” was not learned that well (3).

Table 4.3.5. Bend

	Both Meanings Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	67	5	9
%	82,71	6,17	11,11

What is obvious from the data gathered is that, in convergence category generalisation seems to be a very often-occupied strategy, which helps learners to learn only one new word in L2, which they can later use in more than one context. Certainly, this is a good way of compensation opportunity for learners. They can spend less time and effort, and say more in L2 regarding their thoughts in L1 that is inside their heads.

#### 4.4. Divergence

Divergence category is in a way the opposite of convergence for a foreign language learner. A word in L1 would have at least two or more translation equivalents in L2, which could force students to learn two different words in L2 to say what they in fact do by saying a single word in their native language. So, the figure in this vocabulary category would be as  $L2 > L1$  that means L2 comprises L1 because of the existence of more substitutes in L2 for a given L1 word. For instance, in Turkish you can say just “koku” to mention a smell, but in English it does matter because there is difference in meaning between fragrance, which means a nice smell, and odour, which means a bad smell. In Turkish you distinguish the kind of the smell by modifying koku with “güzel-good”, or “kötü-bad”.

In the table below, there is a general overview of the answers given for the items of this category. The numbers here show that subjects have given 49% accurate answers to both items of the words in L2, 19% of the subjects failed to give any correct response, and 33% answers revealed that only one word was correctly answered. These numbers might predict that there is a real problem in learning the words of this category. Below a detailed analysis for each pair of words is presented. In half of the

cases, both words were learnt. In about 20% of the cases neither word was learnt, and for about 30% of the items only one of the synonyms was learnt. These findings support the idea that the acquisition of synonyms is difficult.

When compared with Table 4.3. one may notice the difference between L1 to L2 correspondances and L2 to L1 correspondances. The nature of these directions show that there are more one-to-one correspondances in the direction of L2>L1. that is the case of “divergence”, but more one-to-many correspondances in the direction of L1>L2, which is the case of “convergence”. Having a comparative look to the numbers in the two tables (Table 4.3. and Table 4.4.) one may notice that the rate of “one correct” responses in Table 4.4. (33%) is approximately double of the rate in Table 4.3. (18%), which suggests that learners generally tend to associate only one of the corresponding L2 words with the word in L1. However, the numbers in Table 4.3. indicate that one-to-many correspondances have been established to a much higher rate as the correct responses given to “both words” is (78%), which is a significant difference compared with the rate in Table 4.4. (49%).

Table 4.4. Divergence

	Both Words Correct	None Correct	One Correct
Frequency	158	60	106
%	48,76	18,51	32,71

#### 4.4.1. Lantern-Torch

“Lantern – torch” pair was tested to find out whether students could differentiate between these words as the translation equivalents of the word “fener” in Turkish. In English these two words are different in meaning and have different contexts and usages. Lantern means “portable light for use outdoors in a transparent case that protects it from the wind”, but torch means “small hand-held electric lamp”.

Table 4.4.1. Lantern-Torch

	Lantern Correct	Torch Correct	Torch Instead of Lantern	Lantern Instead of Torch	Other Instead of Lantern	Other Instead of Torch
Frequency	56	23	21	44	4	14
%	69,13	28,39	25,92	54,32	4,93	17,28

Results revealed that 69% of the responses for the word “lantern”, and 28% for “torch” were correct. This suggests that “lantern” was learnt to a better degree than “torch”. Again, 26% of the responses for “lantern” were confused with “torch”, while in 54% “lantern” was used instead of torch, which suggests that “lantern” is the dominant, or more often preferred word noticing the fact that the confusion rate for “torch” is nearly double of that for “lantern”. It means that the subjects tend to generalize “lantern” and use it where “torch” would be appropriate. And, only 5% of the responses showed that subjects just picked “another word” from the choices given instead of “lantern”, while 17% of the given responses provided evidence that the students selected another word among the distractors as an answer instead of “torch”. All these findings show that “lantern” is the dominant or more often preferred or better understood and acquired word.

#### 4.4.2. Excavate-Unearth

In the table below results for the word pair “excavate – unearth” are given. The Turkish equivalent of these words is “kazmak”. In Turkish one could easily use “kazmak” in either “excavate” or “unearth” sense. However, in English these two words are slightly different in meaning and have different contexts and usages. Excavate means “to dig a hole in the ground”, but unearth means “to make something that is underground visible by removing the earth on it”. That is why knowing this difference is important to be able to use these words conveniently.

Table 4.4.2. Excavate-Unearth

	Excavate Correct	Unearth Correct	Unearth Instead of Excavate	Excavate Instead of Unearth	Other Instead of Excavate	Other Instead of Unearth
Frequency	53	48	21	18	7	15
%	65,43	59,25	25,92	22,22	8,64	18,51

Results revealed that 65% responses for the word “excavate”, and 59% for “unearth” were correct. This suggests that “excavate” was learnt to a slightly better degree than “unearth”. Again, 26% of the responses were confused with “unearth instead of excavate”, and 22% were confused with “excavate instead of unearth”, which shows that there is no dominant, or more often preferred word. However, only 9% of the responses showed that subjects picked “another word” from the choices given instead of “excavate”, while 19% of the given responses provided evidence that the students selected another word among the distractors as an answer instead of “unearth”. These findings clarify that “excavate” was slightly better understood and acquired.

#### 4.4.3. *Fragrance-Odour*

In the table below results for the word pair “fragrance – odour” are given. The Turkish equivalent of these words is “koku”. In Turkish one could easily say “koku” in either “fragrance” or “odour” sense. However, in English these two words are different in meaning and have different contexts and usages. Fragrance means “good smell”, but odour means “bad smell”.

Table 4.4.3. Fragrance-Odour

	Fragrance Correct	Odour Correct	Odour Instead of Fragrance	Fragrance Instead of Odour	Other Instead of Fragrance	Other Instead of Odour
Frequency	67	66	8	14	6	1
%	82,71	81,48	9,87	17,28	7,40	1,23

In the table above, regarding the two words, data results seem more equal compared to the first two word pairs. The correct responses for both “fragrance” (83%), and “odour” (81%) are approximately equal, which means that either word has equal dominance. However, it was observed that the rate of confusion where “fragrance” was used instead of “odour” (17%) was higher compared to the confusion where “odour” was used instead of “fragrance” (10%). And that the rate of “other instead of fragrance” was higher (7%) compared to the rate of “other instead of odour” that was (1%), it might be interpreted as the effect of the distractors being stronger in “fragrance” items. Nevertheless, correctness rate of 83% for “fragrance”, and 81% for “odour” might be a satisfying result to comment that the distinction between these two words has been learned and that the words have been acquired.

#### 4.4.4. Income-Revenue

The last word pair is “income – revenue” the translation equivalent of which is “gelir” in Turkish. The main difference between these two words is that income is “a regular sum of money that is earned by people or small business owners”, but revenue is “the total amount of money that the government takes as tax from the citizens”. In Turkish gelir could be used in both senses.



Table 4.4.4. Income-Revenue

	Income Correct	Revenue Correct	Revenue Instead of Income	Income Instead of Revenue	Other Instead of Income	Other Instead of Revenue
Frequency	59	50	12	14	10	17
%	72,83	61,72	14,81	17,28	12,34	20,98

The figures in the table show that subjects have given 73% accurate responses for the word “income”, and 62% correct answers for the word “revenue”. These numbers reveal that “income” was dominant. Again, the total number of wrong responses by selecting another word among the distractors instead of “income” was 12%, and 21% instead of “revenue”. These results show that “income” is the dominant or more often preferred or better understood and acquired word.

Consequently, after the data analysis, numbers related to “divergence” category show that only “fragrance- odour” pair is not so problematic. However, the other three word pairs seem to cause serious difficulties in learning, especially “excavate- unearth”, and “lantern- torch” pairs where the wrong responses given to the both words are above 30%. Likewise, the confusion caused, again except the “fragrance- odour” pair, is high and very explicit especially in “lantern- torch” pair where the mean of the total confusion is 40%. Again, here the confusion was caused mainly by synonymous rather than other words. What made the “fragrance- odour” pair easy might have been the availability of making a very clear distinction between “good” and “bad” smell. Nevertheless, the other three word pairs might have been much harder to distinguish from one another. For this reason, one can suggest that the closer are the meanings of the synonyms, the harder it is to learn the distinctions.

To sum up, when compared to convergence, the words of divergence category show to be much harder to learn not only because learning more than one word is required, but also for the reason that when the task is learning pairs like learning new vocabulary together with the synonyms, or antonyms, etc. this is a source of confusion

later while retrieving their meanings, when thinking of which meaning belongs to which word as it is learning right and left. Some learners might have difficulty in reaching the correct consequent; was right left, or left right.

#### 4.5. Collocations

The table below provides information about the frequencies and percentages of the correctly answered collocations tested in the vocabulary test. The first two collocations are verb+noun collocations, and the second two are adjective+noun collocations.

Table 4.5. Collocations

	Frequency	%
build a fantasy	67	82,71
run a deficit	62	76,54
V+N TOTAL	129	79,62
	Frequency	%
heavy traffic	75	92,59
strong tea	68	83,95
ADJ+N TOTAL	143	88,27

The collected data revealed that out of 81 possible correct responses for each item, 67 for “build a fantasy” collocation, 62 for “run a deficit”, 75 for “heavy traffic”, and 68 for “strong tea” were given. The noticeable point here is that subjects have been approximately 10% less successful in v + n collocations compared to adj. + n collocations. The reason of this could be the probability that for the subjects learning adjectives were easier than learning of verbs. In an experiment on learning Russian-

English pairs of words, Rodgers (op. cit.) reported that if the Russian word was a noun or an adjective, this made the pair easier to learn than if the item was a verb or an adverb (cit. in Schmitt and McCarthy 2001: 149).

In the tables below, a more detailed data is provided for each item and its distractors, which may help to understand the probable reasons of confusion.

#### 4.5.1. Build a fantasy

The table below provides information about the results attained after the data analysis related to “build a fantasy” collocation.

Table 4.5.1. Build a fantasy

	Frequency	%
BUILT	67	82,71
looked	-	-
put	-	-
dreamed	13	16,04
set	1	1,23

As seen in the table, distractors of “build” were “look, put, dream, and set”. In Turkish, “build a fantasy” can be translated as “hayal kurmak”, and the translation equivalent of “kurmak” is “set” in English.

Approximately, 83% of the responses given were correct, which suggests that this collocation item was learned. Learners seemed that they did not tend to transfer directly the L1 collocation, since the score for “set” was only 1%. However, another plausible option here could be “dream” because fantasy is not something real, and when

you dream, you usually dream of unreal things. Again, most probably for this reason, students tended to prefer “dream” and “set” more than “build” especially in the pilot study, because “build” would be translated as “inşa etmek”, more often used for building a building, which as a result would sound very weird in Turkish like “hayal inşa etmek”. However, fantasy is not something concrete, and for that reason “build” would not be appropriate. Nevertheless, 16% of the responses was “dream” chosen as the modifier of “build a fantasy” collocation, which provides information that learners tend to link and/or relate the words according to their meanings rather than transferring from their L1.

After the study session, results showed that students have eliminated “look” and “put” distractors completely, and “dream” and “set” choices in a great rate. Only 1 response still tended to be affected by the L1. The total rate of 83% correct responses would help us to conclude that “build a fantasy” collocation has been acquired.

#### 4.5.2. Run a deficit

The table below provides information about the results attained after the data analysis related to “run a deficit” collocation.

Table 4.5.2. Run a deficit

	Frequency	%
RUN	63	77,77
given	5	6,17
identified	4	4,93
pointed	1	1,23
paid	8	9,87

After the study session, subjects showed improvement in their understanding of this collocation (78%) compared to the knowledge they had in the pilot data, but results still reveal some shortcomings. In Turkish this collocation could be translated as “mali açık vermek” (i.e. give a deficit), and thus, learners who answered this item incorrectly were expected to select “give” as a correct answer, which is the direct translation equivalent of “vermek”. It is clear that the effect of L1 somehow still exists. Although not very high in number, some learners seemed that they tended to transfer from their mother language, since the rate of “give” instead of “run” was about 6%. Also, the rate of failure is higher when compared to “build a fantasy” collocation, and the reason of this result might be the word “deficit”, which could be translated into Turkish as “hesap açığı” that could be classified as a difficult word, and most probably a new word for learners that is to be learned. So, here subjects might have had to learn not only the collocation itself but also the word “deficit” as extra. The strongest distractor in this item was “pay” (10%), which again suggests that rather than directly transferring; students tend to make some associations and relations between the meanings of the words they know. Although not correct, may be just for the reason that “pay” is a word related to “economy” 8 students chose it as the modifier of this collocation item.

#### *4.5.3. Heavy traffic*

The table below provides information about the results attained after the data analysis related to “heavy traffic” collocation.

Table 4.5.3. Heavy traffic

	Frequency	%
HEAVY	76	93,82
closed	-	-
loud	2	2,46
stuck	3	3,70
pushed	-	-

This collocation would be translated as “yoğun trafik” or as “sıkışık trafik” into Turkish. Because of that, students tended to select “stuck” more often in the pilot work, just because the translation equivalent of “stuck” is “sıkışık” in Turkish. However, after the study session subjects again showed progress, and this collocation became the best, or most widely learned by the students. Here only 3 students seem to have been affected by the L1, and 2 other students selected “loud”, may be for a couple of reasons, but most probably because the traffic causes a lot of noise. The correct responses given to this item were 94%, which is a very obvious sign that the learners have acquired this collocation. In this item it was observed that “stuck” was chosen at the rate of 4%, and thus, although weak, saying that there is L1 transfer tendency in this collocation as well would not be naïve. Overall, results revealed that the learners did not have much difficulty in learning this collocation.

#### 4.5.4. Strong tea

The table below provides information about the results attained after the data analysis related to “strong tea” collocation.

Table 4.5.4. Strong tea

	Frequency	%
STRONG	69	85,18
dark	7	8,64
dense	-	-
well-boiled	1	1,23
weak	4	4,93

This collocation is interesting in the way that it is a very frequently used one in Turkish as a cultural feature of the society. Turkish people drink tea a lot, and that is why, they very often say “demli çay” or “koyu çay” as equivalents of “strong tea”. The observation that was made in the pilot investigation was that nearly all students selected “dark” instead of the correct answer “strong”, which is in Turkish a word mostly used to qualify people. On the other hand, “dark” as the translation equivalent of “demli” or “koyu” was the strongest distractor.

As it could be noticed from the table, the learners were observed to have learned this collocation by the rate of 85%, which would be a number high enough to conclude that students became successful. However, even after the study session, the word “dark”, which means “koyu” in Turkish still distracted the subjects (9%), and this indicates a consistent influence of the L1 on learners. Nevertheless, the total number of failure of this collocation is 15 % (9% + 1% + 5%). And, it is interesting that 5% of the subjects chose “weak”, which is the antonym of “strong” as the correct choice in this item. One may attempt to explain this again by the association principle that was mentioned in the other examples. The students might have developed a relation between



drinking too much tea and becoming weak or sick. Consequently, the figures reveal that this collocation has also been learned.

Consequently, collocations initially lead learners to inaccurate predictions because of the differences between L1 and L2, but after a well planned and sufficient study session it turns out not to be very difficult category, but again a category that requires careful attention and motivation. What learners needed to pick up initially is that not necessarily translation equivalents are the appropriate words in the target language, and that an upper approach to learning a foreign language should be developed in order to get the philosophy of the language that is tried to be acquired. To sum up, generally, learners preferred plausible distractors more often than direct L1 equivalents, which shows that subjects learnt not to transfer from L1 after the study session.

#### 4.6. Lexical Void

The table below provides information based on the results conducted after the data analysis about the “lexical void in L1” category.

Table 4.6. Lexical Void

	Frequency	%
indent	69	85,18
prowl	62	76,54
V TOTAL	131	80,86
	Frequency	%
flicker	72	88,88
globule	64	79,01
N TOTAL	136	83,94

The total number of items of this category was 4, 2 of which were verbs, and 2 of which were nouns. The results showed that the accurate answers given to noun voids were slightly more than the correct responses given to verb voids. The total figure of correct answers for verb voids “indent”, and “prowl” was 131 (81%), and the total number of correct responses given to noun voids “flicker”, and “globule” was 136 (84%). The argument that concrete words would be easier to learn compared to abstract words would not be very valid here for the reason that all of these words were already potential abstracts to learners. However, since it is known that verbs are more problematic in learning compared to nouns, students might have suffered the same difficulty while trying to acquire these words. On the other hand, when we compare “indent” (85%) with “prowl” (77%), and “flicker” (89%) with “globule” (79%) it might be possible to discuss that the previous experience and knowledge of the learners might have boosted the learning of “indent” and “flicker” for the reason that they may very often indent the first line in their writings, and “flicker” is something all learners might have probably seen in many circumstances, and thus, these two items might have been easier to better figure out. Also, “indent” and “flicker” are words that require the imagination of a single action or thing. Nevertheless, “prowl” requires an imagination of at least a couple of actions following each other. Let’s say, an animal trying to hunt in a thick forest, and doing its best to be quiet and not be seen. Likewise, “globule” could be comprehended better when learners think about a solid material, which is heated and therefore melted as a result of which some parts of it begin to drip, and so imaging the shape and condition of the drop.

#### **4.7. Parallel**

The table below provides information based on the results conducted after the data analysis about the “parallel” category.

Table 4.7. Parallel

	Frequency	%
enrol	71	87,65
menace	65	80,24
exploit	52	64,19
provision	57	70,37

In the table above, except the word “enrol” (88%), the correct answers given to the other three words appear to be surprisingly low. Especially, the figures presented for the words “exploit” (64%) and “provision” (70%) show that these words have become as difficult as the items of divergence category. This means that in some conditions learning one word could be as hard as learning two words. That is why words of parallel category revealed to be the second difficult group in learning. The word “enrol” on its own might have been easier than other three for the reason that all students have been doing it each year, and also each semester when registering for their classes. So, the facilitating factor might have been the experience of the students. They might have simply met a word that completely matches an action that they very frequently do. And thus, it might have been seen as very useful and valuable for the students. That is to say that the need of the learners might have boosted the learning of this word. The present author remembers the similar situation that he experienced when learning the word “deserve”, which was actually his need in all his conversations and writings.

## **CHAPTER FIVE (CONCLUSION)**

### **5.0. Conclusion**

In this chapter there are three sections. In section 5.1. conclusions derived from the data analysis have been pointed out. In section 5.2. further research has been suggested, and the necessity of research on the other related topics have been stated. Finally, in section 5.3. applications for teaching regarding especially the six word categories in question have been suggested.

### **5.1. Conclusions**

Overall, the results have shown that explicit teaching was very effective in teaching L2 words. Providing clear definitions for the words that had various deceptive features, and presenting the differences between L1-L2 words, and also between L2-L2 words helped students to better understand and acquire these words. What became clear from this study was that when the target words have some deceptive features, giving learners obvious definitions and examples allow them to reach quite satisfying results regarding L2 vocabulary learning.

The results of this study have shown that Turkish students very obviously face some difficulties in learning new English words. These difficulties depend on the nature of the relation between L1 and L2. According to the data collected, out of the six word categories provided, for Turkish students, divergence items tend to be the most problematic even after a well-prepared study and practice session, and convergence items in contrast disclose to be the easiest ones.

Although the first four categories have a similar rate of correct responses, the order of the six categories from easy to difficult, regarding Turkish students, disclosed to be as follows:

1. convergence
2. collocation
3. false cognate
4. lexical void
5. parallel
6. divergence

A number of factors can be offered to explain these differences in learning difficulty. One observation was that L1 was an effective factor in L2 vocabulary learning, but not the only factor. For instance, L1 facilitated the acquisition in convergence, collocation, and false cognate categories. They were easier than lexical voids where transfer was not possible. However, L1 did not facilitate the acquisition of parallel, and divergence items, which revealed to be more difficult than lexical voids although transfer was possible. Considering these conclusions, suggesting that L1 assists learners positively would not be incorrect, but where especially and under what conditions, and to what degree is a point to research more deeply. In other words, why students benefit more and better from their L1 when learning convergence, collocation, and false cognates; and what prevents them from benefiting from their L1 in the same degree when learning parallel, and divergence words; and what should be done to enable the same effect when learning the words belonging to these groups may be investigated more widely.

Again, especially in “collocation” category minimal L1 transfer was observed. Apparently, learners tend to select the semantically appropriate collocation (e.g. dream a fantasy) rather than the direct L1 translation (e.g. set a fantasy). The causes of incorrect answers was mostly because of the plausible relations that learners established between the given words. Generally, they did not incorrectly transfer from L1, which suggests that they were not distracted by L1 collocations. So, L1 did not have a negative effect, either.

Regarding the results attained, L1-L2 difference is not the only factor that determines ease/ difficulty of lexical learning. For instance, although in parallel category there is L1-L2 correspondence; results revealed that this category was not an easy one.

Other factors that can be effective are “form”, and “concept” learning, and “salience” (especially in lexical void and false cognate categories). Convergence and false cognate items do not require learning of new forms, and were observed to be easier than parallel, and divergence items that required form learning for known

concepts, which is determined as a difficult task (Laufer, 1990; Nation, 2000; Bogaards, 2001).

Lexical void category, however, is an exception, which requires both formal and conceptual learning. Nevertheless, salience might explain the high rate of acquisition of these items. The mental effort that the students may put to learn these items may help in reaching a high success rate.

Another factor that might affect difficulty of learning is the nature of the relation between L1 and L2 words when there is a one-to-many correspondence as in “divergence” and “convergence”. It was observed that making a new distinction is more difficult than undoing a previously made distinction. And most probably, avoiding the distinctions of two different meanings in L1 for a single L2 word causes fewer mistakes than avoiding the distinctions of two different meanings in L2 for a single L1 word. Both of these categories involve one-to-many correspondences between the two languages. The direction of the relation, thus, determines the difficulty level.

In “divergence” category it was observed that after teaching, students largely learned to distinguish the two words from one another. Only in “lantern-torch” pair students could not distinguish between the two words, thus, “lantern” was observed to be dominant and used instead of “torch” by most of the students. It was also observed that such words were confused more with one another rather than with other words, which demonstrates the interference in learning synonyms.

In “convergence” category, most of the time, when students got one meaning right, they got the other meaning correct as well. Only in one case (poverty), only one meaning was known (38%), see Table 4.3.1.. The distinctions between synonyms in L1 apparently can be easily overlooked in the L2 and combined into polysemy, which is not possible in divergence category.

Another factor that might affect difficulty could be relevance and previous experience. In “parallel” category it was observed that more relevant and authentic words (e.g. enrol) are learned more successfully, and possibly easier when they meet the need of the learners in completing their gap in L2.

Semantic links that would be established between the L2 word and the L1 false cognate may be a factor that enhances retention in “false cognate” category (e.g. industrious). If learners have a chance to find some links like in “industrious- endüstri”, which is “working hard to be productive”, learning the items of this category will become easier.

Another factor was observed in “lexical void” category, in addition to the salience factor, and relevance factor. It is that if it is easier to imagine or to understand a concept, it is acquired more successfully.

In conclusion, the present study provided a clear definition for each word category and sequenced them according to their difficulty in learning. Furthermore, some probable sources of interference like L1-L2 difference, L1 word-L2 word associations, difficulty in form learning, avoiding putting much mental effort in the learning process, difficulty in synonymy learning have been discussed.

## **5.2. Further Research**

Further research in other aspects of foreign language vocabulary learning is needed. This study was carried out focusing on relations between two languages, English and Turkish. At this stage one cannot be sure whether the result would be the same if the target or native language was a different one. Since there are studies proposing that the level of interference by the L1 varies according to similarity or difference in writing systems (Odlin, 1989; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Ellis, 1994) it may be helpful to choose two languages of different alphabetical systems like Russian and English, English and Arabic, or English and Japanese for instance. Again, this study did not concentrate necessarily on concrete and/or abstract words, and since there are some authors suggesting that abstract words are more difficult to learn than concrete words (Phillips, 1981; Laufer, 1990) a study organised according to this aspect may reveal interesting data. Also, some researchers have found that word classifications affect learning, and that it is more difficult to learn verbs or adverbs than it is to learn nouns or adjectives. Rodgers (1969) found that nouns were easiest to learn, and that adjectives followed them, while verbs and adverbs were the most difficult (cit. in Read, 2000: 40). In this respect, designing a study by controlling this variable may be helpful



to reach more sustained findings. The items used in this study were mixed, abstract-concrete, verbs, adjectives, and nouns. So, one may wonder how the result would change if the research had focused on these aspects separately as well.

### **5.3. Applications for Teaching**

The complexity of vocabulary within itself is extremely huge, and when considered the additional complexity of a second language this complexity will grow twice. For this reason it should not be forgotten that either interlingual or interlexical factors do affect the learning of foreign words because of the differences and/or similarities between the native language and the target language, and the previously learned words and new words.

Following the research findings, it seems a good idea to teach explicitly those words that have many complex relations with other words, L1 and/or previously learned L2, for the reason that a conscious attention to these words increases the general awareness and success in retaining them. This also discards the probable confusions and ambiguities when students are directed correctly. So, the general observation of this study was that especially false cognates, collocations, and lexical voids should be taught in this direction since it was noticed that the success rate in the items of these groups was estimated evidently satisfactorily high as a result of explicit study session and exercise direction. Spending more time and effort on these items will increase the interest of the students, which may lead to a better and deeper understanding will be achieved. Also, as parallel and divergence items seem to be more difficult than others, the words belonging to these categories should be given more emphasis in teaching.

Another finding provides evidence that teaching from L2 to L1 direction is much useful, and that this enhances a faster and better learning. Because of this, rather than teaching the English meanings of Turkish words, it will be much profitable to teach the Turkish meanings of English words. In other words, if there is more explanation or availability of L1 for a word in L2, a better and easier comprehension is reached. Then, teaching convergence and divergence items in this direction will be more helpful and beneficial for students. Because of the same reasons, teaching parallel words in the

same way will be very correct approach. Additionally, teachers should place more emphasis than they do on form teaching.



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14. The girl in blue is very \_\_\_\_\_, so try to be extremely polite to her.  
a) fragile                      b) talkative                      c) cheerful  
d) beautiful                      e) suspicious
15. The government was short of money because of falling oil \_\_\_\_\_.  
a) incomes                      b) fees                      c) qualities  
d) revenues                      e) reserves
16. The busy road is a \_\_\_\_\_ to the children's safety.  
a) menace                      b) disadvantage                      c) conclusion  
d) problem                      e) precaution
17. In order to \_\_\_\_\_ the steel, you have to heat it first.  
a) boil                      b) change                      c) use  
d) bend                      e) separate
18. I heard someone \_\_\_\_\_ about in the garden.  
a) searching                      b) looking                      c) prowling  
d) shouting                      e) playing
19. They plan to \_\_\_\_\_ a large hole before putting in the foundations.  
a) penetrate                      b) identify                      c) unearth  
d) direct                      e) excavate
20. The \_\_\_\_\_ of spring flowers in the air was very nice.  
a) appearance                      b) fragrance                      c) significance  
d) odour                      e) vision

21. The police \_\_\_\_\_ a skeleton in his garden.  
a) revealed                      b) hung                      c) excavated  
d) based                      e) unearthed
22. She \_\_\_\_\_ at the door for a moment, then went in.  
a) blew                      b) discussed                      c) hesitated  
d) blamed                      e) circled
23. A cosmetics company has received a lot of complaints about their new \_\_\_\_\_ product.  
a) hands                      b) complexion                      c) flesh  
d) trade                      e) lotion
24. The country's mineral resources have been \_\_\_\_\_ by foreign powers.  
a) prevented                      b) spoiled                      c) exploded  
d) manufactured                      e) exploited
25. The company has \_\_\_\_\_ a deficit of \$ 25 million and gone bankrupt.  
a) given                      b) identified                      c) pointed  
d) paid                      e) run
26. Although my grandmother is 75, she does a lot of work everyday. She is a very \_\_\_\_\_ woman.  
a) lucky                      b) generous                      c) creative  
d) industrious                      e) open- minded
27. I watched the \_\_\_\_\_ of the candle all night in the dark and thought about my past.  
a) place                      b) fire                      c) colour  
d) flicker                      e) posture



## Appendix II

### The Categorised List of Target Words With Their L1 Equivalentents

#### Convergence

1. fragile- kırılğan/ hassas
2. bend- katlamak/ bükmek
3. hesitate- tereddüt etmek/ duraksamak
4. poverty- yoksulluk/ fakirlik

#### False Cognate

1. industrious (hard working)- endüstri/yel (industry/ial)
2. menagerie (zoo)- menajer (manager)
3. complexion (skin/colour)- kompleks (complex)
4. moral (ethical)- moral (mood)

#### Parallel

1. enrol- kayıt olmak
2. exploit- sömürmek
3. menace- tehdit
4. provision- tedarik

#### Collocation

1. build a fantasy- hayal kurmak
2. run a deficit- mali açık vermek
3. strong tea- demli çay
4. heavy traffik- yoğun trafik

#### Lexical Void

1. indent- yazıda girinti yapmak
2. globule- sıvı veya erimiş katı bir maddenin küçük damlası
3. flicker- bir ışığın veya alevin titrek bir şekilde yanması ya da parlaması
4. prowl- bir yerin etrafında, birisini veya bir şeyi avlıyormuş gibi yavaşça, sessizce ve sinsice yürümek

#### Divergence

1. odour/ fragrance- koku
2. revenue/ income- gelir
3. torch/ lantern- fener
4. excavate/ unearth- kazmak

## Appendix III

### Learning Material

**Industrious:** a person who is hard- working

- Industrious people are creative and productive.

**Moral:** concerning principles of right and wrong behaviour; ethical

- The closing of the school may save money, but it is wrong by moral standards, as it will do harm to the children.

**Build a fantasy:** to dream/imagine about something, or someone

- She built the fantasy that she might one day have a son who would fulfil all of her expectations.

**Run a deficit:** to make more expenditure than income, which results in gaps in the budget

- If the government didn't run such huge deficits, the country would not have financial problems.

**Fragile:** 1. easily damaged or broken

- The parcel was labelled: "Fragile, handle with care."
- 2. easily hurt
- Human happiness is very fragile.

**Bend:** 1. to force something (that is straight) into an angle

- Take good care of your books and do not bend their papers!
- 2. make crooked or curved
- It is hard to bend an iron bar.

**Hesitate:** 1. be slow to speak or act because one feels uncertain or unwilling

- He is still hesitating over whether to join the expedition.
- 2. pause in doubt
- She hesitated before replying.

**Odour:** (pleasant or unpleasant) smell

- It is a proven fact that some bad odours cause cancer.

**Fragrance:** pleasant or sweet smell; scent or perfume

- Lavender has a delicate fragrance

**Income:** money received over a certain period, esp. as payment for work or as interest on investments.

- Half of our income goes on rent.

**Revenue:** large amounts of money received by a government as tax, or by a company

- The total revenue of Real Madrid was enormous.

**Indent:** to start (a line of print or writing) further in from the margin than the other lines

- In English, the first line of a new paragraph is often indented.

**Enrol:** to become or make someone become an official member of a course, college, or group

- She decided to enrol in the history course at the local evening school.

**Exploit:** use (somebody/something) selfishly and unfairly for one's own advantage or profit

- The firm exploits its workers disgracefully.

**Menace:** something that is likely to cause harm

- Drunk drivers are a menace to everyone.

**Menagerie:** collection of wild animals in captivity, esp. in a travelling circus or for exhibition; zoo

- Children enjoy visiting menageries and being close to wild animals.

**Complexion:** natural colour and appearance of the skin of the face

- Years of heavy drinking had given Alison a florid complexion.

**Strong tea:** tea coloured dark because of a lot of tea in it

- In the mornings I prefer having just a strong tea and a few biscuits.

**Heavy traffic:** dense and busy traffic

- Istanbul is known for its Bosphorus, historical buildings, and heavy traffic.

**Poverty:** 1. state of being poor

- A lot of people live below the poverty line.
- 2. existing in too small amounts
- Manufacturers are handicapped by poverty of resources.

**Torch:** small hand-held electric lamp powered by a battery

- The burglar shone his torch into the dark room.

**Lantern:** usually portable light for use outdoors in a transparent case that protects it from the wind, etc.

- It's too dark outside, so take the lantern to illuminate your path.

**Excavate:** to dig in the ground, especially with a machine, or to look for objects from the past

- The local government excavates all roads these days.

**Unearth:** uncover or obtain something from the ground by digging

- The dog has unearthed some bones.



**Globule:** tiny drop or ball, especially of liquid or a melted solid

- There were globules of oil on the windscreen of my car.

**Flicker:** (of a light or flame) burn or shine unsteadily

- The wind blew the flickering candle out.

**Prowl:** to walk slowly, quietly and cautiously around somewhere as if hunting someone or something

- We were aware of the wild animals prowling in the forest.

**Provision:** giving, lending, supplying or making something available

- The government is responsible for the provision of medical services.

## Appendix IV

### Exercise Material I (Recognition)

*Please match the words with the correct definitions. Some words may be matched with more than one definition.*

*Aşağıdaki kelimeleri anlamları ile eşleştiriniz. Bazı kelimeler birden fazla anlamla eşleşebilir.*

- |                    |       |   |
|--------------------|-------|---|
| a) Industrious     | ..... | 1) a pleasant or sweet smell; scent or perfume  |
| b) Moral           | ..... | 2) if someone exploits you, they treat you unfairly by using your work or ideas and giving you very little money or anything else in return |
| c) Build a fantasy |       |   |
| d) Run a deficit   |       |   |
| e) Fragile         | ..... | 3) be slow to speak or act because one feels uncertain or unwilling   |
| f) Bend            |       |   |
| g) Hesitate        | ..... | 4) easily damaged, or broken  |
| h) Odour           | ..... | 5) money received over a certain period, esp. as payment for work or as interest on investments.  |
| i) Fragrance       |       |   |
| j) Income          | ..... | 6) to make more expenditure than income, which results in gaps in the budget  |
| k) Revenue         |       |   |
| l) Indent          | ..... | 7) to force something (that is straight) into an angle  |
| m) Enrol           |       |   |
| n) Exploit         | ..... | 8) pleasant or sweet smell; scent or perfume  |
| o) Menace          | ..... | 9) something that is likely to cause harm   |
| p) Menagerie       | ..... | 10) make crooked or curved  |
| q) Complexion      |       |   |
| r) Strong tea      | ..... | 11) large amounts of money received by a government as tax, or by a company   |
|                    | ..... | 12) a person who is hard- working   |
| s) Heavy traffic   |       |   |
|                    | ..... | 13) concerning principles of right and wrong behaviour; ethical   |
| t) Poverty         | ..... | 14) to become or make someone become an official member of a course, college, or group  |
| u) Torch           |       |   |
| v) Lantern         | ..... | 15) to start (a line of print or writing) further in from the margin than the other lines   |
| w) Excavate        |       |   |
| x) Unearth         | ..... | 16) to dream/imagine about something, or someone  |

	.....	17) uncover or obtain something from the ground by digging
y) Globule		
z) Flicker	.....	18) state of being poor
	.....	19) tiny drop or ball, especially of liquid or a melted solid
ж) Prowl		
Φ) Provision	.....	20) small hand-held electric lamp powered by a battery
	.....	21) tea coloured dark because of a lot of tea in it
	.....	22) (of a light or flame) burn or shine unsteadily
	.....	23) to dig in the ground, especially with a machine, or to look for objects from the past
	.....	24) usually portable light for use outdoors in a transparent case that protects it from the wind, etc.
	.....	25) collection of wild animals in captivity, esp. in a travelling circus or for exhibition; zoo
	.....	26) natural colour and appearance of the skin of the face
	.....	27) giving, lending, supplying or making something available
	.....	28) existing in too small amounts
	.....	29) to stand or walk around without any real purpose; to go slowly with frequent stops as if hunting someone or something
	.....	30) dense and busy traffic
	.....	31) pause in doubt
	.....	32) easily hurt

## Appendix V

### Exercise Material II (Production)

*Please fill in the blanks with the appropriate words from the box. Some words can be used in more than one space.*

*Boşlukları kutudaki uygun kelimelerle doldurunuz Bazı kelimeler birden fazla boşluğa gelebilir.*

Industrious	Moral	Strong	Build	Provision
Run	Fragile	Globule	Bend	Excavate
Hesitate	Odour	Fragrance	Complexion	Poverty
Flicker	Heavy	Unearth	Income	Prowl
Revenue	Menagerie	Indent	Lantern	
Enrol	Torch	Exploit	Menace	

1. Human happiness is very \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The total \_\_\_\_\_ of Real Madrid was enormous.
3. The burglar shone his \_\_\_\_\_ into the dark room.
4. The local government \_\_\_\_\_ all roads these days.
5. She \_\_\_\_\_ before replying.
6. She decided to \_\_\_\_\_ in the history course at the local evening school.
7. The wind blew the \_\_\_\_\_ candle out.
8. The government is responsible for the \_\_\_\_\_ of medical services.
9. A lot of people live below the \_\_\_\_\_ line.
10. We were aware of the wild animals \_\_\_\_\_ in the forest.
11. She \_\_\_\_\_ the fantasy that she might one day have a son who would fulfil all of her expectations.
12. It's too dark outside, so take the \_\_\_\_\_ to illuminate your path.
13. Lavender has a delicate \_\_\_\_\_.
14. The firm \_\_\_\_\_ its workers disgracefully.

15. It is a proven fact that some bad \_\_\_\_\_ cause cancer.
16. Half of our \_\_\_\_\_ goes on rent.
17. It is hard to \_\_\_\_\_ an iron bar.
18. He is still \_\_\_\_\_ over whether to join the expedition.
19. There were \_\_\_\_\_ of oil on the windscreen of my car.
20. The parcel was labelled: “ \_\_\_\_\_, handle with care.”
21. Take good care of your books and do not \_\_\_\_\_ their papers!
22. The closing of the school may save money, but it is wrong by \_\_\_\_\_ standards, as it will do harm to the children.
23. Manufacturers are handicapped by \_\_\_\_\_ of resources.
24. In English, the first line of a new paragraph is often \_\_\_\_\_.
25. \_\_\_\_\_ people are creative and productive.
26. If the government didn't \_\_\_\_\_ such huge deficits, the country would not have financial problems.
27. The dog has \_\_\_\_\_ some bones.
28. Drunk drivers are a \_\_\_\_\_ to everyone.
29. İstanbul is known for its Bosphorus, historical buildings, and \_\_\_\_\_ traffic.
30. In the mornings I prefer having just a \_\_\_\_\_ tea and a few biscuits.
31. Years of heavy drinking had given Alison a florid \_\_\_\_\_.
32. Children enjoy visiting \_\_\_\_\_ and being close to wild animals.

## ÖZGEÇMİŞ

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Levent UZUN