

**COLLOCATION PRODUCTIONS BY MYANMAR REFUGEE
LEARNERS
IN MALAYSIA**

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REFUGEE LEARNERS
IN MALAYSIA**

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Field of Study: **Phraseology**

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COLLOCATION PRODUCTION BY MYANMAR REFUGEE LEARNERS IN MALAYSIA

ABSTRACT

Collocations are very crucial for language comprehension and fluency. According to Hill (2000) second language learners make mistake not because of grammar but due to deficiency in collocational knowledge. Hong (2012) stresses that teaching of vocabulary focus on single word learning which mostly neglects collocation. Similar condition can be observed in our national school context as grammar teaching is emphasized thus neglecting the inclusion of phraseology (Normazidah Che Musa, Koo & Hazita Azam, 2012). Focus on collocations can lead to successful language learning for all learners irrespective of their level of proficiency. However, studies focusing on collocational knowledge of refugee learners in Malaysia are very rare especially those related to refugees in Malaysia. Refugees in Malaysia find it hard to survive and are denied access to formal education (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). Therefore, they largely depend on schools run by NGOs and 'hidden schools' by their own community (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). Upon resettling in countries like America, the young refugee learners face a state of helplessness because they could not perform well in academics, particularly their writing skills are very poor (Hirano, 2014). Due to this lack of attention paid to this group of learners, the study aims to investigate the types of lexical collocations produced by Form 3 Myanmar Refugee learners in their picture based essay writing. Additionally study also describes the possible sources for the production of deviant lexical collocations. The subjects of this study were 30 Form 3 Myanmar refugee learners from 4 different ethnic backgrounds namely Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Myanmar Tamil. 30 essay samples were analyzed in this study. The participants were selected from a population of Myanmar learners consisting of 40 learners. 30 essay samples were manually reviewed and analyzed to identify lexical

collocations. The lexical collocations were identified and classified based on Hsu's Framework of Classification of Lexical Collocations 2007. Researcher used British National Corpus, BBI Combinatory Dictionary 1998 and Oxford Collocations Dictionary 2002 to determine the acceptability of lexical collocation (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012; Sadegi, 2011). To further confirm a deviant collocation, Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors was used. After the identification of deviant collocations, the researcher used Modified Framework of Possible Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors to analyze the deviant collocations produced by the participants of the research. Analysis revealed that participants recorded a total of 239 lexical collocations, among them 63 (26.4%) were deviant lexical collocations. The most frequent lexical collocation used in the written task is L2 (Adjective + Noun) type. The most problematic lexical collocation type is L3 (Noun +Verb) type as 60% of it were deviant collocations. Use of synonym was identified as the main source of lexical collocational errors to occur in the participants' written task. Thus, the findings of the research indicate the need to incorporate collocational teaching for all learners. Current study recommends employment of refugee participants representing countries other than Myanmar.

Keywords: lexical collocations, Myanmar refugee learners, vocabulary learning

KOLOKASI- KOLOKASI YANG DIHASILKAN OLEH PELAJAR PELARIAN MYANMAR DI MALAYSIA

ABSTRAK

Kolokasi sangat penting dalam kefasihan dan penguasaan sesuatu bahasa. Menurut Hill (2000) pelajar melakukan kesalahan bahasa bukan disebabkan oleh tatabahasa malah disebabkan oleh tiada pengetahuan kolokasi. Hong pula berpendapat bahawa pengajaran kosa kata selalunya melibatkan pembelajaran perkataan sebagai satu unit (2012). Keadaan yang sama dapat dilihat di Malaysia dimana keutamaan diberi untuk tatabahasa dan pengabungan kata tidak diberi perhatian. Kolokasi dapat membantu semua pelajar dan ianya patut diterapkan. Bagaimanapun, kajian kolokasi yang melibatkan pelajar pelarian Myanmar di Malaysia masih belum dikaji. Malaysia masih menjadi tempat berteduh untuk ramai pelarian (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). Pelarian dianggap sebagai pendatang tanpa izin di Malaysia maka golongan pelarian ini menghadapi kesusahan menjalani kehidupan (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). Mereka terpaksa belajar di sekolah yang diurus secara rahsia oleh pihak komuniti mereka (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). Kajian menunjukkan bahawa pelarian yang berjaya mendapat kewarganegaraan di negara- negara berikut kebanyakannya tidak dapat berjaya di peringkat kolej kerana pengetahuan penulisan yang kurang baik (Hirano, 2014). Oleh sebab kurangnya perhatian yang diberi untuk golongan ini, kajian ini mempunyai 2 objektif. Pertamanya, jenis- jenis leksial kolokasi yang dihasilkan oleh pelajar pelarian telah dikenalpasti menerusi karangan- karangan pelajar. Seterusnya, mencari punca-punca berlakunya kesalahan leksikal kolokasi. Seramai 30 orang pelajar pelarian dari Tingkatan Tiga telah mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini. Mereka terdiri daripada kumpulan etnik Burma, Zomi, Hakha dan Myanmar Tamil. Populasi pelajar Myanmar adalah melibatkan 36 orang. Selepas itu, para peserta telah diberi tugas bertulis yang kemudiannya telah dikumpul untuk analisa. Mula –mulanya, kategori

kolokasi leksikal telah dikenal pasti menerusi kategori- kategori yang dicadangkan oleh Hsu (2007). *British National Corpus*, *BBI Combinatory Dictionary 1998* dan *Oxford Collocations Dictionary 2002* telah digunakan untuk memastikan ketepatan leksikal kolokasi. Selepas itu, kesemua leksikal kolokasi telah dikategorikan sebagai kolokasi tepat dan tidak tepat. Setiap kesalahan juga telah dikenal pasti jenisnya dengan menggunakan rangka kerja jenis- jenis kesalahan. Seterusnya, punca- punca kesalahan kolokasi telah dibincangkan menggunakan rangka kerja punca – punca kesalahan kolokasi leksikal. Sebanyak 239 kolokasi leksikal telah dihasilkan oleh peserta kajian. Dari jumlah itu, hanya 63 (26.4%) adalah kolokasi tidak tepat. Dari segi jenisnya pula, para peserta telah menghasilkan banyak kolokasi jenis 2 iaitu (*kata adjektif+ kata nama*). Ini dapat dilihat dalam semua kumpulan etnik. Di samping itu, leksikal kolokasi jenis 3 (*Kata Nama+ Kata Nama*) merupakan jenis yang paling susah. Ini kerana dari 60% daripadanya tidak tepat. Penggunaan sinonim merupakan punca utama kerana banyak kesalahan berlaku akibatnya. Kesimpulannya, kajian membuktikan kepentingan menerapkan pembelajaran kolokasi. Adalah dicadangkan bahawa, kajian pada masa depan boleh menggunakan lebih ramai peserta yang mewakili kumpulan pelarian dari negara- negara lain.

Kata kunci: kolokasi leksikal, pelajar pelarian Myanmar, pembelajaran kosa

kata

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L1	:	First language
BNC	:	British National Corpus
PT3	:	Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3
SPM	:	Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Collocations are crucial items in language learning. Generally native speakers are able to flourish in their native language as opposed to their counterparts because they need not store single words instead they have ready -made chunks or prefabricated chunks stored in their lexicon which give them fluency (Chanturia, Conklin& Cattara, 2017; Wray, 2001). Many corpus studies too have proved that native speakers' spoken and written data are mostly phraseological or in other words consist of prefabricated chunks (Nesselhauf, 2005).

Prefabricated chunks can be defined as one or more words that appear together which are mostly fixed and semi- fixed. They include elements like phrasal verbs, lexical bundles, and collocations and so on. Interestingly, one of the notable findings of the corpus studies is that collocations appear more frequently in the native speakers' spoken and written data than other types of prefabricated chunks (Nesselhauf, 2005). Having realized the prudence of collocation teaching, many researchers have embarked on the journey to prioritize collocations in second language teaching. Michael Lewis is one of them who strongly recommended collocational teaching (2000). In the similar vein, Channell too emphasized the importance of collocational teaching for the EFLs (1981).

Furthermore, it has been stressed many times through researches that first language acquisition begins with prefabricated chunks where the child stores ready-made chunks more often than single words (Peters, 1983). Similar scenario has been observed in second language learning of a child too, dictating the impact of prefabricated chunks in language learning (Woods, 2015).

Globally, collocational teaching is well received in second language realm with multiple studies done to promote collocational teaching for all kinds of learners. For instance, a research done on the collocation and technicality of engineering mentioned that those students of non-native engineering face problem in understanding textbooks in English is because of their collocational behavior of that specific field, indicating the need to make the learners aware of collocations (Ward, 2007). Due to lack of exposure to collocations, studies showed that even the advanced learners have difficulties in producing appropriate collocations. The study by Kamariah Yunus and Su'ad Awab (2011) highlighted that even the law undergraduates' face problem in collocations. According to Wang (2001) students majoring in English too had difficulty in collocation productions.

Biskup (1992) in his study compared Polish and German advanced learners. It revealed that despite being advanced learners both the groups had produced non-native like collocations. Productions of non-native like collocations could be a setback for advanced learners as it hints to their lack of competency in the language. Despite the call for collocational teaching, grammar and vocabulary have been given paramount weightage in second language learning in Malaysian context. Normazidah Che Musa and few others exposed that Malaysia has not implemented phraseology in its vocabulary teaching and learning (2012). This condition lingers on even among learners of other ESL/EFL countries too because they are not accustomed to collocational teaching nor its significance.

A study involving EFL learners revealed that the formers were not aware of existence of ready-made expressions in English (Zaabalawi & Gould, 2017). Having no collocational competence will lead to production of unnatural sounding expressions or inappropriate word combinations like "did a mistake" instead of "made a mistake". Hill rejected the common belief about bad grammar being the reason for learners to make

mistake instead he claimed lack of collocational knowledge as the main cause (2000). Hill's statement indicates the need to change our focus from grammar and vocabulary dichotomy to collocational teaching. In addition to that, owing complex grammar does not guarantee fluency as much as collocational competence because collocational competence greatly supports proficiency of every advanced learner (Lewis, 2000).

To put it simply, collocations supply ready-made chunks with appropriate grammar thus relieving the learners from producing sentences on their own. A huge storage of mental lexicon will thereby reduce the processing effort which means the learners do not have to process the grammar and vocabulary rules to convey the intended message. Schmitt and Conklin had put forward the same notion where they mentioned that formulaic language has processing benefit unlike non- formulaic language devoid of processing benefit (2012).

In order to gain competency and fluency, collocations are the key. Learning them is easy owing to the fact that many native corpuses like BNC (British National Corpus) and LOCNUS (Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays) are available which can supply countless native-like utterance with appropriate collocations (Hunston, 2005). It is evident that collocations can bring positive changes to second language learning. Above all, collocations have shown prospects of making English learning easy without less laborious task involving drills of grammar. Thus, the stakeholders of second language learning and teaching should make an effort to incorporate collocations as it is every learner's goal to be able produce native- like utterances.

1.2 Myanmar Refugees

1.2.1 Myanmar Refugees in Malaysia

According to the 1951 Convention on Refugees (and its companion 1967 Protocol) defines 'refugee(s)' as a person or group of people who have fled their home

country when their home country is no longer safe for them to live. Usually wars, geopolitical issues and oppressions in a country produce refugees (Lang, 2000).

Malaysia is not a signatory of 1951 Convention on Refugees which means the refugees will be considered as 'illegal immigrants' upon their arrival to Malaysia (Adnan, 2012). Though Malaysia has chosen not to acknowledge refugees and their rights, Malaysia is continuously becoming 'temporary host' for refugees from various countries like Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Somalia and so on (Hema Lecthamanan, 2013).

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees Malaysia (UNHCR) is solely responsible for the refugees in Malaysia (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). Their main duties are to ensure the safety of refugees in a foreign country, make sure that the refugees stand a chance either to return to their home country voluntarily or get citizenship of a foreign country (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). Countries like United Kingdom, Canada and Australia are accepting the refugees by giving them citizenship (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). UNCHR Malaysia started to operate in 1975 with the arrival of "boat people" from Vietnam, the Vietnam refugees (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). As for now, Malaysia is 'hosting' 47600 refugees and asylum seekers (<http://www.unchr.org.my>). Refugees from Myanmar are the highest in number with the percentage of 93 (Hoffstaeder, 2014). Myanmar refugees represent different ethnic groups namely Chin, Rohingya, Zomi, Karen, Hakha and so on (<http://www.unchr.org.my>).

A refugee's life carries inexplicable misery. They receive similar treatment like the illegal immigrant and they can be jailed and deported back to their home country (Adnan, 2012). Furthermore, they mostly live in low cost flat or areas and end up doing odd jobs (Kaur, 2014). Due to their 'stateless' position they have very little access to proper education and health (Hoffstaeder, 2014). To address their helplessness, UNCHR and NGOs are persistently providing support to the refugees in Malaysia

(Hoffstaeder, 2014). Refugees' living conditions hint to the need to tackle their plights. Poh Chua Siah, Wang Ying Lee and Lee Ying Goh in their study on the life quality of refugee children in Malaysia particularly suggested better education access for the latter during their stay in Malaysia (2015).

Mostly refugees in Malaysia rely on 'hidden schools' to pursue their primary and secondary education. These 'hidden schools' are run by their own community and some certified NGOs (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). Refugees are engulfed by fear, uncertainty and very little hope for future. Therefore, even a little help could ease their burden.

1.2.2 Education System in Myanmar

Half decade of military rule has deteriorated education system in Myanmar prior to the political collapse; in 1920's it had had a comparatively better education system than other Asian countries (Hyden & Martin, 2016). However, in recent years Myanmar is slowly gaining its strength as peace is being restored. This positive change after many years has impacted its education system too (Hyden & Martin, 2016). Typically, a Myanmar student will have to spend 5 years in primary school and 6 years in secondary school (Hyden & Martin, 2016). According to UNICEF's report, the students' enrollment rate is still unsatisfactory as only 10% continue their education at secondary level (2011).

The role of English in Myanmar education system has experienced varying importance since its arrival through the British rule (Wong, 2005). Colonial rule made English as the language of instruction at all levels (Hayden & Martin, 2016) Moving on, in 1920s and 1930s uprising of nationalist sentiments made English to be abolished as the official language (Wong, 2005). Afterwards, independence in the year 1948 made Burma as the official language (Wong, 2005). In 1964 English came back as foreign

language followed by an education reformation (Wong, 2005). Global influence of English has captured Myanmar's attention, resulting in introduction of English as the compulsory subject from kindergarten to tertiary level education (Wong, 2005). Recent years are witnessing heightened influence of English in Myanmar education as the latter have positioned English in Expanded Circle which is to use English for specific purpose such as business and academia (Ireland & Benthuysen, 2016).

1.2.3 Languages in Myanmar

Myanmar is an ethnically diverse country (Lang, 2002). It has more than 111 languages which are spoken by 135 ethnic groups (Ko Ko & Mikami, 2012, p.12). Burmese, Shan, Kayin, Rakhaine, Chin, Mon and Kachin are most commonly spoken languages (Ko Ko & Mikami, 2012). About 69% people speak Burmese as it is the official language of the country (Lang, 2002). It is interesting to note that some languages are shared by few ethnics and some ethnics use more than one language or dialect (Ko Ko & Mikami, 2012). The current study involved participants from 4 different ethnic backgrounds namely Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil. Figure 1.1 displays distribution of Myanmar ethnic groups.

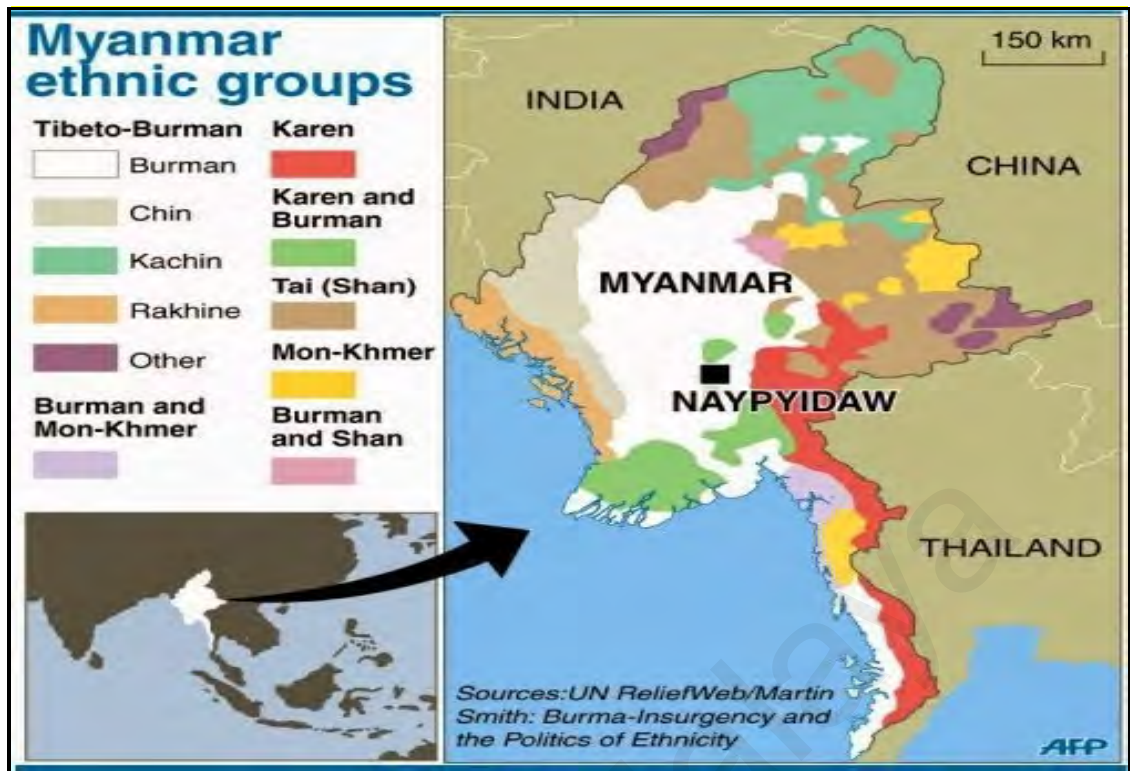


Figure 1.1 Distribution of Myanmar Ethnic Groups

1.2.4 Linguistic Features of Myanmar Languages

Burmese language is the official language of Republic of Myanmar being a multi-national state. Although they are 100 over languages spoken by different ethnic groups, everyone learns Burmese either as their first or second language. About 42000000 people speak this language across the country (<https://www.ethnologue.com>). Burmese language is part of Tibeto-Burman family which is one of branch of Sino-Tibetan language family (Brown& Ogilvie, 2006). It is important to note that standard Burmese language used in official and educational setting is less complicated as opposed to the traditional Burmese language.

Zomi language is widely spoken in Chin state (<https://www.ethnologue.com>). It is a member of Sino- Tibetan language family too. It has about 42000 speakers in Myanmar (<https://www.ethnologue.com>). The language is also spoken in certain parts of India like Manipur and Assam. Interestingly, the language shares 95% similarity in

terms of lexical items with Hakha language as both are spoken in Chin state of Myanmar (Tawng, 2017).

Hakha or Hakha Chin or Hakha Lai is also used by people in Chin state with only 140000 speakers (<https://www.ethnologue.com>). There are about 10000 people speaking this language in Myanmar's neighbour countries like Bangladesh and India (Dryer, 2008). This language also belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family. It is noteworthy that this language is very similar to Burmese and Zomi as they all belong to same language family. Unlike Burmese, usage of Hakha language is limited to family environment of the native speakers.

Tamil is also one of the languages used in Myanmar. Only 2% from the overall population speak this language (<https://www.ethnologue.com>). It is a Dravidian language spoken mostly in countries like India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia and Singapore. All the languages in the study share the same word order which is SOV (Subject + Object + Verb). Due to this word order, some of the equivalent lexical collocations with English don't exist in the languages. The closest to English lexical collocations found in Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil are *Noun + Verb (L3)* pattern (Dryer, 2008). This pattern is present because of the SOV word order of the languages. As such, *L1 (Verb + Noun)* does exist in the languages as verb is always the final element of any given sentence. Similarly, *L6 (Verb + Adverb)* type is also don't exist across all 4 languages. Usually, in the mentioned languages an adverb comes before a verb not vice versa. Moving on, in terms of *L2 (Adjective + Noun)* pattern of English collocations, similar forms can be found in Burmese, Zomi and Hakha. One impressive fact is that, Adjective + Noun forms too present in those languages (Dryer, 2008). However for Tamil, it only has *Adjective + Noun* form.

Apart from that, *L5 (Adverb + Adjective)* and *L7 (Noun + Noun)* types have Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil equivalents too. Lastly, *L4 (Noun of Noun)* don't

exist as those languages don't have "of" equivalent. Table 1.1 shows few instances of equivalent lexical collocations found in Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil languages.

Table 1.1 Instances of Equivalent Lexical Collocations

Language	L2 (Adjective + Noun or Noun + Adjective)	L3 (Noun + Verb)	L5 (Adverb + Adjective)	L7 (Noun + Noun)
Burmese	<p>Adjective +</p> <p>Noun</p> <p><i>hnit ma</i> - younger sister</p> <p><i>hnit</i> - younger</p> <p><i>ma</i> - sister</p> <p>Noun +</p> <p>Adjective</p> <p><i>hta min chaw</i> - fried rice</p> <p><i>hta min</i> - rice</p> <p><i>chaw</i> - fried</p>	<p><i>hkway haung</i> - dog barks</p> <p><i>hkway</i> - dog</p> <p><i>haung</i> - barks</p>	<p><i>aalwan</i></p> <p><i>kaunggsai</i> - very good</p> <p><i>aalwan</i> - very</p> <p><i>kaunggsai</i> - good</p>	<p><i>ngar hin</i> - fish</p> <p>curry</p> <p><i>hin</i> - fish</p> <p><i>ngar</i> - curry</p>

‘Table 1.1 Continued’

<p>Zomi</p>	<p>Adjective + Noun <i>nungak mel hoih</i> - pretty girl <i>nungak</i> - pretty <i>mel hoih</i> - girl Noun + Adjective <i>melhoih liapal</i> - pretty girl <i>melhoih</i> - girl <i>liapal</i> – pretty</p>	<p><i>hun ki pan ta</i> - event starts <i>hun ki</i> - e vent <i>pan ta</i> - starts</p>	<p><i>tak pi hoih</i> – very good <i>tak pi</i> – very <i>hoih</i> – good</p>	<p><i>sang thung ip</i> - school bag <i>sang thung</i> - school <i>ip</i> - bag</p>
<p>Hakha</p>	<p>Adjective + Noun <i>ttha inn</i> - luxurious house <i>ttha</i> - luxurious <i>inn</i> - house Noun + Adjective <i>me nak</i>- black ball <i>me</i> (ball) <i>nak</i> (black)</p>	<p><i>ruah ah sur</i> - rain falls <i>ruah</i> - rain <i>ah sur</i> – falls</p>	<p><i>hramthawk nak</i> - event starts <i>hramthawk</i> - event <i>nak</i> – starts</p>	<p><i>ruahkam angki</i> - raincoat <i>ruahkam</i> - rain <i>angki</i> - coat</p>
<p>Tamil</p>	<p>Adjective + Noun <i>karuppu panthu</i> - black ball <i>karuppu</i> - black <i>panthu</i> - ball</p>	<p><i>vizha</i> <i>thodangkiyathu</i> - Event started <i>vizha</i> - event <i>thodangkiyathu</i> – started</p>	<p><i>miga uyaram</i>- very tall <i>miga</i>- very <i>uyaram</i>-tall</p>	<p><i>palli</i> <i>putthakam</i>- school book <i>palli</i>- school <i>putthakam</i>- book</p>

1.3 Research Problem

Collocations have gained paramount importance in the context of second and foreign language learning and teaching (Wood, 2015, Peters & Pauwels, 2015, Alali & Schmitt, 2012, Lewis, 1993). A learner with collocational knowledge will excel in terms of fluency, oral abilities, writing proficiency, reading comprehension and even lack in prepositional knowledge can be compensated by collocations (Kremmel, Brunfaut & Alderson, 2015; Wood, 2015; Wong, 2014; Attar & Allami, 2013). Although collocations can greatly support learners, collocations persist as a problematic area for learners irrespective of their proficiency level. Many studies prove that advanced learners too produce deviant collocations (Nguyuen & Webb, 2016; Wong, 2014; Ahamadi, 2012).

Having realized the significance of collocations, ESL and EFL continue to stress its importance by highlighting the necessity to incorporate collocation in vocabulary teaching (Rahimi, Momeni & Nejati, 2012). Hong (2012) stressed that vocabulary teaching is accustomed to single word teaching which has resulted in negligence in incorporating word combinations such as collocations. In the same vein, collocational teaching is still unrecognized given the fact that the schools mostly follow single word teaching (Normazidah Che Musa, Koo & Hazita Azam, 2012). As such, incorporation of collocation teaching in national syllabus could benefit the refugees too. Being in Malaysia they are deprived of access to proper education (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). English language plays a significant role in their lives as they mostly resettle in English speaking countries like America, United Kingdom and Austrialia.

Joel Windle and Jenny Miller (2012) advocated that low literacy of English and first language is the stumbling block in refugee learners' education. Upon their arrival to English speaking countries, the refugee learners find it hard to understand the curriculum as they lack in terms of English proficiency (Bartlett, Menclenhall & Kucher,

2017). Hirano (2014) too identified similar plight where the college going refugee students mostly have low literacy in writing. Low proficiency in English not only affects refugee learners' academics but their self-esteem too. A research that involved 106 first generation refugee youth indicated that the refugee youth with good proficiency possess higher self-esteem than their counterparts (Buchanan & Kashima, 2017).

In similar vein, Sorgen had put forward that refugee learner with good proficiency in English can easily adapt to new environment (2015). Some high school refugee students in America find it hard to communicate with their English speaking American peers and perform poorly in academics due to limited English proficiency (Helgens, 2016).

Role of English in refugee learners' life is pervasive where even their parents seem to be involved in English learning process (Duran, 2018). The parents are mostly illiterate with little or no English knowledge. Thus, they rely on their children to master English. Yu (2012) in her research about refugee students in a Canadian school strongly indicated the importance of English in a refugee student life as whole. She proclaimed that the Canadian school system has a special programme which intends to create refugee learners with native like proficiency (2012). Equipping the refugee learners with good English could be one of the timely supports for their future. As they spend quite a long time in Malaysia, any initiative to make betterments in their English language learning will pave path to their better future.

In relation to the participants of the present study, they yearn to learn English because it will determine their future upon their resettlement in a foreign country (field notes). Proficiency in English is also needed during their temporary stay in Malaysia. Most of them have very little knowledge in Bahasa Malaysia (Malaysia's national language). They have to rely on English language due to the fact that the learning

centres for refugees mostly use English. Research site of the present study too uses English and its language teachers are locals. Thus, with good command of English the refugees will get to perform well in their academics. Therefore, the current study is intended to investigate the collocation productions of Myanmar refugee learners to better understand and facilitate in their language learning.

Besides that, studies done on refugees in Malaysia mostly focus on their living conditions and rights. Charity Lee's (2016) research highlighted refugees' personal experience being a refugee and struggles they face. Similarly, Alice's (2006) study too informed the struggles of refugees and ways to promote a better living for them. There is one research which explained the rights of a refugee which they need very much (Nur Sulastri Abdul Rahim, 2008). Previous studies have left a gap in addressing the second language learning of refugee learners in Malaysia. Thus, current research could be helpful as it highlighted second language learning of refugees as a whole, simultaneously giving voice to the unvoiced group.

1.4 Aim of the study

The study focuses on Form 3 Myanmar refugees of a learning centre in Malaysia particularly their collocation productions in a written task. Based on their collocation productions specifically lexical collocations, the study intends to:

- a) Identify lexical collocations that the participants able and unable to produce in their picture -based written task

and

- b) Explain the possible sources for the deviant lexical collocations to appear in their picture-based written task

1.5 Research Questions

As the study aims to investigate the lexical collocation productions of Myanmar refugee learners, the following research questions are constructed:

1. What are the types of lexical collocations Myanmar refugee learners able and unable to produce in their picture-based written task?
2. What are the possible sources for the deviant lexical collocations to appear in their picture -based written task?

1.6 Limitations

The study has few limitations. Firstly, the study only employed 30 participants with 4 different ethnic groups such as Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to refugee learners of different background and country. Other than that, the participants of this are representatives of intermediate learner group. They were extracted from a total of 36 Myanmar refugee learners representing the weak and intermediate learner group. Model PT3 English Written paper was administered to identify the intermediate group. Due to time constraint, only PT3 English Written Paper was administered, discarding the other parts of PT3, the Listening and Speaking Test.

Thus, administration of PT3 English Written Paper alone may not reflect accurate measure of participants' English proficiency level. Furthermore, only one picture based written task was employed to extract lexical collocations. Thus, it limited the production of collocations within that genre of writing. Another notable limitation is that the study did not use the longitudinal approach which is considered as the novel approach in the study of collocations. This method was not approached as the study did not intend to study the collocational development of the learners.

Lastly, learner language is the main source of the study which comes with many types of errors like punctuation errors, stylistics errors and so on. Those errors were neglected to focus on the collocational errors.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study could be very helpful to the Myanmar refugee learners in Malaysia. Literature on refugees in Malaysia hint to the necessity to cater the needs of this group of learners. Thus, highlighting their language learning could help the educators and policy makers to create a better learning pedagogy and environment for the refugees. Besides that, most of refugees rely on 'hidden schools' with no proper syllabus and teachers (Zarkesh, Baranovich & Shoup, 2017). This research could serve as a guide for them to provide better education. Moving on, refugee learners are expected to build their permanent homes in countries like Canada, United Kingdom, Australia and so on which use English as their first and formal language. Proficiency in English will be very helpful for their survival later on. Thus, exposure to the 'native-like language' is possible through learning of collocations (Lewis, 2000; Wood, 2015).

According to Lewis, expanded mental lexicon is the criterion that distinguishes both intermediate and advanced learners (2000). Thus, by indicating the importance of collocations, the intermediate learner group could stand the chance to become proficient through an easy manner. This is because researches indicated that learning collocations can reduce processing effort thus making learning easy (Schmitt & Conklin, 2012). Besides that, previous researches strongly recommended collocations teaching for all learners (Howarth, 1996; Lewis, 2000; Liu, 2005; Ahmadi, 2012; Wong, 2014). Through this study a stronger emphasis in the need to incorporate teaching of collocations could be made.

1.8 Summary

This chapter covers the research problem, aim of the study, limitation, research questions and significance of the study. The study has given substantial attention to background of Myanmar refugee learners in Malaysia, a very unique group of second language learners in Malaysia. The study consists of five chapters: Chapter 1, the introduction and it highlights the brief details of the study as the whole. Chapter 2 is the literature review which involves sections on the definition of collocations and past studies on collocations. Chapter 3 explains the methodology of data collection and the techniques the data had utilized to analysis purpose. Chapter 4 is the compilation of results and discussion of results. Last but not least, the fifth chapter consists of summary of results, implication of the study and limitations.

Universiti Malaysia

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is devoted to compile relevant literature on vocabulary learning and teaching, learner language and collocations. Vocabulary learning is the focal point of the study because its approaches are changing with time to better suit the learners in general. Then, collocation which is the key feature of the present study is discussed in depth by highlighting some of its key elements like definition of collocations, studies on collocations, causes of collocational errors and significance of teaching collocations.

2.2 Second Language Learning

Second language learning is an important phase in one's life. It is mostly learnt in formal environments like school and language centre. Most of the countries in the world have English as their second language due to the colonial influence. Needless to say, that they have been putting in a great deal of effort to lubricate the learning of English.

In the Malaysian context, there is a decline in the English proficiency in current time. The Star Newspaper, one of the Malaysian dailies reported that in the year 2016 about 1000 young doctors quit their job because of low proficiency in English. This condition came as a shock to the former colonial state as they have been familiar to English over many decades. It is more devastating for the refugees in Malaysia who come from war torn countries and disrupted education background. This unfavorable condition is definitely a drawback in learning experience of refugees.

In general, learners cannot refrain from producing errors in their second language production. Their errors are studied using error analysis method to better

understanding the learner language. Present study termed participants errors as lexical collocational errors. The steps to conduct Error Analysis by Ellis (1986) are following:

- a) Collection of learner language sample
- b) Identification of errors
- c) Description of errors
- d) Explanation for errors
- e) Evaluation of errors

Earlier mentioned steps are used as guidelines in the present study which studied the lexical collocational errors of the participants. It is noteworthy that error analysis has its own challenges which must be tackled by the researcher. Often times, the researcher might find it hard to determine the source of an error due to ambiguity in classification of errors, which tend to overlap. Some linguists criticized error analysis for degrading or finding faults in learner language (Hong, 2014). They argued that learner language should be treated in its own right and should not be compared with native production. Present study has a different take as it intends to bring betterments in Myanmar refugee learners' language productions. Therefore, error analysis is the most apt way to explore about the former's language production.

Though all learners strive to reach native- like proficiency, it was claimed that they will experience fossilization stage in their language learning (Selinker, 1972). It is the stage where learning will cease and learners will never fully acquire a second language. The famous claim may demotivate a learner but learning is a unique process which is yet to be fully discovered.

Succinctly, second language learning field has ventured into many theories and approaches to build a better learning experience for the learners in general. An attempt to investigate learner language is crucial as it will broaden our views as language learners.

2.2.1 Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

In second language learning, vocabulary and grammar are considered as the 'ying-yang'. Every learner is exposed to these 2 elements for successful language learning. Nevertheless, literature on vocabulary learning and teaching revealed rather a 'less prioritized' journey for vocabulary. First and foremost, through grammar translation method which was used to teach Modern Languages apparently sidelined vocabulary (Brown, 1994; Ricahrds&Rogers, 2001; Zimmerman, 1997). Through that approach only vocabulary with grammatical functions was incorporated in English language syllabus.

Then, Direct Method was introduced (Schmitt, 2000; Ketabi&Shahraki, 2011). It positioned second language (L2) as the oral language which was designed to help in oral productions only. Correspondingly, vocabulary was made simple to help in oral production thus indirectly neglecting the significance of vocabulary. In addition, it was thought that vocabulary can be obtained naturally though oral production.

Moving on, Audio-lingual Method was used in United States Army by its soldiers for the later to learn foreign languages easily (Schmitt, 2000). Through this approach learners were given practice in terms of pronunciation and drills on sentence patterns. At that time, language learning was considered the same as habit formation. Those in language field had subscribed to the idea that a learner can pick up a language through continuous practice, the similar way of picking up any habit. Again, this method also did not explore on the real potential of emphasizing vocabulary learning. In 1980's communicative approach was introduced by Hymes started to gain attention in second language field (Schmitt, 2000; Wong, 2014). Communicative competence was the main focus where the learners were taught only to use language appropriately which resulted in inaccurate language production. It was believed that L2 learning take

place through communication and vocabulary would follow suit (Coady; 1993, Schmitt; 2000).

Regardless the neglect towards vocabulary learning and teaching, Vocabulary Control Movement and Natural Approach started to stress the importance of vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). As a start, Vocabulary Control Movement came up with list consisting of important English words. The compilation was named “Basic English” containing 850 words and Odgen and Richards were responsible for the compilation (Schmitt, 2000). As a follow up “General Service List of English Words” by West was published as the result of finding from Carnegie Report where word frequency was identified as the main element in word selection (Richards & Rogers, 1986; Nation; 1990&2008; Zimmerman, 1997; Schmitt; 2000). Through these attempts vocabulary started to gain importance and scientific method was used to select vocabulary for language courses (Schmitt, 2000). Other than that, priority over vocabulary was reflected in Krashen’s Natural Approach where it viewed vocabulary as the “bearer of meaning” as without it language production is impossible (Coady, 1993).

Besides that, Reading Models too stressed the importance of vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Both top-down and bottom up processes in reading particularly give priority to background knowledge or the schemata which is the backbone for one to acquire reading skills. As a matter of fact, vocabulary forms “schemata”, consisting concepts and word forms (Nation, 2001). Besides the changes in vocabulary teaching and learning methods over time, some linguists also predicted that vocabulary would become the key feature of language learning. In 1991, Grabbe had put forward the idea that coming eras would see the widespread influence of vocabulary in all language domains (Nation, 2001). In the similar vein, Sein (1991) predicted that vocabulary would play major role in English for Academic Purpose subjects with each subject emphasizing subject-specific vocabulary to lubricate learning process.

Introduction of various methods apparently did not give a clear picture on vocabulary learning and teaching as mostly the latter depended on either word lists or natural acquisition (Nation, 2001). As words form the integral part in vocabulary learning, Nation emphasized the need for a learner to obtain word knowledge which has many aspects and degrees (2001).

2.2.2 Word Knowledge

As mentioned earlier, in vocabulary learning and teaching single word learning is the key element (Nation, 2001). In classroom setting, only form and meaning are exposed as a result other aspects of word knowledge like collocations are never taught (Bahns, 1993; Hodnu, 2009; Henriksen, 2013). Lewis also accentuated this gap in syllabus too (2005). Primarily traditional vocabulary learning looks at few aspects such as meaning and pronunciation (Nation, 2001). In contrast to this popular method, Nation highlighted that knowing a word involves many other aspects (2001). The aspects are as follow:

- a) The way a word is articulated
- b) The way a word is written
- c) Derivative forms, part of speech and grammatical patterns of a word
- d) Collocations of a word
- e) How often a word is used in a language
- f) Words' appropriateness based on stylistic constraints
- g) Conceptual meaning of a word
- h) Semantic network of a word

(Adapted from Nation's
concept of knowing a word)

Besides these aspects, word knowledge also involves breadth and depth knowledge of a word (Qian, 1999). Breadth knowledge is the number of word a person knows (Qian, 1999). On the other hand, depth knowledge involves dimensions like pronunciation, spelling, meaning, frequency, register, morphological syntactic and collocation properties (Qian, 1999). Again the importance of knowing a word's collocations is reiterated by Qian. Inclusion of collocation in vocabulary teaching is still at its infancy in Malaysian context and it could be the high time to revamp our vocabulary teaching methods (Wong, 2014).

2.3 Collocations, the key element in language teaching

There are many scholars who emphasized the role of collocations such as Brown (1974), Nattinger (1988), Aghbar (1990), Filmore (1979), Bahns & Eldaw (1993), Howarth (1998), Nation (2001) and many more. Nattinger for example, focused on "lexical phrases", the ways to teach collocations (1988). She classified collocations as one of the 6 interim besides phrasal constraints, deictic locations, sentence builders, situational utterances and verbatim texts (2001). She further expounded that collocations should be given the same priority as grammar.

In 1974, Dorothy Brown authored the book titled "Advanced Vocabulary Teaching: The Problem of Collocations" where she strongly recommended perspectives on collocation teaching (Smith, 1983). She proclaimed that with collocations students will realize that language is majorly consists of 'chunks' (1974). In addition to that, she also suggested the incorporation of collocations in syllabus and recommended that students should be exposed with normal collocations followed by the unusual collocations (1974).

Collocations also become integral part in dictionary compilation where A.S Hornby initiated the first move in including collocations in dictionary (Zhang, 1993).

Similar effort was undertaken by Cowie, Mackin and McCaig through the creation of The Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English in 1975 (Zhang, 1993). In 1998 BBI Combinatory Dictionary by Benson and friends become the most comprehensive dictionary for collocations (Zhang, 1993; Ahmadi, 2012).

Other than that, technology also played crucial role in pioneering collocational teaching and learning. For instance, the COBUILD Project gathered a corpus of 20 million words (Schmitt, 2000). As a result, this development in computational linguistics provided a stronger proof on the importance of collocations as it is found that 70% of native corpora consist of prefabricated chunks (Nesselhauf, 2005). The gradual development in collocation field sent a strong message on the need to shift from single word learning to prefabricated chunks (Schmitt, 2000). The recent development in collocation is highlighted through the introduction of Lexical Approach by Michael Lewis (2005, p.25).

Lexical Approach by Michael Lewis (1998) has special influence to this current research. His approach promoted learning of multi words instead of traditional method which popularized single word learning in second language (1998). This claim is supported by the evidences from the native speakers' written and spoken data which consist of prefabricated chunks or multi words (Lewis, 2000). Based on this finding, Lewis strongly emphasized the need to shift attention to learning of collocations as they appear more frequently in native speakers' corpus than the other types of prefabricated chunks. This revelation is also supported by McCarthy (1984), Gitsaki (1996), Hill (2000) and Conzett (1998).

The significance of teaching collocations was very firstly stressed by Chanell as she encouraged the teachers to pay attention to collocations rather than single words (1981). The prudence of collocation is also emphasized by Hill where he had put forward that a student just with 2000 words but with collocational knowledge can be

competent than a student with 20000 words without the knowledge of collocation (2000). Many learners admitted that they were never aware of collocations as second language learning's primary focus is single word learning (Shamami, 2007).

According to Conzett, introducing collocations in second language learning is not a difficult transformation as teachers just have to inculcate the habit of noticing multi words rather than single words among students (1998). This does not require any change in syllabus or even textbooks. Teachers just have to help students identify prefabricated chunks and encourage the students to notice and use them as they are.

It is undeniable that lexical approach popularized by Lewis is very much relevant to the current study. This is because the participants of the study are following national curriculum which yet to incorporate collocational teaching. In addition to that, vocabulary teaching mostly involves meanings and pronunciations of words thus have led to either little exposure or no knowledge of collocation among both learners and educators of the research site (field notes). Besides that, their vocabulary teaching solely depends on traditional dictionaries despite the current vocabulary trend which has been witnessing the use of collocation dictionaries and native corpuses like British National Corpus. Therefore, introduction to collocational teaching could help in promoting better English among the learners and provide effective teaching methods for the educators with similar teaching environment.

2.3.1 History of Collocation

Collocations have a long history. Research on collocations first started 2300 years ago in Greek (Robins, 1967). In Greek literature, the scholars formed connection between collocation and semantic (Robins, 1967). They argued that words cannot function in isolation as they are understood based on the collocation that they appear. Works of John Firth who is the father of collocation also resonated concepts introduced

by the Greek scholars (Wong, 2014; Shamms, 2013). Though John Firth has been notified as the ‘Father of Collocations’, the term itself is first introduced to the linguistic world by Harold E. Palmer in 1938 (Men, 2018; Wong, 2014). In 1930s he introduced a broad term “collocation” to refer to “*comings – together – of words*” (Men, 2018).

According to Palmer in his dictionary “A Grammar of English Word” mentioned that meaning of two or more words that occur together cannot be interpreted based on the meaning of a single word (Soori, 2015). The meaning can only be interpreted based on its component words. Phrases like “*how do you do*” cannot be interpreted based on one single word of that phrase but must be understood as one word (Soori, 2015). However, his definition of collocation did not explicitly mention the type of relationship between the elements to qualify them as collocation. This gap left by Palmer was later filled by Russian phraseologists like Vinogradov who created the criteria to classify collocations (Men, 2018).

Despite Harold E. Palmer being the first one to introduce the term “*collocation*”, the concept only started to receive attention after highlighted by Firth (Nesselhauf, 2005). It is important to note that when Firth was developing this concept, he was not aware of Palmer’s work, neither Palmer (Nesselhauf, 2005). This is because it was the age before internet and English Language Teaching in British academia and Asia were experiencing parallel development. Their ideas were not exchanged as communication was very outdated back then. Actually this term came from a Latin word “*collocare*” which means words that occur together (Martynaska, 2003).

Firth defined collocation as “*the company a word keeps*” (Firth, 1957). It can be understood that definition of a word is construed based on its location with co-occurring words. Most importantly, Firth’s definition moved to a new direction where he explained collocation in context of syntagmatic relationship (Soori, 2015). Previously, relationships of lexical items used paradigmatic relationships such as antonymy and

synonymy (Firth, 1957). It was thought that lexical items fitting to the same class can be swapped with each other in both lexical and grammatical context (Soori, 2015).

Firth's definition was received well in linguistics world resulting in many linguists adopting Firth's approach to define collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005; Sorri, 2015). They were called New Firthians (Nesselhauf, 2005). Since then, researches on collocations become very famous and continued to create more approaches and definitions. Literature on collocations clearly mention that the term is very wide and cannot be delimited to one specific definition (Pecina, 2009, p.14). By and large, the approaches developed by the linguists can be grouped into 3 main approaches namely Firthian Approach, Phraseological Approach and Psychological approach (Nesselhauf, 2005). Table 2.1 shows list of scholars for each collocational approach.

Table 2.1 List of Scholars for 3 Main Collocational Approaches

Firthian Approach	Phraseological Approach	Psychological Approach
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • John Firth (1991) • John Sinclair (1991) • M A, K Halliday (1993) • Hassan, R (1993) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A.P Cowie (1974) • Iguk Melcuk (1982) • F.J Hausmann (1989) • Fernando (1996) • Cantos & Santez (2001) • Hill (2000) • Benson 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leech (1974) • Greenbaum (1974) • Alan Parington (1998) • Aitchison (2003) • Hoey (2005)

2.4 Approaches on Collocations

2.4.1 Firthian Approach

The pioneer of Firthian approach or frequency based approach is John Firth and later on developed by his followers John Sinclair and Halliday and so on (Sorri,

2015). This approach talks about co-occurrence of words. Sinclair further added that the co-occurrences usually appear frequently in both spoken and written language use (1991). As the co-occurrences deal with frequency, they can be determined using statistical approach. Actually the statistical approach is another name for frequency based approach. John Sinclair referred them as words that appear together within a short span.

This short span or span has its limit where only 4 words to the right and 4 words to the left of the “*node*”, the “*node*” which is the word that is analyzed for its collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

For example, “he went back to school (*node*). The students were very noisy”. In the given sentences, if “*school*” is the word that will be analyzed, the other words that co-occur are its collocates. The collocates are “*back*”, “*students*”, “*noisy*”, “*he*”, “*went*”, “*to*”, “*the*”, “*were*” and “*very*”. The above mentioned explanation will definitely categorize every single word that occurs in a text as “*collocates*”. To clear this confusion, Sinclair further specified this co- occurrence into significant occurrence and casual co-occurrence (Nesselhauf, 2005). The significant occurrence is often termed as collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005). Based on the above example, “*school*” being the node word, its significant occurrence would be students as opposed to the other words. The co-occurrence of “*school*” and “*students*” are very frequent than other words and their co-occurrence is something predictable.

Furthermore, this co-occurrence is also a strong one as compared to the words like “*he*” and “*school*”. The word “*he*” can occur in any combinations without any restrictions thus it cannot be considered as a significant collocation (Krishnamurthy, 2013). However, some prefer to term all co-occurrences as collocations without looking at the aspect of significance of co-occurrences (Nesselhauf, 2005). Sinclair’s

mention of collocations as relationship between lexical items was also agreed by Halliday (Krishnamurthy, 2013).

Later on, Sinclair altered the definition as lexeme which is used in the sense of word. Hence, collocations are defined as the relationship between lexemes. In the context of classification, collocations fall into 2 categories, downward collocation and upward collocation (Sinclair, 1991). If A is the “*node*” (in the sense that A to be the first element to occur in a combination) and B is the “*collocate*” then this will be identified as downward collocation (Sinclair, 1991). Upward collocation occurs if the case is vice versa where A becomes the “*collocate*” (Sinclair, 1991).

Moving on, Halliday and Hassan, the followers of John Sinclair contributed to development of Firthian Approach as well. From Halliday’s perspective, collocation is about association probability of lexical items where they occur together in a text (Soori, 2015). Other than that, Halliday gave birth to the term “*set*”, to refer to grouping of items with possibility to occur in a same collocation (Soori, 2015). Words such as *type*, *copy* and *delete* can be grouped under one lexical set because they are collocates of the word “computer”.

Moreover, Halliday and Hassan introduced the term “*collocation cohesion*” (Soori, 2015). This term is actually associated with cohesion where cohesion occurs as the result of co-occurrence of lexical item with the tendency to appear in same environments (Soori, 2015). They also observed lexical items as patterns that carry meaning which appear within and across sentence boundaries.

Syntactic relationship between elements generally does not come as the criterion to decide collocation. Kjellmer and Greebaum are the ones who diverted slightly from the typical definition of collocation in the context of frequency based approach (Nesselhauf, 2005). Greebaum rejected the co-occurrence of words within a short span concept by John Sinclair (Nesselhauf, 2005). His definition has the essence of

phraseological approach as in his perspective collocations are the words that occur with very strong grammatical relationship.

2.4.2 Phraseological Approach

Another approach used to define collocations is known as phraseological approach. This approach has the influence of Russian phraseology (Cowie, 1994). The typical definition of collocation based on this approach is word combination that is unchangeable to some degree but not entirely (Nesselhauf, 2005). This approach is also called significance oriented approach. There are few key persons who developed this approach namely A.P Cowie, Iguk Melcuk and F.J Hausmann. A. P Cowie categorized collocations as a type of combination which appears alongside with idioms and free combinations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

He divided the word combinations into composites and formulae (Nesselhauf, 2005). Formulae is also a type of word combination which majorly has pragmatic function (Nesselhauf, 2005). These combinations consist of greetings like good morning, how are you, good afternoon and so on.

As for composites, they have syntactic function. The composites are determined based on 2 criterions namely transparency and commutability (Men, 2018). This transparency criterion is used to check whether the element of the combination has literal or non- literal meaning. The other criterion, commutability or substitutability determines the degree of the substitution of elements in a combination, whether highly substitutable or vice versa. Therefore, based on these 2 criterions word combinations can be classified into free combination, restricted collocations, figurative idioms and pure idioms (Nesselhauf, 2005).

Free combination is a word combination where the elements can form word combination without any restriction which means the combination has high degree of

transparency and commutability (Nesselhauf, 2005). For instance the word combination “*eat ice cream*” has literal sense where the meaning of the both the elements “*eat*” and “*ice cream*” convey direct meaning. As for the commutability criterion, the word “*eat*” can combine with any food related elements, thus there is no restriction.

Moving on, restricted collocations as the name conveys it has some restrictions in its combination. For example, “*make a bed*” this combination has some restrictions where only some substitution is possible. In the context of transparency, one element has literal meaning and the other one has non- literal meaning. The word “*make*” has non- literal meaning while “*bed*” has literal meaning.

Thirdly, in the case of figurative idioms the commutability is highly unlikely and the combination has figurative meaning with interpretable literal sense. “*cost an arm and leg*” is one of the examples of figurative idiom. Lastly, the pure idioms are the word combinations with the strictest combination where the commutability is impossible and there is no literal sense in the combinations. The examples of pure idioms would be “*let the sleeping dogs lie*”, “*the pot calling the kettle black*”, “*cut the mustard*” and so on. Generally, those who employ phraseological approach use the term “*collocations*” for the restricted collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005). For the unrestricted word combinations they use terms like free combination and co- creations. However, there are few researchers who used the term “*collocations*” for free combinations and restricted collocations (Nesselhauf, 2005).

In the view point of Mel Cuk, collocations involved 2 elements. One is the chosen element or a word while the other(word(s)) appears because of the chosen element, thus depending on the chosen element. According to Cowie’ definition, he did not specify the characteristics of the elements in a collocation. Mel Cuk lifted blurry image of the elements by distinguishing them. The term “*keyword*” is referred to the element that is chosen for its meaning while the term “*value*” is used for the dependent

element which is combined because of the “*keyword*” In the collocation “*do a favour*”, “*favour*” is the keyword and “*do*” is the value as the latter occurs because of the meaning of the former.

As “*favour*” being the keyword it has the authority to select the element to co-occur with it. On the same plane, Hausmann created terms namely “*base*” and “*collocator*” to convey the distinction between the elements (Nesselhauf, 2005). “*Base*” has the same function as “*keyword*” and “*collocator*” vice versa. These terms can be seen in French as they are derived from the French words “*basis*” for base and “*kollokator*” for collocator. However, the terms “*collocator*” and “*value*” have little disparity where “*value*” stands for all the elements that collocate with the keyword whereas “*collocator*” only refers to one element. Talking about Hausmann, in his classification of collocation, it only involves combination of 2 lexical items. Based on this limitation, he created few categories of collocations such as *adjective + noun*, *noun + noun*, *adverb + noun* and *adjective; verb + noun*.

Fernando saw collocations as the word combination whose elements are less likely to be substituted (1996). For example, in the word combination “*addled eggs*”, the element “*addled*” can only combine with “*eggs*” as the meaning itself has reference to eggs.

Cantos and Sanchez (2001) convinced that collocations are conservative or preformed expressions. Collocations are seen as word combinations that are frequent and two or more words that usually used together. We say a “*fair price*” not an “*impartial price*” (Cantos & Sanchez, 2001). The word price is best suit with “*fair*” not “*impartial*” though both “*fair*” and “*impartial*” though both convey the same meaning.

On the other hand, free combinations consist of word combination which are formed without any restriction or fixed form. The examples of free combinations are

“*bicycle*”, “*an aero plane*” and so on. Generally free combinations involve the combination of noun and article which can be seen in the earlier mentioned example.

Collocations are defined and classified in many different ways. Sometimes the definitions do overlap with other type of word combinations too. Likewise, collocations and colligations are terms that often misunderstood because of their similarity. Scholars like Lewis and Conzett (2000) clearly distinguished these word combinations by saying that collocation occurs when one word combines with the other word frequently whereas colligation occurs when a word combines with a certain (grammar) pattern frequently. The verb “*driving*” is an example of colligation where it could form combinations like: *miss my driving test, his driving test, will be responsible for my driving*. Earlier mentioned examples clearly indicate that some verbs generally occur with certain tense, noun and a personal pronoun which position them as colligation.

Moving on, unique collocation is the name given to strong collocation by Hill (2000). This special term is given to collocations which are usually fixed. Benson et al. (1986, p.ix) have adopted phraseological approach in defining collocation. All the languages generally contain word combinations which are fixed, semi- fixed, non-idiomatic phrases and constructions. They also often referred as recurrent combinations, fixed combinations and collocations.

They are not like free combinations which can loosely combine with any lexical items. For instance, “*eat*” can combine with any lexical items like “*food*”, “*chicken*”, “*lunch*” and so on. In the context of collocations they are regarded as the elements which co-occur habitually and meant to be connected.

Based on this general definition, Benson et al. (1986) classified collocations into lexical and grammatical collocations. Lexical collocations is divided into 7 types whereas grammatical collocations into 8 types. These 15 types of collocations altogether combine with both lexical and grammatical elements such as noun, adjective,

verb and adverb. Firstly the lexical collocations types are distinguished by L1, L2, L3, L4, L5, L6 and L7. The definition of collocations based on classification is as follows. As for grammatical there are 8 types namely G1, G2, G3, G4, G5, G6, G7 and G8.

L1: "L1 collocations are the amalgamation of a verb (usually transitive) and a noun/pronoun (or prepositional phrase)". Mostly L1s include a verb signifying creation and/or activation and a noun/pronoun. They are termed CA collocations for instance *recite a poem* or *launch a missile* (Benson et al, 1986, ppxxiv).

L2: "L2 collocations are combination of a verb signifying eradication and/or nullification and a noun". They are known as EN collocations for example *abort a mission* or *cancel a mission* (Benson et al, 1986, p.xxvi).

L3: "L3 collocations are mixture of an adjective and a noun" for instance *maiden voyage* or *excruciating pain* (Benson et al, 1986, p. xxvi).

L4: "L4 collocations are mixture of a noun and a verb; the verb terms an action that is characteristic of the person or thing chosen by the noun" for instance *dog barks* or *cow moos* (Benson et al, 1986, p.xxvii).

L5: "L5 collocations are a unit combined with a noun". It is usually noun of noun. For example, *a herd of cows* or *an army of ants* (Benson et al, 1986, p.xxvii).

L6: "L6 collocations are combination of an adverb and an adjective" for instance *highly possible* or *richly decorated* (Benson et al, 1986, p.xxvii).

L7: "L7 are combinations of a verb and an adverb" for example *whispered softly* or *placed gently* (Benson et al, 1986, p.xxviii). Table 2.2 is given to clearly illustrate the lexical collocations types and followed by grammatical collocations in Table 2.3 and Table 2.4.

Table 2.2 Lexical Collocations by Benson et al, 1986

Type	Pattern	Examples
L1	V (meaning creation or activation + N (pronoun or prep. Phrase)	Come to an agreement
L2	V (meaning eradication or nullification) + N	Abort a mission
L3	Adj. + N	A maiden voyage
L4	N + V	Cows moo
L5	N of N	A school of fish
L6	Adv. + Adj.	Richly decorated
L7	V + Adv	Whispered softly

Table 2.3 Grammatical Collocations by Benson et al 1986

Grammatical Collocation	Type	Example
G1	Noun + Preposition	<i>Fight against, apathy towards</i>
G2	Noun + to infinitive	<i>It was necessary to implement it.</i>
G3	Noun + that –clause	<i>They said in unison that a bridge would be built soon.</i>
G4	Preposition + Noun	<i>By foot, in advance</i>
G5	Adjective + Preposition	<i>The boys are afraid of the dark.</i>
G6	Adjective + to infinitive	<i>It was crucial to implement certain rules.</i>
G7	Adjective + that – clause	<i>She was afraid that she would fail the examination.</i>

As for Grammatical Collocation Type 8 (G8), it has 19 sub patterns which are mostly verb and adjective combinations (Wong, 2014). The 19 patterns are illustrated in the as follow:

Table 2.4 Sub patterns of Grammatical Collocation Type 8

G8 (1)	Verb + direct object + to + indirect object = V + Indirect Object + Direct Object	He <i>sent the magazine to his teacher</i> . He <i>sent his teacher the magazine</i> .
G8 (2)	Verb + Direct Object + to + Indirect Object (do not allow dative movement transformation)	They <i>recommended the recipe to her</i> .
G8 (3)	Verb + do + for + Indirect object = V + Indirect Object + Direct Object	Anis <i>designed a card for her mother</i> . Anis <i>designed her mother a card</i> .
G8 (4)	Verb + preposition + Object	They <i>came by areoplane</i> .
G8 (5)	Verb + to infinitive	She <i>continued to sing</i> .
G8 (6)	Verb + bare infinitive	Sha <i>had better leave</i> .
G8 (7)	Verb + verb- ing	They <i>enjoy playing hockey</i> .
G8 (8)	Verb + Object + to infinitive	We <i>forced them to dance</i> .
G8 (9)	Verb + Object + bare infinitive	Ali <i>heard them laugh</i> .
G8 (10)	Verb + object + Verb – ing	I <i>caught them stealing mangoes</i> .
G8 (11)	Verb + a possessive and Verb –ing	Please <i>excuse my disturbing you at this hour</i> .
G8 (12)	Verb + that clause	The doctor <i>recommends that I take iron tablets</i> .
G8 (13)	Verb + Object + to be + C	They <i>consider him to be well versed in English</i> .
G8 (14)	Verb + Object + C	The man <i>found his village demolished</i> .
G8 (15)	Verb + Object 1 + Object 2	The doctor <i>asked the patient fees</i> .
G8 (16)	Verb (+ Object) + Adverbial	Amri <i>closed the door tight</i> .
G8 (17)	Verb + (Object) + wh- clause/wh –phrase	He <i>asked when he should prepare it</i> .
G8 (18)	It + Verb + Object + to infinitive It + Verb + Object + that- clause	<i>It irritated me to know of her promotion</i> . <i>It startled us that our ideas were copied</i> .

'Table 2.4 Continued'

G8 (19)	Verb + Clause (Adjective or Noun)	She <i>became a doctor</i> .
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2.4.3 Psychological Approach

Generally collocations indicate strong relationship between words. This association or relationship is determined based on the meanings a word takes in a given environment. This phenomenon is described as “*collocative meaning*” (Leech, 1974). For instance the words “*handsome*” and “*pretty*” carry the same meaning which defines one’s good looks. But they associate with different nouns as both are used to define beauty of different genders (Leech, 1974). This nature of collocative meaning of any word through its association is termed as “*psychological*” or “*associative*” approach (Partington, 1998). In our mental lexicon, words are stored based on their associative tendency (Greenbaum, 1974).

This associative tendency in our mental lexicon is said to be more organized in native speakers than the non- native speakers (Meara, 1984). In the context of native speaker, they are more likely to relate “*strong*” to “*strong coffee*” whereas non- native speaker would relate to “*powerful*”, another synonym of “*strong*” (Meara, 1984). This exemplifies the stronger associative tendency that naturally occurs in a native speaker. Besides that, this associative tendency also supports predictability of words in a text. For instance, upon seeing the word “*coconut*” our mind will automatically process the word “*tree*”, a strong associate of “*coconut*”.

Aitchison had put forward a strong prove to indicate relationship between collocation and mental lexicon (2003). He stated that “*tongue slips*” can explain the above mentioned relationship when a person produces “*Hungarian restaurant*” instead of “*Hungarian rhapsody*” (2003). As “*hungry*” and “*restaurant*” have strong

associative bond, the person unintentionally produces “*tongue slips*” as the words are stored in such a way in our mental lexicon (Aitchison, 2003). To sum up, the approach is termed as psychological approach because it involves our brain or mental lexicon and how they are realized in a text (Hoey, 2005).

2.5 Notion of Lexical Collocations employed in this study

Collocation is a widely used term in linguistic field. Bahns claimed that ways collocations being defined are many (1993). Therefore, the current study employed definition of collocation based on phraseological approach. It incorporated definition of lexical collocations by Benson et al (1998), Hausmann (1998) and Kimmes (2003). This modification of lexical collocation types is proposed by Hsu (2003) (Wong, 2014). In total the study looked at 7 types of lexical collocations. The first 6 types of lexical collocations used Benson et al classification (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012). The 7th type of lexical collocation employed definition proposed by Hausmann (1998) and Kimmes (2003) (Wong, 2014; Ridha & Al- Riyahi, 2011; Hsu; 2003). The classification of lexical collocations employed in this study is illustrated in Table 2.5.

Current study employed phraseological approach to bring clear distinction between collocations and free combination owing to the fact that it's necessary in L2 learners' collocational studies (Howarth, 1996). In addition to that, the study did not attempt to use frequency approach because frequency approach only identifies significant collocations based on statistical value which does not include collocations based on phraseological approach (Greenbaum, 1970).

Besides that, the study's attempt in highlighting only lexical collocation productions by Myanmar refugee learners' is because it was found that L2 learners usually produce more deviant lexical collocations than grammatical collocations (Ahamdi, 2012; Shamsudin, Sadoughvanini& Zaid, 2012). At the same time, there are

few studies with contradicting results where grammatical collocations are more problematic for learners as opposed to lexical collocations (Li, 1999).

Table 2.5 Lexical Collocation Types by Hsu 2007

Lexical Collocation (Type)	Pattern	Example
Lexical Collocation 1 (L1)	Verb +Noun	Sing a song, cancel a mission
Lexical Collocation 2 (L2)	Adjective + Noun	Strong tea, gentle breeze
Lexical Collocation 3 (L3)	Noun + Verb(Action)	Water flows , wind blows
Lexical Collocation 4 (L4)	Noun 1 of Noun 2	A school of fish, a packet of sugar
Lexical Collocation 5 (L5)	Adverb + Adjective	Really well, Very good
Lexical Collocation 6 (L6)	Verb + Adverb	Speak boldly, whisper quietly
Lexical Collocation 7 (L7)	Noun + Noun	Picnic blanket, school teacher

2.6 Collocational Knowledge of Learners

Collocations are seen as a tough battle for both second and foreign language learners. The struggle with collocations is pervasive in all levels as even advanced learners seem to have difficulty with collocations. A study by Hou Yanjuan claimed that in China, mostly all learners face difficulty in collocation productions as collocational errors have been notified as highly error prone area (2014). His research involved learners of various levels such as from senior middle schools to college levels (2014). Although the frequency of errors decreased in college levels, being the advanced learners the college group produced non- native like collocations, indirectly highlighting their incompetence in collocational knowledge (Yanjuan, 2014).

Similar finding is highlighted in a research which compared collocational use by Turkish learners and Asian learners with native speaker corpora (Demirel & Kazazoglu, 2015). In this research participants' 2 minute spoken corpora was analyzed to identify

their collocational competence in their spoken productions. Their productions lacked native like feature as this could be due to their overdependence on familiar word list which Hesselgren termed as “*lexical teddy bears*” (2015). Usage of same phrases without any variations is also a sign of incompetency in language (Demirel & Kazazoglu, 2015).

Apart from this, a study on collocational error in spoken production of 15 Iranian postgraduates also indicated similar result where the participants produced collocational errors both in impromptu and prepared speech (Shamsudin, Sadoughvanini & Zaid, 2012). The research claimed that collocational errors occur due to learners’ weak knowledge and very little awareness of collocations (2012).

In 2014, Ye Hong analyzed 117 written texts of 117 students of Tongji University, doing science degree. Their written productions were correct in terms of grammar and semantic but was not quite fit to the context, thus revealing their insufficient knowledge in collocations, as the latter greatly helps in natural sounding productions (Hong, 2014). Not only English learners face problems in collocations but learners of other languages too. For instance, Spanish learners also exhibited lack of collocational knowledge as their collocation productions showed little variety and sophistication (Gonzalez, 2013). However, this research contradicted with the popular statement which argues that natives don’t suffer in collocation like the learners (2013). The research indicated that native speakers too produce deviant collocations (2013).

Earliest research by Bolinger (1975) investigated the lexical collocations produced by EFL learners in comparison with native speakers’ collocation productions. As the learners produced deviant collocations, Bolinger recommended lexical collocations teaching for all learners (1975). Besides that, a study by Hussein (1998) was conducted to identify the strategies the learners use in locating correct collocations. The study employed Jordanian EFL students of University of Amman. The results

confirmed that collocations are not easy even for the advanced learners as the advanced learners could only produce 39% of collocations correctly. In addition to that, learners' low performance in vocabulary test was not due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge but lack of attention in learning language chunks (Aghabr, 1998). This stresses the role of collocation in English language vocabulary teaching.

In 2003, Nesselhauf (2003) studied collocation productions of German learners of English. Her focus was specifically on *verb- noun* collocations which she extracted by assigning free written tasks to the participants. The results proved that collocations don't come easy for the learners irrespective of their proficiency levels.

Laufer and Waldman's (2014) research signified that collocational errors continue even at advanced level of proficiency. This study involved Hebrew native speakers with 3 different levels of proficiency. From the participants, 300 000 words of argumentative and descriptive were collected and compared with LOCNESS, English native corpus of young adults. Although the usage of collocations increased across the levels but the errors seem inevitable even among the advanced learners. Thus, the researchers strongly suggested *Focus-on-Form* teaching method which will help the learners to notice collocations.

There is one study that used beginner learners without any prior knowledge of L2 to find out on how the learners learn collocations (Anna, 2012). It indicated the role of collocations in a beginner's language development. Another study on relationship between lexical collocations and writing revealed that collocations help learners to perform better in writing (Seng, 2014). The study by Kamariah Yunus and Su'ad Awab (2011) highlighted that even the law undergraduates face problem in collocations.

Li and Schmitt (2010) specifically researched the production of *Adjective + Noun* collocations of Chinese learners. This study was conducted for one year to detect the development in the *Adjective + Noun* collocations. It is notable through the study

that only a little development was achieved over the course of a year. This finding supported the claim by Lewis where he mentioned that collocational competence will take time to develop (2001).

Similar result was obtained through the research by Granger and Altenberg (2001). They looked at the usage of the highest frequency verb “*make*”. They compared the learner data with native speaker data and it highlighted that EFL advanced learners did not have enough knowledge in high frequency verbs. Biskup (1992) in his study compared Polish and German advanced learners. It revealed that despite being advanced learners both the groups produced non- native like collocations.

According to Chang (1997, as cited in Hsueh, 2004) disclosed that EFL students struggled with lexical collocations in their writing. He used college students as participants for his research where the latter were asked to produce essays. This research analyzed the lexical and grammatical collocation productions of the participants. It was proven through his research that less proficient student tend to make more collocational errors than the proficient ones. The analysis of errors indicated that in the context of lexical collocations, the participants produced highest number of *Adjective + Noun* type lexical collocation error and *Verb + Noun* type lexical collocation error. As for the grammatical collocation, *Preposition + Noun* and *Verb + Preposition* type grammatical collocations had more error than the other types.

A study on collocational errors was conducted at Ming Chuan University China (Li, 2005). It involved 38 college students where they were given 38 assignments and 38 in- class practice. The written samples of the participants were analyzed to detect collocational errors produced by participants. Findings showed that participants produced more errors in grammatical collocations than in lexical collocations. Among the 188 errors, 121 were grammatical collocation errors and the rest were lexical collocation errors (2005).

Through his research Li recommended teaching of collocations as college students too struggle with it. Another study by Masoud Hashemi, Masoud Azizine and Sohrab Dravishi (2011) employed the same method as the previously mentioned research where the former assigned 38 assignments and 38 in- class practice to 68 students of University of Hamadan. To further strengthen their findings they also administered a questionnaire to find out the participants perceptions on collocations. The study signified that collocations are certainly a problematic area for learners.

The study by Ahmadi on the collocational errors produced by Iranian EFL university students contradicted with previously mentioned research by Li (2012). This is because based on Ahmadi's research the participants produced more lexical collocation errors than the grammatical collocation errors. 60 written samples were collected from the subjects. The participants made 60.12% of lexical collocation errors. The study emphasized the need to prioritize collocational knowledge among learners irrespective of their level of language proficiency.

Wang (2001) conducted a longitudinal study on the lexical collocational development among English majors of a college in Taiwan. Throughout the study the participants did not show any positive change in their collocational development. It suggested that inadequate attention towards collocations in classroom learning could be the cause in stunt growth of lexical collocation knowledge among participants.

Koosha and Jafarpour (2006) detected through their research those collocations involving prepositions can be a tough battle for the Iranian EFL learners. The participants of this research were given a translation task consists of 60 fill-in-the blanks involving prepositions. The 200 subjects studying at 3 different universities at Shahrkord mostly relied on their mother tongue. They omitted English prepositions when they could not find the equivalent in their first language (L1). They also employed wrong prepositions for those without mother tongue equivalent. The impact of mother

tongue is very prevalent as the result too proved that 68.5% of collocational errors in the translation task occurred because of L1 interference.

One's proficiency level in a language has no influence on the one's collocational knowledge. Many researches proved that even the proficient or advanced learner can struggle in collocations. The study by Farghal and Obiedat verified that collocation is a common struggle where advanced and non – advanced learners face challenges (1995).

By and large, the previous studies attested the lack of collocational knowledge among learners as it is a common battle for everyone. Therefore, by addressing this issue a learner could perform better in his/her language productions.

2.6.1 Lexical Collocations versus Grammatical Collocations

Collocational errors are very much prevalent among all learners. The current study focused on lexical collocations instead of grammatical collocations. Many studies exposed that lexical collocations are far more problematic than grammatical collocations. For instance, a study by Ahmadi which involved 60 Iranian postgraduates indicated of 63.7% lexical errors. Thus, validating the fact that lexical collocations are more difficult than grammatical collocational. Besides that, analysis on the spoken corpora of 15 Iranian postgraduate in University Teknologi Malaysia marked 67.2% of lexical collocational errors while 64.8% of grammatical collocational errors.

In the similar vein, Chinese learners of Tongji University also recorded 58% of lexical collocational errors which was higher than grammatical collocational errors (Hong, 2014). There are many researches evidently note collocations as the problematic area for all learners. According to Bahns and Eldaw (1993), collocation errors were as twice higher than the single lexical items. Apparently, lexical collocations like *Verb + Noun*, *Adjective + Noun* and *Noun + Noun* are more typical in English than other grammatical collocations. Additionally, learners acquire them at the very early stage of

their learning. Therefore, by focusing on lexical collocations learners will grow up producing appropriate collocations.

2.7 Possible Sources for Collocational Errors

Collocational errors occur both in written and spoken productions of learners for many reasons. Usually collocational errors are explained based on 2 main strategies or sources that learners use. They are namely interlingual and intralingual sources. Liu's (1999) framework for sources of collocational errors comprises both the interlingual and intralingual sources. Actually, the framework adopted by Liu is from Jacob's Richard framework on error analysis. Interlingual source can be defined as the error that occurs because of the influence of first language (L1).

First language (L1) interference can be found in the form of negative transfer. In relation to current research, in Zomi language they say "*eat medicine*" but in English it is actually "*take medicine*". As the Zomi language use "*eat*" (*ne*) for medicine thus the learners might find the direct equivalent instead of the appropriate word. This will lead to unnatural language production. On the other hand, intralingual source can be termed as the errors that occur because of inadequate knowledge in target language. It happens when a learner fails to understand the rules of the target language.

Earlier stated sources have sub-classifications so that an error can be explained in detail. The researcher has listed main sources which are commonly used in studies relating to collocations. The main sources are as follow:

1. **False concept hypothesized:** Learners form wrong conceptions about linguistic structures especially when the items do not show any obvious contradiction to them. Usually, learners misunderstand the function of verbs especially the delexicalized verbs like *make*, *do* and *take*. They often use these verbs interchangeably assuming that the latter serve the similar function. For instance,

a participant produced “*make a pattern*” instead of “*establish a pattern*” in Marjan Ahmadi’s research (2012).

2. **Ignorance of rule of restrictions:** Learners neglect to follow the restrictions for a structure can lead to production of deviant collocation. In Liu’s study a subject had produced “*to make Joyce surprise*” which is sign of false analogy of verb + object + infinitive combination (1999).
3. **Use of synonym:** Learners tend to use words just based on their superficial meaning without realizing about the latter’s collocational tendency. In Sadeghi and Pannifar’s study, a subject produced “*awful method*” instead of “*terrible method*” (2012). The participant had no clue that “*awful*” does not collocate with “*method*” as he or she would have formed the collocation just by relying on the meaning of the word.
4. **Word coinage:** Word coinage which is a type of paraphrase occurs when learners form new word combinations to convey a message. Review of past studies revealed that word coinage rarely contributes to collocational errors. Construction like “*to see sun-up*” instead of “*to see sun-rise*” is an instance of word coinage found in a participant’s essay (Liu, 1999).
5. **Approximation:** It is another type of paraphrase where the learners use incorrect vocabulary item which shares the similar semantic features of the target word. For instance a Form 4 student had produced “*safe my friend*” instead of “*save my friend*” in his essay (Ang Leng Hong, Hajar Abdul Rahim, Tan Kim Hua & Khazriyati Salehuddin, 2011). This deviant collocation had occurred because both “*safe*” and “*save*” are phonologically and semantically similar which might have confused the participant.
6. **Negative transfer:** Learners directly transfer and translate from first language (L1) to target language resulting in deviant collocation. Principally, there are 2

strategies the learners use in negative transfer namely direct translation and code switching¹. In Zheng's study, the participant had produced "*say stories*" instead of "*tell stories*" as the former is a direct translation from Chinese (2007).

L1 interference has received much attention in context of collocational errors among the learners and undoubtedly second language learning domain. It has engendered approaches and theories with parallel views that are often inconclusive. Being in the centre of heated debates, first language is said to bring both positive and negative impact in language learning. In terms of advantage, first language (L1) knowledge prepares one linguistically and cognitively to receive input of a second language thus making the second language learning easy. On the underside, it is widely known that when the learners do not know or understand second language they switch to their first language where they use the latter to find the equivalent in second language which often results in inappropriate language production (Bloom, 2006).

With that being said, a study by Mahmoud on the collocational knowledge of Arab EFL learners showed that 61% collocational errors happened because of L1 interference (2005). The participants of this study were 42 English majors studying at a university in Arab. Despite being the advanced learners they relied on their L1. The rest of the errors were because of intralingual sources like use of synonym and false concept hypothesized. Furthermore, Liu's study also recorded the same result where it was found that collocational errors among Chinese EFL occurred majorly because of interlingual transfer, L1 interference. Other sources like ignorance of rule restriction and false concept hypothesized contributed to very little percentage of errors which is 13%.

A latest research by Sadeghi and Pahanifar claimed that 56% collocational errors occurred because of negative transfer while only 30% errors occurred because of

¹ Code switching is alternating two or more languages in a written or spoken discourse in which the latter will have both the elements of target and native language (Jones, 2000)

intralingual factors like use of synonym, false concept hypothesized and approximation. (2011). Realizing the impact of L1 in collocation production, a study was done in University Kebangsaan Malaysia involving 30 Iranian postgraduates with different L1 background (2014). L1 influence or negative transfer was notified as the significant factor in collocation productions of the learners (Firooz Namvar et al, 2012). Darvishi's research also indicated L1 influence as the cause for collocational errors (2011). L1 influence is the main source for collocational errors in Ridha and Al-Riyahi's research (2011). Similarly, in Sadeghi's research which used translation task marked negative transfer for Persian language interference as main source for deviant collocation (2009).

A study that involved Indonesian EFL students recorded 72% of negative transfer, again stressing the influence of L1 (Said, 2011). Remaining 28% of errors occurred because of use of synonym, rule of restriction and approximation. A research by Francis Wong examined lexical collocation productions of participants of different L1 background and different language proficiency (2014). In his research, negative transfer was identified as the main reason as opposed to false concept hypothesized, overgeneralization and so on (2014). In a study which used multiple choice questions, participants' errors are mostly caused by negative transfer because they used direct translation (Hadi, 2014). In 2015, 450 essays of advanced learners were analyzed and concluded negative transfer as the one of the main reasons for errors to occur (Situ, 2015). However, there are few studies which rejected L1 influence as the cause for collocational errors among learners.

The study done by Shoshana and Levenston (1978) mentioned synonymy, avoidance, transfer and paraphrasing as the causes for the lexical collocational errors among EFL learners.

Ignorance of rule restriction is also accounted for collocational errors as shown in investigation of 68 sophomores of a university in Hamadan City (Hashemi, 2012).

The participants had failed to observe certain linguistic rules which resulted in deviant collocations. For instance, the addition of “s” to all the verbs in the simple present form for both singular and plural subjects. As per rule, only singular subject should receive “s” to its verb but learners mostly misunderstood this concept and end up misusing “s” for all plural subjects too.

Besides that, the research also highlighted lack of collocational concept, L1 transfer and insufficient collocational knowledge as possible reasons for deviant collocations (Hashemi, 2012).

To put it in a nutshell, first language (L1) interference or negative transfer has been notified as the major source for collocational errors. Few handfuls of studies claimed the opposite by citing intralingual sources as possible reason for collocational errors.

2.8 Summary

The chapter covers key elements related to the current study. Firstly, it explains the journey of vocabulary teaching which is witnessing immersion of collocational teaching in current time. It was done to pin point the need to incorporate collocational teaching at all levels. The next section revolves around collocation as whole and most importantly focused on lexical collocation.

The research also highlights different approaches relating to collocation to help in defining collocations used in current study. Then, it lists all possible sources for collocation errors to occur in learner language. By mentioning most commonly cited sources, the researcher has managed to choose the appropriate ones for the use of present study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the details of the methodology employed in this study. The key elements of this chapter are details about the frameworks used in data analysis, reasons for the participants' selection and procedure employed in data collection.

The study involved 2 aims. Firstly, it aims to investigate the types of lexical collocations produced by 30 Form 3 Myanmar refugee learners of a school in Kuala Lumpur. They consisted of 4 ethnic groups of Myanmar, namely Burmese, Hakka, Zomi and Myanmar Tamil. The second aim of this research is to explore the reasons for the lexical collocational errors which occurred in students' written production.

In this study, the frameworks and methods in data analysis were modified in accordance with the nature of the study. Thus, each framework was explained separately. In order to make it clear to the readers, a sample analysis using each framework is given too.

3.2 Research Questions

The research aims to answer two research questions, which are as follow:

1. What are the types of lexical collocations Myanmar refugee learners are able and unable to produce in their picture-based written task?
2. What are the possible sources for the lexical collocational errors which appear in their picture-based written task?

3.3 Theoretical Framework

The study is based on three important frameworks which were employed in the data analysis process. The frameworks are as follow:

- a) Hsu's Classification of Lexical Collocations 2007
- b) Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors
- c) Modified Framework of Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors

3.3.1 Hsu's Classification of Lexical Collocations 2007

Hsu's framework is based on classification of lexical collocations by Benson et al's (1997), Hausmann (1999) and Kimmes (2004). Benson et al's classification is given in Table 3.1. As per Benson et al's classification, they have classified lexical collocations into 7 types. In Hsu's version of classification, he has merged the first two lexical collocation types, namely L1 and L2 (two **Verb + Noun** patterns), into one category (see Table 3.1 and Table 3.2).

Similar kinds of merging of lexical collocation categories have been employed in Li (2005), McCarthy & O' Dell (2008), Hsu (2007), Ridha & Al- Riyahi (2011) and Wong (2014) too. The **Verb + Noun** types (**L1 & L2 Types**) were combined to obtain more data on V+N patterns as they are deemed as very difficult, thus resulting in very low number in terms of production even among advanced learners (Benson et al 1998). Thus, the researcher decided to apply the same method in her research because her participants represent the intermediate group, who are less likely to produce enough lexical collocations if both L1 and L2 types (**Verb + Noun**) were separated. The rest of the lexical collocation types from Benson et al (L3, L4, L5, L6, L7) were changed in terms of their sequence. For instance, L3 type was moved to L2 type and so on. This arrangement shrank 7 lexical collocation types or patterns into 6. A new category

proposed by Hausmann (1999) and Kimmes (2004), which is **Noun + Noun**, was added, forming the L7 lexical collocation type. This category is also used by Ridha & Al- Riyahi (2011) and Wong (2014).

Table 3.1 Lexical Collocation Classifications by Benson et. al (1986)

Type	Pattern	Examples
L1	Verb + Noun V (verbs indicting creation like compose music, make an impression or verbs denoting the concept of activation like set an alarm, launch a missile) + N (noun)	Launch a missile
L2	Verb + Noun V (verbs indicating eradication or nullification like reject an appeal, demolish a house) + N (noun)	Cancel a mission
L3	Adjective + Noun Adj. + N	A humble request
L4	Noun + Verb (the verb indicates an action of the person or thing designated by the noun) N + V	Water flows
L5	Noun of Noun (unit that is associated with a noun like a colony of bees, an act of violence) N of N	A bar of chocolate
L6	Adverb + Adjective Adv. + Adj. ; Adjective + Adverb Adj. + Adv.	Highly possible Sound asleep
L7	Verb + Adverb V + Adv	Whisper quietly

Table 3.2 Lexical Collocation Classifications by Hsu (2007)

Type	Pattern	Examples
L1	<p>Verb + Noun V + N</p> <p>V (verbs signifying creation like compose music, make an impression or verbs denoting the concept of activation like set an alarm, launch a missile) + N (noun)</p> <p>and</p> <p>V (verbs signifying eradication or nullification like reject an appeal, demolish a house) + N (noun)</p>	Pose a question, commit treason
L2	<p>Adjective + Noun Adj. + N</p>	A humble request, Warm greetings
L3	<p>Noun + Verb (the verb indicates an action of the person or thing designated by the noun) N + V</p>	The sun rises, Events starts
L4	<p>Noun of Noun N of N (unit that is associated with a noun)</p>	A piece of advice, a school of fish
L5	<p>Adverb + Adjective Adv. + Adj</p>	Utterly stupid, really amazing
L6	<p>Verb + Adverb V + Adv.</p>	Appreciate sincerely, pray earnestly
L7	<p>Noun + Noun N + N</p>	Party hat, computer games

3.3.2 Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors

Table 3.3 illustrates a framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors which was used to classify the types of lexical collocational errors.

Table 3.3 Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors

Types of collocational errors	Examples
Verb a) Wrong choice of verb b) Wrong form of verb c) Non-existent verb <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of deviant verb • Misuse of item from other lexical categories 	a) Wrong choice of verb e.g.: <i>has</i> a short speech (has instead of give) b) Wrong form of verb e.g.: <i>sing</i> a song (sing instead of sang) c) Non-existent verb <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creation of deviant verb e.g.: <i>fallen</i> in the river (fallen instead of fell) • Misuse of item from other lexical categories e.g.: <i>safe</i> that girl (safe instead of save)
Noun a) Wrong choice of noun b) Non-existent noun Misuse of native language Misuse of item from other lexical categories	a) Wrong choice of noun e.g.: come to my <i>home</i> (come to my house) b) Non-existent noun <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Misuse of native language e.g.: has "<i>joran</i>" (has fishing rod) • Misuse of item from other lexical items e.g.: hear the <i>shouted</i> (hear the shout)
Adjective a) Wrong choice of adjective b) Wrong form of adjective	a) Wrong choice of adjective e.g.: <i>nice</i> performance (wonderful performance) b) Wrong form of adjective e.g.: <i>more good</i> (more good instead of better)
Adverb a) Wrong choice of adverb b) Wrong form of adverb	a) Wrong choice of adverb e.g.: danced <i>jolly</i> (danced jolly instead of danced happily) b) Wrong form of adverb e.g.: rain <i>heavy</i> (rain heavy instead of rained heavily)
Determiner a) Article missing, unacceptable or wrong	a) Article missing, unacceptable or wrong e.g.: <i>went to river</i> (went to river instead of went to the river) e.g.: have <i>a courage</i> (have a courage instead of have the courage)
Preposition a) Preposition missing, unacceptable or wrong	a) Preposition missing, unacceptable or wrong e.g.: <i>2 cans petrol</i> (2 cans petrol instead of 2 cans of petrol)
Number a) Noun used in the singular instead of plural, or plural instead of singular	a) Noun used in the singular instead of plural, or plural instead of singular e.g.: saw <i>two girl</i> (saw two girl instead of saw two girls)

The earlier mentioned framework is based on Types of Collocational Errors by Ang Leng Hong, Hajar Abdul Rahim, Tan Kim Hua and Khazriyati Salehuddin (2011). They adapted it from Nesselhauf's framework on Types of Errors (2003).

In the current research, some elements were retained and some new elements were added to fulfill the need of the research. Specifically, the researcher had retained categories like verb, noun, determiner, preposition and number from the original framework as they are related to lexical collocations. Furthermore, two new categories, namely **adjective and adverb** were added to fulfill the need of the research which involved **Adjective + Noun** (L3 type) and **Adverb + Adjective** (L5 type) pattern. Table 3.4 illustrates the types of collocational errors by Ang Leng Hong, Hajar Abdul Rahim, Tan Kim Hua and Khazriyati Salehuddin (2011).

Table 3.4 Types of Collocational Errors by Ang Leng Hong, Hajar Abdul Rahim, Tan Kim Hua and Khazriyati Salehuddin (2011)

Items	Types of Errors
Verb	Wrong choice of verb (or non-existent verb)
Noun	Wrong choice of noun (or non-existent noun)
Usage 1	Combination exists but is not used correctly
Usage 2	Combination does not exist and cannot be corrected by exchanging single elements
Preposition	Preposition of a prepositional verb missing, present though unacceptable, or wrong
Determiner	Article missing, present though unacceptable or wrong
Number	Noun used in the singular instead of the plural or vice versa

3.3.3 Modified Framework of Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors

In order to provide explanation on the sources of each lexical collocational error, the researcher had adopted and modified the framework by Liu, which latter used in his research on Collocational Errors of EFL Learners 1999. The employment of Liu's

framework can be seen in studies by Ahmadi (2011) and Francis Lee Wong (2014). Besides Liu, there are many scholars who have discussed the sources of collocational errors. For example, Howarth (1998) suggested only cognitive strategies like avoidance, experimentation, overgeneralization and negative transfer. In regards to the current framework, it can be considered more comprehensive as it involved communication strategy too. As for Bloom (2006), he cited mother tongue interference as the main source for collocational errors. Table 3.5 shows the framework on sources of lexical collocational errors used in the present research.

Table 3.5 Modified Framework of Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors

Strategies	Major categorizations of sources of errors	Sub-categorization of sources of errors
Cognitive strategies	Intralingual transfer	a) The use of synonym b) Ignorance of rule restriction c) False concept hypothesized
	Interlingual transfer	Negative transfer
Communication strategy	Paraphrase	a) Approximation b) Word coinage

In general, the framework highlighted 2 main strategies or sources of errors, namely cognitive and communication strategies. These strategies were linked to three major categorizations of sources of lexical errors, which were intralingual transfer, interlingual transfer and paraphrase. This is followed by a more detailed sub-categorization of sources of lexical collocational errors into 6 types, namely use of synonym, ignorance of rule restrictions, false concept hypothesized, negative transfer, approximation and word coinage.

In the current research, ‘false concept hypothesized’ was employed instead of misconception of verbs, which was applied by Marjan Ahmadi (2011). It was because the application of misconception of verbs is limited to verbs only whereas false concept

hypothesized includes misconceptions on linguistic structures as a whole. Furthermore, ‘overgeneralization’ was not included because ‘ignorance of rule restrictions and overgeneralization tend to overlap. Thus, the researcher had decided to use ignorance of rule restrictions alone, which is clearer. The seven sub-categorizations are elaborated in the following sub-sections.

3.3.4 The Use of Synonym

Generally, the use of synonym becomes a source of collocational error whenever a learner applies the open choice principle for a lexical item (Farghal and Obiedat, 1995). Learners tend to perceive synonyms as words with the same meaning, devoid of the knowledge of the collocational property of each word. This is one of the significant sources of collocational errors in the current research as the latter deals with lexical collocations in other words lexical items. Furthermore, this source was identified as a major source of collocational errors in other studies too. For instance, Iranian postgraduates used “*says lies*” instead of “*tells lies*” (Ahmadi, 2012). Generally, both “*says*” and “*tells*” are synonyms. Thus, the learners would have perceived them the same, which resulted in an unnatural sounding word and inappropriate collocation.

3.3.5 Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

Ignorance of rule of restriction occurs when a learner fails to follow grammatical rules or collocational restrictions of a learnt linguistic structure which results in productions of inappropriate collocations (Ye Hong, 2014; Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2011). In a study on *Verb + Noun* combinations, the participants produced inappropriate collocations due to their failure to apply a preposition rule related to *Verb + Noun* combinations (Ahmadi, 2011).

3.3.6 False Concept Hypothesized

False concept hypothesized is a learner's misunderstanding of target items due to their forming of a false analogy of linguistic structures. According to Richards (1973) and Liu (1999), errors involving delexicalised verbs like "make", "do" and "take" are caused by false concept hypothesized as the learners tend to hypothesize that the delexicalised verbs can be used interchangeably. As per current research, its L1 pattern involved Verb + Noun, where instances of faulty comprehension of delexicalised verbs were identified.

3.3.7 Negative Transfer

Negative transfer occurs when a learner uses his or her first language (L1) where he or she uses a direct translation from his or her mother tongue or code-switching to convey a message in the target language. A study on collocational errors found in spoken corpora revealed that negative transfer accounts for 85.9% of errors (Sarimah, 2013). In addition, an Arab participant produced "make violence" instead of "commit violence" because in Arab, they say "yesna violence" which means "make violence". Undoubtedly, it is a direct translation. Negative transfer is very much relevant to the present study as it involved participants with different language backgrounds.

3.3.8 Approximation

Approximation is the employment of a wrong vocabulary item which has phonological, morphological or semantic similarity with the target item. It is said that learners resort to approximation to reduce their linguistic burden (Liu, 1998; Ahmadi, 2011; Wong, 2014). In Wong's study, the participant produced "advance country" instead of "advanced country" (2014). As the above example shows, both "advance"

and “*advanced*” have phonological and semantic affinity, resulting in both words appearing the same to the learner, resulting in error

3.3.9 Word Coinage

Word coinage is the coining of words which results in the formation of new words to convey a target item. For instance, a learner produced “*to see sun up*” instead of “*to see sun rise*” (Liu, 1998). Although the new word produced by the learner does convey the intended meaning, it does not sound natural. It was reported in previous studies that word coinage only contributed to a very small percentage of collocational errors. In Ahmadi’s research, none of the collocational errors were caused by word coinage (2011).

Based on the framework employed by Liu (1996), the possible sources for the deviant lexical collocations which appeared in written production of Myanmar refugee learners were identified and explained in detail in Chapter 4.

3.4 Collocation References

In addition to that, *British National Corpus*, *Oxford Dictionary of Collocations 2002* and *BBI Dictionary of Word Combinations 1998* were employed to identify appropriate lexical collocations. British National Corpus (BNC) is a widely used native corpus containing 100 million words of written and spoken data (Wong, 2014; Demirel & Kazlogu, 2014; Sadeghi, 2011). As for Oxford Dictionary of Collocations, its latest edition was used as it has over 300,000 collocations. BBI Dictionary of Word Combinations is one of the pioneers in collocation compilation and it has both lexical and grammatical collocations. In addition, most studies on collocations use BBI Dictionary (Ahmadi, 2011; Wong, 2014).

3.5 Participants

30 Myanmar refugee students from Dignity for Children Foundation, a non-profit learning centre located in Sentul Raya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia were the participants of this study. The reason for selecting this school is due to its credibility in providing education for the urban poor who are mainly refugees (Star Online, 2015). A total of 30 Form 3 students aged 15 to 16 were the participants of this study. The study used young L2 learners as most of the past studies on collocations used adult learners and EFL learners. Additionally, only a few studies focused on refugee learners although they are also part of second language learners. The participants have been learning English since preschool. On average the participants have been living in Malaysia for 5 years.

The participants also have different ethnic backgrounds such as Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil. Similar use of learners from different ethnic groups can be seen in Howarth's research (1996). 19 male participants and 11 female participants took part in this present study. The subjects were selected from the population of 37 Myanmar students in the research site. Of the total of 37 Myanmar refugee learners, only 30 were selected to be included in this research due to this research's focus on intermediate learners. Thus, extraction of intermediate learners from the Myanmar refugee learners' population was done through administration of a PT3 English Model Paper to all 37 Myanmar refugee learners. Based on the scoring criteria (see Appendix B) of the PT3 examination, those who scored between 40 to 65 in the PT3 English Model Paper were selected as the subjects of this study.

3.6 Ethical Consideration

Approval for access to the research site was obtained from the intended school and participants. As the participants are school students, consent forms were given out

to get permission from the participants' parents. The participants were given full freedom to withdraw from the research anytime. Before data collection, the objectives and aims of the study were explained to the participants by the researcher. Most importantly, the participants remained anonymous as they were assigned numbers. Participants received small incentives as a token of appreciation. Besides that, the researcher sought permission from Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia (Malaysia's Examination Board) to use the PT3 English Model Paper for the pilot test. This examination board is responsible for providing materials to schools to design PT3 exam papers.

3.7 Pilot study

Before the commencement of the research, a pilot study was conducted to test the main instrument of research which is the written task. Firstly, a total of 10 Somalian refugee learners aged between 15-16 sat for the PT3 English Written Paper to help in the identification of the intermediate learner group. As per PT3 learner criteria, those who scored 40-65 in any written examination are considered part of the intermediate learner group (see Appendix B). Thus, based on that criteria, only 4 students were qualified to take part in the written task. They were given 2 different picture-based essay tasks. The first written task was based on a picture of a boy drowning in a river. This picture was adapted from the research on Form 4 Malay learners' collocation (Ang, Suad et al, 2011).

The participants were required to write an essay of about 180 words. After one week, another written task was employed. The second written task was a picture depicting a class party (see Figure 3.1). This second task involved an experience familiar to participants as a class party is one of their yearly activities. As expected, the participants produced an essay with an average length of 180 words for the second task

whereas for the first task, they only managed to produce a short composition with an average length of 120 words. Besides that, in the first task, the number of lexical collocations produced was lesser than the number of collocations used in the second task. Therefore, the researcher decided to employ the second task for her research later on.

3.8 Data Collection

3.8.1 (A) Placement Test

The first stage of the research started with the administration of the PT3 English Written Paper. Implementation of the National Education Blueprint in 2013 by the Malaysian government brought many changes in the education system as a whole (Star Online March, 2013). This resulted in the implementation of PT3 or ‘Penilaian Tingkatan 3’ for Form 3 students as a holistic approach to measuring their achievement upon completing their lower secondary education (Star Online March, 2013). PT3 involves different instruments like written examinations, oral examinations and projects unlike PMR (Penilaian Menengah Rendah) which was solely based on written examinations (Blueprint, 2013). The PT3 exam format replaced PMR in 2013. By incorporating many elements, PT3 is expected to produce all-rounders, thus moving away from an exam-oriented approach in education (Star Online, 2014). PT3 English consists of 3 parts, namely written examination, listening test and oral test (Ministry of Education, 2014). These 3 components are conducted at different times as it begins with the oral test, continues with the listening test and ends with the written examination (Ministry of Education, 2013). To obey to the drive of this study which only focuses on the intermediate group’s written production, only the written examination component was employed.

Based on PT3's general scoring criteria, particularly for the written examination, it divides learners into 3 groups (Ministry of Education, 2014). If the learner's score range is from 66 to 80, then the learners would fall into the advanced category (Ministry of Education, 2014). Moving on, the intermediate group can be identified based on the score range of 40 to 65. Lastly, the beginner group's score range would be below 40. The scoring criteria document has been attached in Appendix B.

The PT3 English Written Paper consists of 4 sections, namely Section A, Section B, Section C and Section D (Ministry of Education, 2014). These sections cover different components of English such as grammar, reading comprehension, essay component and literature component (Ministry of Education, 2014). The duration for this paper is 1 hour and 30 minutes. In order to identify the intermediate group, a total of 37 Form 3 Myanmar learners were given the PT3 English Written Examination. The administration of the PT3 English paper followed the rules and regulations of a PT3 exam setting. After that, the papers were checked and scored by two English teachers from the research site. To increase the validity of the scores, an experienced exam marker rechecked the papers and validated the scores given by the two markers from the research site. The PT3 English Written Paper used in this study is given in the Appendix A.

3.8.2 Learner Profiling

Scores obtained from the administration of the PT3 English Written Paper helped the researcher to identify the intermediate group from the Myanmar refugee learners' population. A total of 30 students were identified as the subjects for the research. Their scores ranged from 40 to 65. Prior to the administration of the written task, all 30 participants were asked to fill out a form involving details like name of the

participant, age, language used at home, number of years studying English, number of years staying in Malaysia and contact with languages spoken in Malaysia. Each participant was assigned with a code upon the data analysis process as their names were not revealed in the research. The form was designed by the researcher to build the learners' profile is as follows.

Name	
Age	
Language spoken at home	
At what age did you start to learn English? State the education level (preschool, primary or secondary)	_____ (age) _____ (level)
Number of years learning English	
At what age did you join a school in Malaysia? State the education level (preschool, primary or secondary)	_____ (age) _____ (level)
Number of years studying in Malaysia	
Do you have any knowledge of the languages spoken in Malaysia? State the language(s) State the proficiency level of the language (beginner, intermediate, advanced)	_____ (languages) _____ (proficiency level)

3.8.3 (B) Written Task

After participants filled out the learner profile section, they were given the written task. Literature on collocation studies inform that a majority of collocation studies use 2 ways to obtain collocational data, which are elicitation method and production method (Nesselhauf, 2000). Elicitation methods consist of translation test, rational cloze test and collocation test. These tests are generally administered to obtain

knowledge about the learners' comprehension on collocations. These tests are limited in nature as they only test certain groups of collocations because they are usually pre-designed based on the focus of the research. In contrast, the production method solely focuses on learners' production where learners are given the chance to produce any kind of collocation as they are assigned with essay topics.

Thus, an essay task (a production method) was chosen as the research instrument as this study intends to investigate the lexical collocation productions of Myanmar refugee learners. The task was timed, whereby participants were given 45 minutes to complete the task. The task was performed under time pressure as the results are believed to reflect cognitive abilities (Siya, 20099). Besides that, the average length of the essay was limited to 180 words. The students were accustomed to produce essays of the mentioned length. Picture-based narrative essay was given to enable the readers to express their ideas without any limitation (Hua, Heong, Rahim et al, 2011). The selection of the picture was based on recommendations by the school teachers. A picture depicting a class party was chosen because the school has incorporated a class party as their annual activity. It is said that whenever learners are given something related to their real life, they tend to express well (Sadeghi, 2011). Besides that, through the pilot study it was proved that an essay on a class party was a better choice to gather enough lexical collocations. Figure 3.1 shows the prompt for the written task.

Write an essay about your class party. Your essay should be about 180 words. You are given 45 minutes to complete this task.



Figure 3.1 Class Party

3.9 Procedure

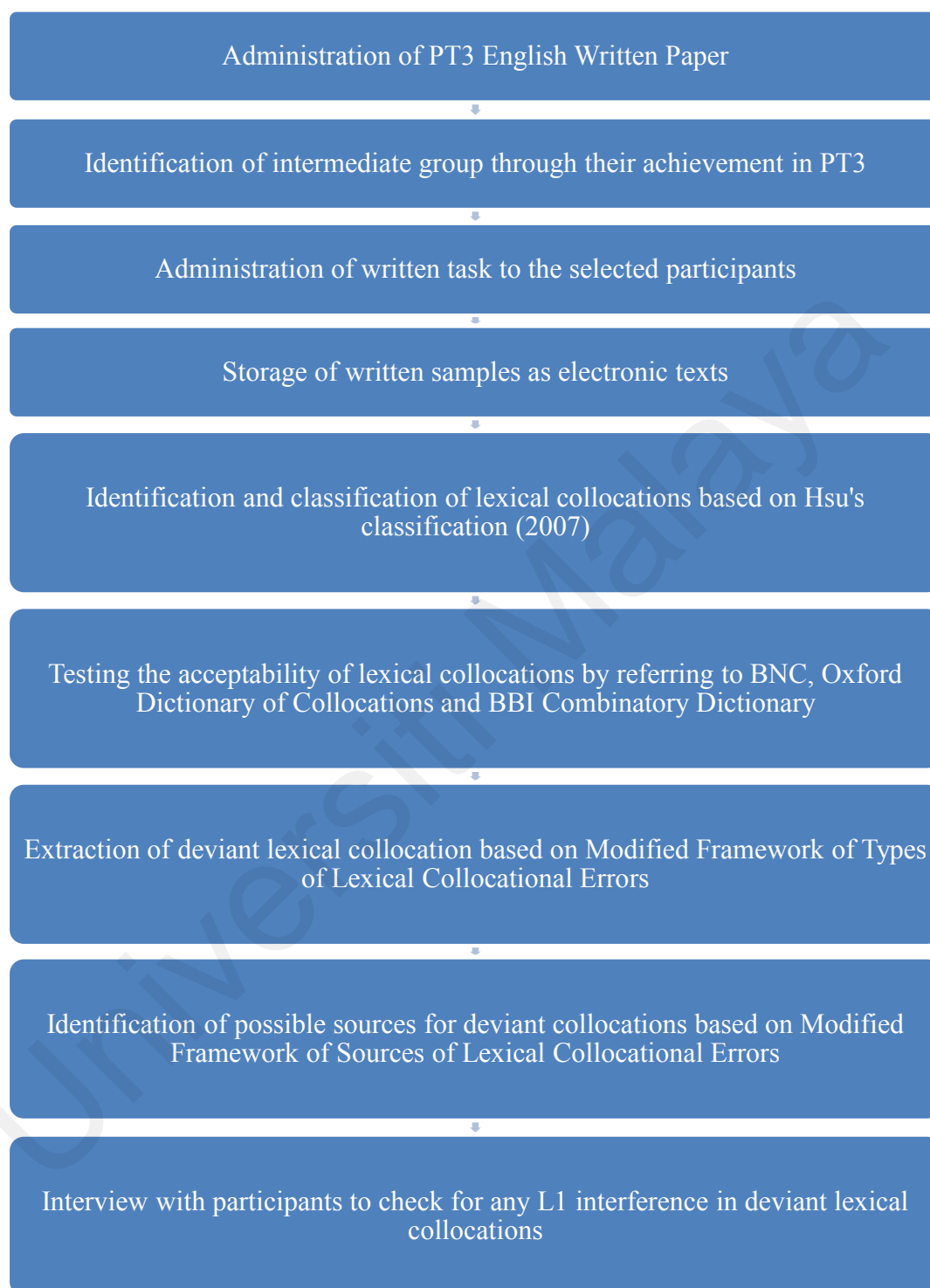


Figure 3.2 Procedure

3.9.1 Administration of PT3 English Written Paper

Two months after the pilot study, the researcher started her data collection. The very first step was the administration of the PT3 English Written Paper. Before the administration of the PT3 exam, the researcher sought permission from the research site and gained consent from guardians of the participants. Then, the participants sat for the PT3 English Written Paper.

The researcher also asked for permission from Lembaga Peperiksaan Malaysia (Malaysian Examination Board) to use the PT3 English Written Paper. The exam papers were checked and scored with the help of school teachers. In order to increase the validity of the scores, an experienced Form 3 exam marker was invited to validate the scorings. Based on the scoring criteria of PT3, those who scored between 40 to 65 were invited to participate in the employment of the written task. The researcher identified 30 Myanmar learners as the participants of the research due to their scores qualifying them. The process of extracting the intermediate group from the population of Myanmar learners took about 3 weeks because it involved teachers and the experienced exam marker. The participants and the school were informed on the usage of data obtained from the administration of different instruments.

3.9.2 Administration of Written Task

The participants were gathered in a classroom. One week prior to the administration of the written task, they were again given a consent form to be part of the research. Before the commencement of the written task, the aims of the research were explained to the participants. This was done to get their full cooperation. The written task comprised 2 parts. The first part was the learner profile which is given in Section 3.8.2. After completing the first part, the participants started with their written tasks.

They were only given 45 minutes to complete the written task. After the completion of the written task, the researcher stored the written samples as electronic texts.

3.9.3 Identification of Lexical Collocations

30 essay samples were manually reviewed and analysed to identify lexical collocations. To help in the identification and classification of lexical collocations, Hsu's Classification of Lexical Collocations 2007 was used. The following table is the framework used in the identification and classification of lexical collocations.

Table 3.6 Lexical Collocation Classifications by Hsu 2007

Type	Pattern	Examples
L1	V + N	Do the laundry
L2	Adj. + N	Strong tea
L3	N + V	Bees buzz
L4	N of N	A pack of dogs
L5	Adv. + Adj.	Sound asleep
L6	V + Adv.	Argue heatedly
L7	N + N	Party hat

Based on the earlier mentioned categories, the researcher manually searched for and grouped the lexical collocations into 7 lexical collocation types. To increase the accuracy of lexical collocation identification, the researcher used the British National Corpus, BBI Combinatory Dictionary and Oxford Collocations Dictionary (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012; Sadegi, 2011).

BNC usage followed a method employed by Ang, Rahim, Saledhuddin (2011) and Francis Wong (2014) in their research. The lexical collocation which is identified through Hsu's classification will be searched for in BNC. The collocation would be counted as acceptable if BNC shows at least five occurrences (Wong, 2014; Ang,

Rahim & Salehuddin, 2011). If less than five, the collocation will be counted as a deviant or inappropriate collocation. To further strengthen the acceptability of a certain collocation, the BBI Combinatory Dictionary and Oxford Dictionary of Collocations will be used to look for the intended combination (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012). If the combination is nowhere to be found in the dictionaries, it would be deemed as incorrect.

Generally, data would display types and tokens of lexical collocations. This study did not count repetitions of similar kinds of lexical collocation types occurring in the same essay sample. For instance, participant 7 produced L2 (Adv. + N) type, “great time” twice in her essay. This was counted as one lexical collocation. The current research only looked at types as it only intends to investigate types of lexical collocations, not tokens. In the upcoming section, the researcher has illustrated a sample analysis of identification of lexical collocations and sources of lexical collocation errors.

Sample of essay by Participant 6

Identification of lexical collocations.

Last Monday, after class we had **asmallparty (L2)** at our class, some prepare the foods on the table after we finish everything. We start at 2 pm. We **sang one song (L1)** to start the party after that we play some game I enjoy the all but there is one game I enjoy the most its called **musican chair(L2)** this game is so fun because some of us fell down and some of us sit on people legs that make us laugh a lot.

everyone of us had avery **special talent (L2)** that GoD give us, some of us sing, some of us dance and some of us **had a short speech (L1)**. I wanted to sing but my friends said on a **happiness day (L2)** don't want it to rain she begged to me. but Its still **rain heavily (L6)** because Sui Te sing after all of them present all of us **dance happily (L6)** but I don't call it dancing I call it jumping some of us jump a lot and some of us shake a lot.

Now, Its time to exchange the gift we were so excited to get a gift from our friends after we exchange we were hungry and look tired. Then our teacher surprise us with **big cake (L2)** all of us was happy and we can't wait to blow the candle after we all quiet we blow the candle and eat, we can eat a lot espically me.

Lastly, when we finish everything we all are ready to watch after we ate we watch one movie. The tittle is baby boss, It so fun and we all enjoy it. That day is the **best day (L2)** I ever had.

In the sample analysis, the researcher has bolded the lexical collocations produced by Participant 6. Table 3.7 shows sample analysis on classification of correct or non-deviant and deviant lexical collocations.

Table 3.7: Sample Analysis of Participant 6

Total number of lexical collocations	Types of lexical collocations	Non-deviant or appropriate collocations	Deviant lexical collocations
1) asmall party 2) sang one song 3) musican chair 4) special talent 5) had a short speech 6) short speech 7) happiness day 8) rain heavily 9) dance happily 10) big cake 11) best day	L1 (V+N) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • sang one song • had a short speech L2 (Adj.+N) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • asmall party • special talent • short speech • happiness day • big cake • best day L6 (V+ Adv.) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rain heavily • dance happily L7 (N+N) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • musican chair 	1) sang one song 2) short speech 3) special talent 4) big cake 5) best day 6) danced happily 7) rained heavily	1) asmall party-casual party 2) musican chair- musical chair 3) had a short speech- gave a speech 4) happiness day- happy day
Total= 11	L1= 2 L2=6 L6=2 L7=1	Total= 7	Total= 4

Table 3.7 shows the identification and classification of lexical collocations produced by a single participant. The same method was employed with all 30 participants' written samples. After the individual analysis, results were compiled based on ethnic groups.

3.9.4 Identification and classification of types of lexical collocational errors

The lexical collocations which did not fit into the identification and classification process based on Hsu's lexical collocation classification, BNC, Oxford Dictionary of Collocations and BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English were deemed as

deviant lexical collocations. Deviant lexical collocations were further analysed using the Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors. Based on the sample analysis of Participant 6, she had produced 4 deviant lexical collocations. They were analysed to identify the types of errors which occurred in their production. A sample of analysis is given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Types of Errors

Deviant Lexical Collocation	Target Lexical Collocation	Type of error
<i>asmall party</i>	casual party	Wrong choice of adjective
<i>musican chair</i>	musical chair	Wrong form of adjective
<i>had a short speech</i>	gave a short speech	Wrong choice of verb
<i>happiness day</i>	happy day	Wrong form of adjective

3.9.5 Descriptive Analysis of Data

As previous steps yielded information on the number of lexical collocations, both correct and deviant, a few formulas were used to get statistical information on the usage of both correct and deviant lexical collocations.

Formula to calculate percentage of appropriate lexical collocations:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of appropriate lexical collocations}}{\text{Total number of lexical collocations produced by participants}} \times 100\% =$$

Formula to calculate percentage of deviant lexical collocations:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of deviant lexical collocation}}{\text{Total number of lexical collocations produced by participants}} \times 100\% =$$

Formula to calculate percentage of deviant lexical collocation types:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of each deviant lexical collocation type (L1,L2,L3)}}{\text{Total number of deviant lexical collocation types}} \times 100\% =$$

Previously mentioned formulas were used to get an overall analysis on lexical collocation productions.

3.9.6 Conversion method

To adhere to the need of the research which involves 4 ethnic groups with an uneven number of participants and uneven number of words in each sample, the conversion method was used. Generally, researches with an uneven number of participants and number of words use the conversion method to draw comparison. The employment of a similar method can be seen in researches by Zhang (1999) and Francis Wong (2014) where both researches had an uneven number of participants across different ethnic groups. The formula for the conversion method is as follows:

$$\frac{\text{Number of lexical collocation produced by each ethnic group}}{\text{Total number of words produced by each ethnic group}} \times X \text{ (value closest to highest value)}$$

Firstly, the number of words produced by each ethnic group should be calculated. Based on the number of words across the different ethnic groups, the X number should be selected. The X number is the number which is closest to the highest number of words among the 4 different ethnic groups. Finally, using the formula given earlier, it will provide information on the number of lexical collocations of each ethnic group per X words. Detailed analysis is given in Chapter 4.

3.9.7 Employment of Modified Framework of Sources of Deviant Lexical Collocations (Research Question 2)

After the identification of deviant lexical collocations, the researcher used modified framework of sources of lexical collocational errors to analyse the deviant collocations produced by the participants of the research. The following table shows a sample analysis of Participant 6's deviant lexical collocations on possible sources of those errors.

Table 3.9 Possible Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors

Deviant Lexical Collocation	Possible Sources of Lexical Collocational Error
asmall party- casual party	The use of synonym <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Usage of “small” instead of “casual” as both have similar meanings.
happiness day- happy day	Approximation <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Usage of “happiness” instead of “happy” as both do not contain any stark difference to the participant
had a short speech- gave a speech	False concept hypothesized <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Misconception of the verb “have/has” whereby the participant might have overgeneralized the use of “have”

3.9.8 Interview with participants

Apart from the employment of frameworks to explain the sources of the lexical collocational errors, the researcher used the interview method to gain extra input, which only serves as the supplementary data. The researcher used purposive sampling method, whereby the former only chose participants with the highest number of lexical collocational errors. As the interview data only served as the supplementary data, only 10 participants were interviewed. The breakdown of participants based on ethnic group is as follows.

Table 3.10 Breakdown of Participants

Ethnic group	Number
Burmese	4
Zomi	3
Hakha	2
Tamil	1

Prior to the interview, the 10 participants were given a consent form to obtain permission from their parents/guardians. In the interview, participants were asked for reasons on the lexical collocations they had produced without being informed whether those lexical collocations were correct or incorrect. If the learners were unable to give any reasons, they were asked to produce the lexical collocation or any equivalent form in their L1 (see Appendix E). This was done to find out if there was any negative transfer influence in their lexical collocation productions. During the interview session, the researcher recorded the sessions to be transcribed later on. Field notes were taken to help in the data transcription process.

3.9.9 Challenges

The researcher faced some challenges in carrying out the research. First of all, all the essays were analysed manually by the researcher to locate lexical collocations. It was a laborious task in which the researcher spent about 3 months.

Then, collecting reliable information about the linguistic features of the languages involved in the study was challenging too. She was helped by a Burmese professor of Univeristy Malaya who is an expert in Burmese language. Other than that, the researcher had to seek permission from Malaysian Examination Board before using the PT3 English Paper.

3.10 Summary

The present study investigated the lexical collocation productions of 30 Myanmar refugee learners of a private school. The lexical collocations were identified using Hsu's Classification of Lexical Collocation 2007. Later on, the lexical collocations were classified into 7 types or patterns.

Then, the deviant lexical collocations were further analysed using Modified Framework on Lexical Collocation Error Type. Each deviant lexical collocation was assigned to different types of errors like wrong choice of verb, wrong form of adjective and so on. Besides that, descriptive analysis of the data was given too by highlighting the frequency and percentage of both deviant and non-deviant lexical collocations across the 4 different ethnic groups. These methods were used to answer research question 1.

In order to answer research question 2, the Modified Framework on Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors was employed. Each deviant lexical collocation was assigned to a possible source of error. Additionally, input gained from an interview with participants was used as supplementary data in answering research question 2.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter covers data analysis of the study. There are few sections in this chapter namely section 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 and so on. These sections highlight different aspects of data analysis. Firstly, the types of lexical collocations produced across 4 different ethnic groups are highlighted. This section includes both non-deviant and deviant collocations produced by the participants. In addition to that, the data was further analyzed by comparing collocation productions among 4 different ethnic groups of participants namely as Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil. Then, section 4.3 answers research question 2 which is to highlight the possible sources for the collocation errors to occur in the written production of Myanmar refugee learners. The use of synonym was identified as the main source for the deviant lexical collocations to occur in learners' written samples.

Generally, second language learners face difficulty in producing appropriate collocations. The problem lingers on even after many years of exposure in English language (Nesselhauf, 2000). Advanced learners too struggle in producing appropriate collocations (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012; Suad, 2012). The research also highlights similar findings as the Myanmar refugee learners too had produced deviant collocations. Based on the analysis, the researcher who is also a former teacher of the refugee learning centre, wishes that her attempt will help the learners to better understand English language.

4.2 Types of Lexical Collocations Produced by the Participants

The study adopted Hsu's Classification of Lexical Collocations 2007 to identify and classify lexical collocations in participants' essay sample. Based on the earlier mentioned framework, in the current study the participants had produced a total of 239

lexical collocations. The number of deviant lexical collocation was 63 or 26.4 %. Interestingly, the participants being the intermediate learner group had marked a very low percentage of deviant lexical collocations.

This finding contradicted with previous researches as the formers had claimed collocations as the problematic area for learners. A research by Marjan Ahmadi (2012) highlighted 60.60% of lexical collocational errors in one of the essay tasks employed in the study. In the same vein, the Indonesian EFL learners committed 72% of lexical errors where they produced 321 miscollocations from a total of 445 lexical collocations (Said, 2011). In addition to that, Noor and Abdudaib's (2011) research participants too only managed to produce 30.75 % of acceptable collocations resulting in production of very high percentage of errors which is 69.25%. Furthermore, analysis on spoken corpora of 15 Iranian postgraduates recorded 67.2% of lexical collocational errors (Shamsudin, Sadoughvanini, Zaid, 2012).

A recent research by Francis Wong on lexical collocational analysis of learners with different levels of proficiency reaffirmed similar claim as the participants achieved a significant percentage of errors which is 67% (2014). Another noteworthy comparison besides the number of deviant lexical collocation is that mostly past studies had used advanced learners where the latter made high percentage of lexical collocational errors as opposed to current study which employed intermediate learners with a lesser percentage of errors.

Moving on, the total number of lexical collocations was only 239 despite very little percentage of deviant collocations. The total number of lexical collocation productions of the current study justified the claim that advanced learners tend to produce more collocations, which could be the reason for minimal production of collocations in the current study (Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012; Zhang, 1993). However, the trend is only observed among the ESL/EFL learners, where the number of lexical

collocations increased with proficiency level. In the context of native speakers, the trend was reversed where proficient native speakers in Zhang's study noted low number of collocations than their less proficient counterparts (Zhang, 1993). It certainly questions the relationship between proficiency and collocation productions. In regards to current study, though proficiency level and collocation productions were not part of the current study, during data analysis it was revealed that participants with higher score in PT3 English Written Paper had produced more collocations than the ones with lowest score.

The scores and total number of collocation produced by each participant of the current study is given in Appendix C. Native speakers' collocation productions don't determine their proficiency level because when a native speaker grows up he or she will gradually become less dependent on formulaic sequence for language production (Woods, 2015). On the other hand, in the context of ESL/EFL learners, collocation productions have been often quoted as the benchmark for one's proficiency level in most of the studies (Dikili, 2017; Woods, 2015; Wong, 2014; Ahmadi, 2012). Based on the mixed results obtained from both past and current studies, it can be said that relationship between proficiency and collocation productions is inconclusive.

Next upon, distribution of types of lexical collocations indicates very interesting findings. Figure 4.1 displays types of lexical collocations produced by participants.

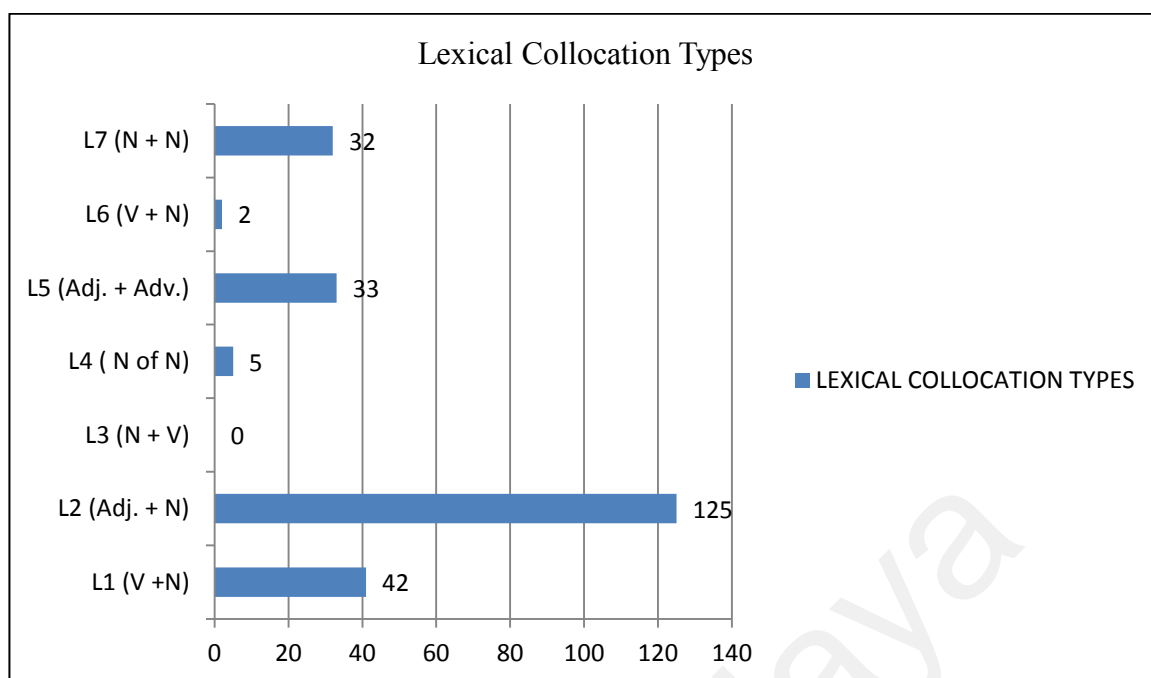


Figure 4.1 Lexical Collocation Types Produced by Participants

Based on the Figure 4.1, it shows that the learners produced the highest number of L2 (**Adj. + N**) type collocations which is 125. This result is in harmony with the findings of Wong (2014) as in latter **Adjective + Noun** combination marked the highest production both by high and low proficiency groups. Besides that, **Adj. + N** types are one of the frequently used combinations by advanced EFL learners in Ahmadi's (2012) study too.

The second highest frequency is achieved by L1 (**V + N**) combination which is 42. This trend is followed by L5 type (**Adv. + Adj.**) and L7 type (**N+ N**) which recorded 33 and 32 occurrences respectively. Moving on, the figures for the remaining lexical collocational types namely L5 (**Adv+Adj.**) and L6 (**Adv. + V**) types were very small as each recorded 5 and 2 occurrences respectively. Lastly, there were no occurrences of L3 type (**N+ V**) in any of the written samples. According to Liu (1999) **Noun + Verb** or the L3 type, is one of the hardest lexical collocation types as opposed to other types. The findings from a research conducted by Zarei and Baniesmaili (2010) validated previously mentioned statement where its participants produced very low

number of L3 type whereas the preferred lexical collocation type is **Adjective + Noun** (L2) type. Similar pattern appeared in Wong's research (2014) where the participants from both high and low proficiency level produced very less number of L3 type.

On the whole, L2 (**Adj. + N**) and L1 (**V+N**) were favourite picks among most of the learners as current study too proved the same. The reason being, Hsu suggests, the earlier mentioned types are the earlier and easier learnt type as compared to other types (2007). Additionally, they are more prevalent in English than the rest of the lexical collocation types (Newmark, 1988; Lewis, 1997).

In the present study, out of 7 lexical collocation types, the participants managed to produce 6 types. It reflected their ability in using various kinds of lexical collocation types. However, it is crucial to note that despite the variety, the number was not strong enough to validate their collocation mastery. They seemed to have overused L2 (**Adj. + N**) type which recorded 125 occurrences. This figure dropped to 42 for L1 type and the occurrences continued to decrease, hitting lowest points like 33, 32, 5 and 2 for the rest of the collocation types. This fluctuation in number could be an indicator of learners' low collocational competence. In fact, in Zhang's study native speakers' produced more variety than the non-native speaker, hinting to the lack of collocational competence of learners (1993).

Moving on, Table 4.1 indicates distribution of lexical collocation types across different ethnic groups. It shows that L2 (**Adj. + N**) being the preferred type across all ethnic groups with each marking the highest productions. This revelation ascertains the frequent use of L2 type among learners in general. In addition to that, the less preferred lexical collocation types across the ethnic groups are L4, L3 and L6 types.

Table 4.1 Lexical Collocation Types across Different Ethnic Groups

Ethnic Group	L1 (V + N)	L2 (Adj. + N)	L3 (N + V)	L4 (N of N)	L5 (Adv. + Adj.)	L6 (V + Adv.)	L7 (N + N)	Total
Burmese	16	53	0	2	11	0	11	93
Zomi	19	45	0	2	11	2	11	89
Hakha	6	17	0	1	11	0	5	40
Tamil	2	10	0	0	0	0	5	17
Total	42	125	0	5	33	2	32	239

As the study involved 4 different ethnic groups, conversion method was employed to identify which group performed better in collocations. Next section covers conversion method and findings based on it.

4.2.1 Conversion Method

As the study involved participants from 4 different ethnic groups, conversion method was used to compare the distribution of lexical collocations across the ethnic groups. The formula for conversion method and total number of words produced by each ethnic group are following:

$$\frac{\text{Number of lexical collocation produced by each ethnic group}}{\text{Total number of words produced by each ethnic group}} \times 2000 \text{ words}$$

Table 4.2 Total Number of Words Produced by Each Ethnic Group

Burmese	1989
Zomi	1511
Hakha	873
Tamil	342

Burmese ethnic group recorded the highest word count which is 1989. Therefore, as per the conversion method, the closest value to 1989 is 2000. So, number of lexical collocations by each ethnic group was counted per 2000 words. The details are given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Distribution of Lexical Collocations across Different Ethnic Groups

Ethnic group	Number of lexical collocations per 2000 words	Number of deviant lexical collocations per 2000 words
Burmese	94	19
Zomi	118	33
Hakha	92	34
Tamil	99	23

As per Table 4.3, Zomi ethnic groups had produced highest number of lexical collocations with 118 collocations per 2000 words. Next upon is Tamil with 99 lexical collocations and then Burmese with 94 collocations. As for Hakha, they had produced 92 collocations per 2000 words. With only 2 representatives, Tamil ethnic group had exceeded other ethnic groups in collocation productions. In terms of deviant lexical collocation a different trend could be seen. It is obvious that Hakha ethnic group faced greater challenge in collocations as they had recorded highest number of deviant lexical collocations. This trend is followed by Zomi with 32 deviant lexical collocations. Next upon is Tamil with 23 and Burmese with 19 deviant lexical collocations respectively. In contrast to Hakha and Zomi group, Tamil ethnic group had performed better despite the small number of participants. As mentioned earlier in Section 4.2, proficiency level undoubtedly affects collocation productions, Tamil and Burmese group with higher score in PT3 English score had produced more collocations with less errors. On the other hand, Hakha group with lowest average score among the other 3 ethnic groups

had produced high number of deviant collocations. The average score of each ethnic group is as follows:

Table 4.4 Average Score of Each Ethnic Group in PT3 English Written Paper 2015

Ethnic Group	Average Score	Number of deviant lexical collocations per 2000 words
Burmese	54	19
Zomi	50	33
Hakha	48	34
Tamil	59	23

4.2.2 Deviant Lexical Collocations

Though the current study marked a very low percentage of total deviant lexical collocations which is 26.4 %, the trend varied in context of deviant lexical collocation types. Table 4.5 indicates the frequency and percentage of deviant lexical collocation for each lexical collocation type whereas Table 4.6 displays frequency and percentage of deviant lexical collocations across 4 different ethnic groups.

Table 4.5 Frequencies and Percentages of Deviant Lexical Collocations

Lexical Collocation Types	Number of Lexical Collocations	Number of Deviant Lexical Collocations	Percentage of Deviant Lexical Collocations
L1(V+ N)	42	10	23.8%
L2 (Adj. + N)	125	34	27.2%
L3 (N + V)	0	0	0
L4 (N of N)	5	3	60%
L5 (Adv. + Adj.)	33	8	24.2%
L6 (Adv. + V)	2	0	0%
L7 (N +N)	32	7	21.9%

Table 4.6 Distribution of Deviant Lexical Collocation Types across Different Ethnic Groups

Ethnic group	Frequency and percentage (%)						
	L1(V+N)	L2(Adj.+N)	L3(N+V)	L4(N of N)	L5 (Adv.+Adj. ; Adj.+Adv.)	L6 (V+Adv.)	L7(N+ N)
Burmese	1 / 6.25%	10/ 18.9%	NIL	All correct	3/27.3%	NIL	5/45.5 %
Zomi	6/31.6%	14/31.1%	NIL	2/ 100%	3/27.3%	All correct	All correct
Hakha	2/33.3%	8/47.1%	NIL	1/100%	2/18.1%	NIL	2/40%
Tamil	1/50%	3/30%	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL	All correct

*NIL- No production

According to Table 4.6, it was found that L4 type (**Noun of Noun**) marked the highest percentage which is 60. With only 5 occurrences in overall data, 3 occurrences were deemed incorrect. Similar trend could be noticed across ethnic groups too because L4 type collocation seemed hard for both Zomi and Hakha group marking 100% deviant collocations. Meanwhile, Burmese group soared high with no deviant collocation for L4 type.

Moving on, L2 (**Adj. + N**) type with 27.2%. was the type with second highest deviant collocations. L2 (**Adj. + N**) collocations were the toughest for Hakha group because they had marked 47.1% of deviant collocations. Zomi and Tamil groups' percentages were 31.1% and 30% respectively. Burmese group had outperformed the rest with only 18.9% of deviant collocations.

Overall analysis had given third place to L5 (**Adv. + Adj.**) type with a percentage of 24.4%. Analysis across the ethnic groups too, noted the same percentage

for both Burmese and Zomi with 27.3% each. As for Hakha, it had achieved 18.1% of deviant lexical collocations and Tamil group had produced no deviant collocations.

Overall, L1 (V+N) type marked 23.8% of deviant lexical collocations. In terms of ethnic groups, Tamil group was in lead with 50% from the total of 2 lexical collocations. Hakha group followed suit with 33.3% and Zomi, 31.6%. Only 6.25% of deviant L1 type collocations were produced by Burmese. In other words, Burmese group only produced one deviant collocation out of 16. It is noteworthy that some of the L1 type collocations across all the ethnic groups were not marked with correct tense. For instance, Subject 1 had produced “*we sing the song*” instead of “*sang a song*”. Same kind of instances can be identified across all the ethnic groups except for Tamil group. Lexical collocations which were not marked with correct tense, particularly, L1 (V +N) and L6 (V + Adv.) and other types with spelling errors were deemed correct as it showed learners’ effort in using collocations. Wong employed the same strategy by accepting collocations with tense and spelling errors as correct collocations (2014). Table 4.7 shows instances of lexical collocation types which were deemed incorrect despite the tense and spelling errors.

Table 4.7 Instances of Lexical Collocations with tense and spelling errors

Ethnic group & Participant	Lexical Collocation Type	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation	Type of error
Burmese (5)	L1 (V+N)	We all <i>have fun</i> and happy.	We all <i>had fun</i> and we were happy.	* <i>Have fun</i> - not marked with past tense

‘Table 4.7 Continued’

Burmese (13)	L1 (V+N)	Last week Friday in my class we <i>have been</i> class party...	Last week Friday, we <i>had</i> class party.	* <i>Have been</i> class party- not marked with past tense
Burmese (20)	L1 (V+N)	We all <i>have so much fun</i> .	We all <i>had so much fun</i> .	* <i>Have so much fun</i> - Not marked with past tense
Zomi (6)	L1 (V +N)	Students <i>are decaurate</i> their class before the class party.	Students <i>decorate</i> their class before class party.	* <i>Are decaurate</i> - Not marked with simple present tense *Decaurate- spelling error
Zomi (7)	L1 (V +N)	My classmates <i>decorate</i> the classroom...	My classmates <i>decorated</i> the classroom	<i>Decorate</i> - Not marked with past tense
Hakha (18)	L2 (Adj. + N)	We had <i>grat time</i> with our friends	We had <i>great time</i> with our friends.	<i>Grat time</i> - spelling error

4.3 Lexical Collocation Types, a closer look

4.3.1 L1 (Verb + Noun) Type

From a total of 41, L1 types, 10 deviant lexical collocations were produced. Table 4.8 shows L1 type collocations successfully produced by the participants whereas Table 4.9 highlights deviant L1 type collocations.

Table 4.8 Non – Deviant L1 (Verb+ Noun) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (14)	My teacher <i>gave speech</i> and we all clap and shouted.
Zomi (19)	We all <i>sang song</i> with music and it is so loud.
Hakha (22)	We <i>decorate our classroom (...)</i>
Tamil (28)	We <i>had fun</i> with our classmates.

Table 4.9 L1 (Verb + Noun) Type Deviant Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group/ Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (3)	In the shool each class we used to <i>celebrated class party</i> .	In my school, each class <i>organizes class party</i> .
Zomi (4)	Thirdly, some students <i>dance their traditional dance</i> .	Thirdly, some students <i>performed traditional dance</i> .
Zomi (4)	They <i>had a nice performance</i> .	They <i>delivered a wonderful performance</i> .
Zomi (6)	Some <i>show magic</i> .	Some <i>performed magic tricks</i> .
Zomi (6)	Our teacher <i>has a short speech</i> .	Our teacher <i>delivered a short speech</i> .
Zomi (19)	Last Thursday, my class were <i>celebrating class party</i> .	Last Thursday, my class <i>organized class party</i> .

‘Table 4.9 Continued’

Zomi (27)	We <i>make class party</i> every years.	We <i>organize class party</i> every year.
Hakha (12)	Before class party, we <i>do decorations</i> in our class.	Before class party, we <i>put up decorations</i> in our class.
Hakha (18)	Last month, my class was <i>celebrating class party</i> .	Last month, my class <i>organized class party</i> .
Tamil (21)	My teacher <i>said a poem</i> on that day.	My teacher <i>recited a poem</i> on that day.

Based on Table 4.9, Burmese, Zomi and Hakha participants had produced non-native like L1 types by combining wrong verbs with nouns. For instance, “*celebrated class party*”, “*has short speech*”, “*make class party*”, “*dance traditional dance*” and so on. These deviant collocations are undoubtedly sign of low collocational knowledge as they were not aware that “*dance traditional dance*” is an odd –sounding phrase although it is comprehensible. Besides that, it was found in current study that “*have + class party*”, a non-deviant or a correct lexical collocation type appeared in most of the written samples. The following table shows few instances of “*have + class party*”. However, the specific verb for **class party**, other than “*have*” is “*throw*”, “*organize*” and “*arrange*” were not found in any of the written samples.

Table 4.10 Instances of Constructions Involving “Have + class party”

Ethnic group/Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (14)	Last week, we <i>had class party</i> .
Burmese (20)	We <i>have class party</i> every year and it is fun.
Zomi (4)	<i>Having class party</i> is to know more each others.

‘Table 4.10 Continued’

Zomi (6)	Most students <i>have their class party</i> one time in a year.
Hakha (10)	Last month, our class <i>have class party</i> after exam.
Tamil (28)	We <i>had class party</i> in our class.

4.3.2 L2 (Adjective + Noun) Type

L2 type lexical collocation is the preferred and easy type as per the current study. Only 34 deviant lexical collocations were found from a total of 126 occurrences. Hakha group had found it more challenging type as compared to other groups. By and large, this lexical collocation type, as mentioned in previous studies is indeed an easy type (Ahmadi, 2012; Wong, 2014). The examples of L2 types successfully produced by the participants are given in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Non- Deviant L2 (Adjective + Noun) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (3)	It was a <i>happy day</i> .
Burmese (14)	My teacher is a <i>good man</i> because he bring us food.
Burmese (23)	After that, we had <i>great time</i> with our friends.
Burmese (24)	Class party is the <i>best time</i> of the year.
Zomi (7)	That day is the <i>best day</i> I ever had.
Zomi (19)	She brought a <i>nice cake</i> .
Zomi (27)	On that <i>happy day</i> , we play games.
Hakha (11)	We all had <i>great time</i> .
Hakha (12)	My friends are dancing and it was a <i>happy moment</i> .
Tamil (21)	it was a <i>special day</i> .

In terms of usage of adjectives in L2 collocations, the word “best” alone appeared in 7 times. Table 4.12 shows instances involving the adjective “Best”.

Table 4.12 Instances Involving Adjective “Best”

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (15)	that was <i>the best class party</i> .
Burmese (24)	Class party is <i>the best time</i> of the year.
Burmese (25)	It was <i>the best class party</i> that we have ever had.
Burmese (26)	<i>The best event</i> for my class is class party.
Zomi (17)	He is <i>the best dancer</i> so we know and we wanna see that to.
Zomi (27)	Class party is one of <i>the best thing</i> in our school life.

Frequent appearance of the word “best” as opposed to other adjectives could hint to the usage of general adjectives by the participants in this written task. Besides “best”, there were usage of general adjectives like “happy”, “good”, “nice” and “great” too. Visnja and Morana claimed that low proficiency learners often rely on general adjectives instead of specific ones due to insufficient vocabulary (2013). Having said that, participants’ reliance on general adjectives in the current study probably resonate the same notion too.

Moving on, there were 34 deviant L2 type collocations found in participants’ written samples. In depth analysis on deviant L2 collocations revealed that participants had used wrong choice and form of adjectives which are highlighted in Table 4.13. For instance, Participants 3 had used wrong form of adjective as he produced “relaxed day” instead of “relaxing day”.

Table 4.13 Deviant L2 (Adj. + N) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (3)	Students have <i>relaxed day</i>	Students had a <i>relaxing day</i>
Burmese (24)	We listened to <i>sadful songs</i> and we cry like baby.	Upon listening to <i>sad songs</i> , we cried like babies.
Zomi (4)	They had <i>nice performance</i> .	They delivered a <i>wonderful performance</i> .
Zomi (8)	That was <i>really tired day</i> but we was happy.	That was a <i>really tiring day</i> but we were happy.
Hakha (11)	We bring <i>traditional foods</i> to school.	We brought <i>traditional cuisines</i> to school.
Hakha (12)	We played <i>funny games</i> with friends.	We played <i>fun games</i> with our friends.
Tamil (21)	So, the first performance was a <i>pretty ballet dance</i> .	So, the first performance was a <i>wonderful ballet dance</i> .
Tamil (28)	The <i>most good day</i> is class party day	The <i>best day</i> is class party day

4.3.3 L4 (Noun of Noun) Type

As for L4 type lexical collocations, only 5 collocations were identified and 3 were deviant collocations. Table 4.14 displays instances of all L4 type collocations.

Table 4.14 L4 (Noun of Noun) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (20)	I brought 2 <i>packets of sweets</i> .	Non – deviant collocation

‘Table 4.14 Continued’

Burmese (26)	She buy <i>2 bottles of chilli sauce</i> for nuggets.	Non- deviant collocation
Zomi (9)	A <i>group of gangs</i> was eating mango	A <i>group of students</i> were eating mangoes
Zomi (17)	We bring <i>few bottles of gas drinks</i> .	We brought <i>few bottles of soft drinks</i> .
Hakha (11)	Lastly, the class was very dirty with <i>full of rubbish</i> everywhere on floor	Lastly, the class was very dirty with <i>pile of rubbish</i> everywhere on floor.

With only 5 occurrences and 3 deviant productions, L4 type can be considered as both less preferred and challenging lexical collocation type. In all 3 deviant productions, wrong nouns were used resulting in odd sounding collocations. For instance, Participant 9 had produced “*one group of gangs*” instead of “*a group of students*”. Furthermore, low usage of L4 type collocation may imply the notion that both children and adult more prone to use plurals than collections of objects (Bloom& Klemen, 1994).

4.3.4 L5 (Adverb + Adjective) Type

Table 4.15 and 4.16 show non- deviant and deviant L5 type lexical collocations found in participants written samples respectively.

Table 4.15 Non- Deviant L5 (Adv. + Adj.) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (3)	She was <i>very happy</i> because she sing for us.

‘Table 4.15 Continued’

Burmese (15)	The food was <i>really delicious</i> .
Burmese (27)	It was <i>really fun</i> and we cannot forget it.
Zomi (4)	Some of the students were <i>very talented</i>
Zomi (17)	It was <i>really good!</i>
Zomi (27)	The movie was <i>really boring</i> and we all sleep.
Hakha (10)	We were <i>very happy</i> .
Hakha (11)	After we played, we were <i>very tired</i> so we rest for a while.
Hakha (12)	Lastly, the class was <i>really dirty</i>

Table 4.16 Deviant L5 (Adverb + Adjective) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (15)	The cake are <i>really- really big</i> .	The cakes were <i>really big</i> .
Burmese (15)	The boy was <i>really-really funny</i> .	The boy was <i>really funny</i> .
Burmese (15)	The class party was <i>really-really awesome</i> .	The class party was <i>really awesome</i> .
Zomi (16)	It was a <i>delicious yummy cake</i> .	It was a <i>really delicious cake</i> .
Zomi (19)	She was <i>really really happy</i>	She was <i>really happy</i>
Zomi (27)	She cut it in <i>very small small pieces</i> .	She cut it into <i>very small pieces</i> .
Hakha (18)	It was <i>really-really fun</i> .	It was <i>really fun</i> .
Hakha (18)	We are <i>really –really sad</i> because our teacher scolded.	We were <i>really sad</i> because our teacher scolded us.

With reference to L5 (**Adv. +Adj.**) type collocations, usage of general adverbs like *very* and *really* are common in non- deviant and deviant collocations produced by the participants. In the same vein, it is said that learners frequently use adverbs like “*very*”, “*really*”, “*so*” and so on (Granger& Rayson, 1998). Besides that, the low occurrence of adverbs in participants’ written samples could also be related to the claim that adverbs are optional where a sentence can still be formed without it (Hinkel, 2004).

Moving on, upon investigating deviant L5 type lexical collocations, it was observed that the participants had tendency to repeat adverbs in a sentence (refer Table 4.16). This interesting pattern has been discussed in detail in research question 2.

4.3.5 L7 (Noun +Noun) Type

The participants had produced 32, L7 (**Noun + Noun**) type lexical collocations. 7 were deviant collocations. Table 4.17 displays instances of correct collocations followed by Table 4.18 which highlights deviant collocations.

Table 4.17 Non – Deviant L7 (N +N) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocation
Burmese (5)	We play <i>computer games</i> with our friends.
Burmese (23)	our <i>class monitor</i> ask us to clean the classroom.
Burmese (29)	Teacher said we can bring <i>board games</i> .
Zomi (8)	My mom’s <i>chicken rice</i> smelt good.
Zomi (16)	The <i>volunteer teacher</i> helped us to mop our classroom after party.
Zomi (18)	We want to <i>plastic cups</i> and plates

‘Table 4.17 Continued’

Hakha (11)	My <i>class teacher</i> was early to school because of party.
Hakha (11)	We gather at the <i>library room</i> and wait for to teacher to come.
Hakha (11)	It was time to take <i>group picture</i> .
Tamil (21)	We brought cake, chocolate, cookies, biscuits and <i>orange juice</i> .
Tamil (21)	After <i>game session</i> , we all were tired
Tamil (28)	I liked the <i>fruit salad</i> and will ask my mom to do it.

Table 4.18 Deviant L7 (Noun+Noun) Type Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (13)	During <i>movie time</i> , we watched movie in class.	During <i>movie session</i> , we watched a movie in class.
Burmese (13)	It was <i>food time</i> .	It was <i>food session</i> .
Burmese (14)	Some of my friends are going to their <i>own country</i> .	Some of friends are returning to their <i>home country</i> .
Burmese (24)	She fold the <i>picnic carpet</i> and give it teacher.	She folded the <i>picnic blanket</i> and gave it to the teacher.
Burmese (30)	My teacher weared <i>party cap</i> too.	My teacher wore a <i>party hat</i> too.
Hakha (22)	We are lucky because it is a <i>schooling day</i> .	We are lucky because it is a <i>school day</i> .
Hakha (22)	One student brought <i>butter knife</i> and mayonis.	One student brought <i>bread knife</i> and mayonnaise.

Though only 7 deviant collocations were identified, participants had difficulty in naming things like party hats, bread knife and table cloth which are common things. On the other hand, both Zomi and Tamil groups were successful in L7 type collocation productions as there were no deviant collocations.

4.3.6 L6 (Verb +Adverb) Type

Table 4.19 Non – Deviant L6 (Verb + Adverb) Type Lexical Collocation

Learner Collocation
but its still <i>rain heavily</i> and all of them present all of us <i>dance happily...</i>

Based on Table 4.19, there are only 2 occurrences of L6 type collocation. As explained earlier, as adverbs being the hardest to learn and don't necessarily needed may have led to less usage in L6 type collocation particularly the use of former as the verb modifier. As being the young learners, they need more exposure and the adverb usage might increase as claimed by who proclaimed that adverb usage increases with age (Yilmaz & Dikilitas, 2017).

4.3.7 Interesting Findings

Upon analyzing the data, the researcher came across the word "*fun*" in most of the participants' essay. Table 4.20 shows combination in which the word "*fun*" had appeared. A total of 30 lexical collocations involving the word "*fun*" were spotted in data analysis. Frequent use of the general adjective "fun" dictates participants' low proficiency (Visnja & Morona, 2012). However, it is important to note that the some of the participants had used "*funny*" instead of "*fun*" as which has been explained in research question 2.

Table 4.20 Sentences involving the word “Fun”

Ethnic Group & Participant	Lexical Collocation Type	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (5)	L1 (V+N)	We all <i>have fun</i>	We all had fun.
Zomi (8)	L2 (Adj. +N)	It was <i>a fun day</i> .	-
Hakha (11)	L5 (Adv. +Adj.)	The game was <i>extremely fun</i> and my friend was jumping and shouting.	-
Tamil (28)	L1 (V+ N)	We <i>had fun</i> on class party day.	-

4.4 Types of Errors

Each deviant lexical collocation in the current study was classified based on Modified Framework of Types of Lexical Collocational Errors. There were 63 deviant lexical collocations produced by the participants. About 56 deviant collocations were errors involving wrong choice of noun, adjective, verb and adverb. The remaining 7 deviant lexical collocations were errors on wrong form of noun, adjective and adverb. Here, wrong form of verb was not included because wrong form of verb occurs when a verb is not marked with correct tense. As per the current research wrong form of verb was deemed correct. There were also errors on use of determiner and number. Table 4.21 shows errors on wrong choice of verb, noun, adjective and adverb.

Table 4.21 Types of Errors found in Deviant Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Lexical Collocation type	Type of Error	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (3)	L1 (V + N)	Wrong choice of verb <i>*celebrated</i> instead of <i>organizes</i>	In shool each class we used to <i>celebrated class party.</i>	In my school, each class <i>organizes class party.</i>
Burmese (15)	L2 (Adj. +N)	Wrong choice of adjective <i>*singing</i> instead of musicalwhile playing <i>singing chair.....</i>while playing <i>musical chair</i>
Zomi (4)	L2 (Adj. +N)	Wrong choice of adjective & noun <i>*national foods</i> instead of traditional cuisines. Wrong combination of adjective and noun led to non-native like word combination.	On the class party day some students bought drinks, fruits, biscuits and some bought fried rice, tried chicken and <i>national foods.</i>	On class party day, some students brought drinks, fruits, biscuits while the others brought fried rice, fried chicken and <i>traditional cuisines.</i>

‘Table 4.21 Continued’

Hakha (11)	L4 (N of N)	<p>Wrong choice of noun & wrong number</p> <p>Wrong noun</p> <p>*full of rubbishes instead of pile of rubbish</p> <p>Wrong number</p> <p>*rubbishes instead of rubbish as rubbish is uncountable nun</p>	<p>Lastly, the class was very dirty with <i>full of rubbishes</i> everywhere.</p>	<p>Lastly, the class was very dirty with <i>pile of rubbish</i> everywhere.</p>
Tamil (21)	L2 (Adj. +N)	<p>Wrong choice of adjective</p> <p>*pretty ballet dance instead of wonderful ballet dance</p>	<p>So, the first performance was a <i>pretty ballet dance</i>.</p>	<p>So, the first performance was a <i>wonderful ballet dance</i>.</p>

As stated earlier 47 deviant lexical collocations were errors involving wrong choice of noun, verb and adjective. Apparently, participants were successful in choosing the right adverb for L5(**Adv. Adj.**) and L6 (**V+ Adv.**) types as there were no wrong choice of adverb in earlier mentioned lexical collocation types. Errors involving wrong choice of noun, adjective and verb were more prevalent in Burmese group with 22 deviant collocations related to wrong choice. As for Zomi and Hakha groups, it was 18 and 16 respectively.

Only one error relating to wrong choice was found in Tamil group. It is clear that wrong choice of noun, adjective and verb in collocation productions had led to non-native like collocations like “*national foods*”, “*celebrated class party*”, “*singing chair*” and so on. Furthermore, they are also a type of global error. Occurrence of instances like “national foods”, “full of rubbishes” and so on would probably confuse a native speaker on understanding the meaning. According to Burt (1972), global errors occur due to lack of understanding of lexical categories like noun, adjective and adverb which is relatable to current study as participants too had demonstrated superficial knowledge of lexical categories through the deviant collocations. Moving on, Table 4.22 displays instances of errors on wrong form of noun, adjective and adverb.

Table 4.22 Types of Errors found in Deviant Lexical Collocations

Ethnic group & Participant	Lexical Collocation Type	Type of Error	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (15)	L2 (Adj. +Noun)	Wrong form of adjective *deferent- deferent country instead of different countries) Wrong number *did not pluralize “country”	On class party there was so many fond and from <i>deferent-</i> <i>deferent country</i>	On class party day, there were many kinds of food from <i>different</i> <i>countries.</i>

‘Table 4.22 Continued’

Burmese (15)	L5 (Adv. +Adj.)	Wrong form of adverb *really-really big instead of really big Wrong number *Did not pluralize “cake” instead of cakes	Cake are <i>really</i> – <i>really big</i> .	Cakes <i>were really big</i> .
Zomi (8)	L2 (Adj. +N)	Wrong form of adjective *tired instead of tiring	That day was <i>tired day</i> .	It was a <i>tiring day</i> .
Zomi (16)	L7 (N +N)	Wrong form of noun *happy birthday cake instead of birthday cake	And for a volunteer teacher we bough <i>happy birthday cake</i> .	We bought <i>birthday cake</i> for the volunteer teacher.
Hakha (18)	L5 (Adv. + Adj.)	Wrong form of adverb *really really fun instead of really fun	It was <i>really really fun</i> .	It was <i>really fun</i> .

In terms of errors involving wrong form, there were occurrence of ill-formed adjectives, adverbs and nouns in L2 (**Adj. N**), L5 (**Adv. + Adj.**) and L7 (**N + N**) types. About 7 deviant collocations accounted for wrong form type error. Wrong form errors

were more frequent in Burmese group with 5 occurrences and with slight difference in Zomi group with 3 occurrences and Hakha 1 occurrence. These types of errors can be related to local errors where they were still comprehensible by native speaker despite the grammatical errors.

4.5 Research Question 2 (Sources of Deviant Lexical Collocations)

Overall the participants had produced 64 deviant collocations across 4 different ethnic backgrounds namely Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil. Sources of deviant collocations were explained using the Modified Framework of Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors. The framework has listed 6 strategies or sources widely used by learners in deviant collocation productions. Those strategies make the integral part of cognitive and communicative strategies. The use of synonym, ignorance of rule restrictions, false concept hypothesized, negative transfer, approximation and word coinage are the strategies highlighted in Liu's framework 1999.

Thus, the deviant collocations were analyzed based on the earlier mentioned framework to yield explanation on deviant lexical collocations. Besides the framework, the researcher also used input from the participants through interview procedure. 10 participants were interviewed to strengthen the analysis. However, it is important to note that the input of participants was used as supplementary while Modified Framework of Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors was the main reference.

Based on the earlier mentioned framework and interview data overall the participants used both cognitive and communicative strategies. Some of the deviant collocations occurred because of mistake. According to Norris (1999), learners' mistakes are caused by environment, time constraint, and memory loss and surrounding. Thus mistakes should not be counted in during the error analysis (1999). The researcher

also came across such instance but counted those mistakes as part of learners' collocations.

4.5.1 Mistakes

Only one deviant lexical collocation was produced because of mistake. It was spotted in Participant 4 who was a Zomi speaker. The sentence produced by the participant is as follows, "some bought fried rice, **tried chicken** and national foods".

In the above sentence, the participant produced "*tried chicken*" instead of "*fried chicken*". It could have happened as the participants were put under time limit during the task resulting in rush to get it done. Such instances are very common in learners written and spoken productions.

4.6 Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors in general

This section will look at sources of errors in general and upcoming section will highlight sources of errors across 4 different ethnic groups. Table 4.23 displays sources of deviant lexical collocation productions.

Table 4.23 Possible Sources of Deviant Lexical Collocations

Possible sources	Total
The use of synonym	28
Ignorance of rule restriction	7
False concept hypothesized	10
Negative transfer	10
Word coinage	1
Approximation	8

Table 4.24 Possible Sources of Lexical Collocational Errors across 4 Ethnic Groups

Ethnic Group/ Sources	Use of synonym	Ignorance of rule restrictions	False Concept Hypothesized	Negative Transfer	Approximation	Word Coinage
Burmese	7	4	1	5	2	0
Zomi	9	2	4	2	3	0
Hakha	9	1	2	2	2	1
Tamil	3	0	0	1	0	0

Based on Table 4.23 and 4.24, it can be concluded that use of synonym is the main source for deviant lexical collocations to occur in participants' written samples. This trend is followed by negative transfer and false concept hypothesized with 10 each. False concept hypothesized which is an intralingual source again hints to the incomplete English language learning among the participants (Richards 1973; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Brown, 2007). Moving on, approximation accounts for 8 deviant collocations whereas ignorance of rule restriction is the source of 7 deviant collocations to occur in learners' writings. Significant number relating to the use of synonym which is an intralingual factor suggests learners' incompetency in English language (Richards, 1967). Life as refugee would have affected their language learning as access to education was difficult both back in their home country and host country like Malaysia.

Apart from intralingual source, interlingual source, which is negative transfer has equal share as other sources too. It has been proven in present study that first language of a learner does affect one's language acquisition. However, the participants of the present study seemed to have lost touch with their first language, being away from homeland because there are not enough sources to support their first language development. The only exposure they receive is through the interaction with family and

their own community (field notes). This condition is also due to heightened emphasis on English which will determine their future in the countries that they will resettle. Through the interview, the participants expressed their lack of knowledge in their first language.

Moving on, other sources like approximation, ignorance of rule restriction and word coinage have caused deviant lexical collocations too which have been discussed elaborately in upcoming sections.

4.6.1 The Use of synonym

Across the 4 different ethnic groups, use of synonym was the main source of deviant lexical collocation to occur in learners' written productions. Use of synonym occurs because of the attempt of a learner applying open choice principle (Farghal and Obiedat, 1995). In other words, whenever a learner could not think of a semantically equivalent collocation in his or her first language he or she will rely on synonym to express the target collocation. This also happens due to very limited vocabulary where the learner overuses common words and sees a word as a single unit without understanding about collocation (Richards, 1967). Table 4.25 shows examples of deviant lexical collocations that used synonym.

Table 4.25 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations caused by The Use of Synonym

Ethnic Group & Learner	Collocation	Target Collocation
Participant		
Burmese (14)	Because some of our classmate assume that party was our <i>last day</i> celebration because some of them are going to U.S some wanna went back their own country.	For some of us it was the <i>final day</i> celebration as we would be leaving Malaysia.
Burmese (23)	Some of them they bring <i>traditional food</i>	Some brought <i>traditional cuisines</i>
Burmese (30)	My teacher weared a <i>party cap</i> too.	My teacher wore a <i>party hat</i> too.
Zomi (4)	They <i>had such a nice performance</i> .	They <i>delivered a wonderful performance</i> .
Zomi (6)	They <i>show magic</i> and I was shock to see it.	They <i>performed magic tricks</i> and I was thrilled upon watching it.
Hakha (12)	I take picture with my <i>brilliant teacher</i> .	I can take picture with my <i>amazing teacher</i> .
Hakha (22)	We sit on <i>picnic carpet</i> .	We sat on a <i>picnic blanket</i> .
Tamil (28)	My teacher <i>said a poem</i> on class party day.	My teacher <i>recited a poem</i> on class party day.

According to the examples given earlier, the participants showed very superficial understanding of words as they might have been taught only the meaning of a word instead of collocations. Based on the examples, Participant 12 had produced “*brilliant teacher*” which is unlikely combination as Oxford Dictionary (1998) suggests

words like *amazing/competent/ inspired/ skilled/great/resourceful* as collocations for the word “*teacher*”. The participant explained in the interview that his teacher had a very good mathematical skill; which is why he used the word “*brilliant*”, to describe the teacher’s skill. As the participant were not aware that “*skilled teacher*” is a more appropriate choice, he ended up using the word “*brilliant*” which has semantic similarity with “*skilled*” In addition to that, upon checking the word “*brilliant*”, there were no occurrences of “*brilliant teacher*” in BNC. The following are concordance lines for the word “*brilliant*”.

Table 4.26 Concordance lines for the word “Brilliant” from British National Corpus

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Species of the acer family offers rich tints of golden yellow or brilliant scarlet. 2) WINTER BALANCE Against these dark greens set the brilliant stems of Carnus alb Sibirica the red barked dogwood 3) Pakula as a director and a cast including frequently brilliant Kevin Kline, Marie Elizabeth and Kevin Sapcey 4) Generations of music lovers have admired Lorenzo de Ponte, a brilliant adaptation of Beaumarchais original prose comedy 5) The Sentimental Journey, a brilliant book and still the best book of Dicken’s fifteen years. 6) It was a brilliant performance, enthused by Toby Mullins, the lady’s coach.

As per BNC, the word “*brilliant*” is more likely to be used to describe performance, book, colour and so on. Similarly, Participant 26 had formed deviant collocation by producing “*last day at school*” instead of “*final day at school*”. In both BNC and Oxford Dictionary of Collocations, the word “*last*” frequently collocates with word indicating time of an event like “*last week/Friday/month*” and so on. Besides that, the collocation “*last day*” is often used to describe someone’s last day before death, for instance,

The Legend KING CHARLES I spent his LAST day and very last night as a free man in Stamford at the house of Alderman Richard. (BNC)

As both “*last*” and “*final*” share almost the same definition, the participants might have misused the word. The misuse of adjectives indicates participants’ lack of collocational knowledge because they had formed the word based on their immediate meaning without considering their collocations. Likewise, the deviant collocation “*traditional food*” by Participant 23 is not acceptable according to British National Corpus and Oxford Dictionary of Collocations. Just by relying on the meaning of the word “*traditional*” the participants might have formed “*traditional food*”, without knowing that the construction is not acceptable. Additionally, none of the students were aware of the word “*cuisine*” because they had used “*food*” a common term in other constructions too. Table 2.7 illustrates instances involving the word “food”.

Table 4.27 Instances Involving the Word “Food”

Ethnic group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Burmese (23)	Some bring <i>traditional foods</i>	Some brought <i>traditional cuisines</i>
Zomi (4)	some brought fried rice, tried chicken and <i>national foods</i> .	some brought fried rice, fried chicken and <i>traditional cuisines</i> .
Hakha (18)	We brought our <i>culture food</i> like lap peh toh and capati.	We brought our <i>traditional cuisines</i> like lap peh toh and capati
Tamil (28)	We ate <i>people’s food</i> from Somalia. It is their food.	We ate <i>Somalian’s traditional cuisines</i> .

In the same vein, usage of general term can be seen in Tamil and Zomi participants as they had produced “*say poems*” and “*nice performance*” respectively. “*Say*” and “*recite*” have semantic similarity which might have confused the participant in producing the correct collocations. Overall, use of synonym as the main source is a clear indication of participants’ lack of knowledge in collocations. Insufficient collocational competence or knowledge has been called for attention because even Liu claims that EFL students produce deviant collocation because they have lack of collocational information (2000, as cited in Hsueh, 2004). For instance, in Marjan’s study the learner produced “*says lies*” instead of “*tells lies*” and “*wild love*” instead of “*great love*” (2012).

4.6.2 Ignorance of rule restrictions

Ignorance of rule restrictions has been identified as the one of the main causes for the occurrence of deviant lexical collocation. Ignorance of rule restrictions occur when a learner fail to follow restrictions of a grammatical structure. Learners usually don’t apply rules to areas like countable nouns and prepositions. In Marjan’s research the participant produced “*much compliments*” instead of “*many compliments*” (2012). Ignorance of rule restrictions on countable nouns can be identified based on the participant’s production. Similarly, the participants of current study had ignored certain grammar rules in their writings. The examples of deviant collocations that occurred because of ignorance of rule restriction are shown in the Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations Caused by Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

Ethnic Group	Learner Collocations	Target Collocations
Burmese	We had our <i>grates memories</i> through the year. (P14)	We collected <i>great memories</i> throughout the year.
Burmese	There was somany fond and from <i>deferents countrys</i> . (P15)	There were so many food from many <i>different countries</i> .
Zomi	The food that my class mad bought are; <i>chocolates cupcakes</i>	My classmates brought <i>chocolate cupcakes</i> .
Hakha	It was <i>full of rubbishes</i> in class. (P14)	There were <i>piles of rubbish</i> in class.

It is evident that the participants had ignored the rule of singular and plural form. Apparently, they had developed this conception where all the plural forms need the addition of “s” at the end of a word. Burmese learner gave plural form to “*different*” which is not a noun. Zomi learner gave plural form to the word “*chocolates*” which is the first noun of compound word “*chocolate cupcakes*”.

As for the Hakha learners, they pluralized uncountable nouns such as “*rubbish*”. It shows that they have incomplete knowledge of nouns. It also shows the tendency of learners to ignore uncountable noun structure where uncountable nouns should not be added with “s” to show plurality. It is crucial to note that both overgeneralization and ignorance of rule restriction tend to overlap (Richards, 1967). Thus, the errors mentioned earlier are also caused by overgeneralization. Tamil participants did not commit any errors in the context of ignorance of rule restrictions.

4.6.3 False Concept Hypothesized

Second language learners tend to form false language concepts which usually involve misconceptions about high frequency verbs like “*make*”, “*do*” and “*take*”. According to Liu, the learners have wrong perception where they think that de-lexicalized verbs can be used freely (1999). In the same study, the participant produced “*do plans*” instead of “*make plans*” (Liu, 1999). The current study also has few examples of such occurrence. The examples are as follow:

Table 4.29 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations Caused by False Concept Hypothesized

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocations	Target Collocations
Burmese (2)	Firstly, we <i>did a discussion</i> with teachers.	Firstly, we <i>had a discussion</i> with the teachers.
Zomi (4)	Some students <i>dance their traditional dance</i> .	Some students <i>performed a traditional dance</i> .
Zomi (6)	Our teacher <i>has a short speech</i> .	Our teacher <i>gave a speech</i> .
Zomi (27)	We <i>make class party</i> after we finished Our exam.	We <i>organized class party</i> after our exams were over.
Hakha (22)	In that school they never <i>did a class party</i> .	In my previous school, we never <i>organized class party</i> .

Based on the examples given below, the participants used a wide range of verb like “*make*”, “*have*” and “*do*” to indicate that they had organized a class party. It hints to their lack of understanding and overdependence on high frequency verbs like “*make*”, “*do*” and “*have*”. Both misconceptions and reliance on familiar or high frequency verbs are common in learners’ writings even among the advanced learners (Ahmadi, 2012; Wong, 2014; Hong ; 2014; Zhou, 2016). Likewise in Hyung Joons’

study involving experienced native speaker and less experienced non- native speaker, showed that the non- natives employ general verbs more frequently than their counterparts (2016). There were 137 occurrence of “*make party*” as opposed to “*throw party*” which was found only in native speaker samples. Additionally, the deviant V+N combination “*make party*” was actually found in high intermediate non-native speakers which ascertain that collocations are indeed tough for all learners irrespective of their proficiency level. Furthermore, high frequency verbs are mostly polysemous verbs which could confuse the learners in determining their usage. One need years of exposure to be able to handle those verbs as even native speakers find it hard (Benson et al, 1998).

4.6.4 Negative Transfer

Negative transfer occurs because of interference of first language (L1). Many researches have indicated negative transfer as the main cause for the occurrence of deviant collocations (Bahns, 1993; Mahmoud, 2005; Bloom, 2006). Current study interviewed the students to identify L1 interference which the former only acted as the supplementary input for data analysis. In the current study, 10 deviant collocations might have occurred because of negative transfer. 5 of Burmese group’s deviant collocations were caused by negative transfer. As for the other groups, it was 2 for each Zomi and Hakha whereas for Tamil only one deviant collocation might have caused by negative transfer. Examples of negative transfers are as follow:

Table 4.30 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations Caused by Negative Transfer

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocations	First LanguageVersion	Target Collocation
Zomi (19)	She was really- really happy.	<i>amah lungdam thungai</i> <i>-thungai.</i> she - <i>amah</i> really- really - <i>thungai-</i> <i>thungai</i> happy - <i>lungdam</i>	She was <i>really</i> happy.
Zomi (8)	We enjoy <i>other people's</i> dance.	<i>eimau namdang lam</i> <i>nuam-law.</i> we - <i>eimau</i> other people - <i>namdang</i> dance - <i>lam</i> enjoy - <i>nuam-law</i>	We enjoyed a <i>traditional</i> dance.
Hakha (19)	We cut it in small small pieces.	<i>hme tete in kan cheu</i> <i>hna.</i> small small - <i>hme te te</i> <i>in</i> we - <i>kan</i> cut – <i>cheu</i> <i>hna(suffix for we)</i>	We cut it into small pieces.

‘Table 4.30 Continued’

Hakha (27)	In that school we never <i>did class party</i> .	<i>sianginn ahcun puai kan tuah bal lo.</i> <i>school – sianginn did/do - ahcun puai we - kan party - tuah never - bal lo</i>
Tamil (28)	It was a <i>pretty performance</i> by our friends.	<i>athu engal nanbarkalal padaikapatha oru alagana padaipu.</i> <i>it was - athu our friends - engal nanbarkalal performed - padaikapatha a - oru pretty - alagana performance - padaipu</i>

Apparently, all the participants relied on their first language when they could not find the appropriate word in target language. As a result, they did literal translation which had produced odd sounding collocations like “*did class party*”, “*small –small pieces*”, “*really really happy*” and so on. For instance, a Hakha participant had produced “*puai kan tuah*”, “*did class party*” which is a direct translation from his first language as Hakha people “*puai party*” or “*do party*” as “*puai*” is generally used in the sense of doing things like “*puai homework*” or do homework. A Tamil participant

might have employed the same method as she had produced “*alagana padaipu*”, “*pretty performance*”. She explained that in Tamil “*alagana*” can be used in various contexts like “*alagana*” dance (beautiful dance), “*alagana*” girl (pretty girl) which is the total opposite in English where the latter has different words like beautiful, pretty, wonderful and so on. Hence, with that understanding the participant had produced a deviant collocation.

Moving on, a Zomi participant had produced “*really- really happy*” or in Zomi “*thungai-thungai lungdam*” where he repeated the adverb “*really/thungai*”. By and large, Zomi speakers tend to repeat some adverbs in their spoken discourse which according to May Fan is common among learners because they lack genre register, in other words, usage of informal words or patterns in formal settings especially in written discourse (2009).

Despite the negative impact of first language, some scholars have argued that mother tongue should not be considered as a hindrance as mother tongue can also produce positive transfer if the native and target language belong to same family as the latter’s tend to share similar linguistic structures (Selinker, 1999). Conversely, in Myanmar refugee learners case it did not help much because of the linguistic difference between English and Myanmar languages (Kellerman, 1977, Ringbom, 1982, cited in Zughoul, 1991;56). Additionally, as explained in linguistic features section (Chapter 2), although the languages (Burmese, Zomi, Hakha and Tamil) have different word order than English, it did not influence their lexical collocation productions. For instance, in Burmese, Zomi and Hakha **Adjective + Noun** and **Noun + Adjective** types are available but all the L2 (Adj. + N) in their written samples followed the correct order with no instance of **Noun + Adjective** form. Moving on, L3 (Noun + Verb) type which is common word order in the participants’ languages did not appear in their written sample too. Therefore, it is understood that participants’ first language linguistic

features did not affect their collocation productions instead deviant lexical collocations occurred because of limited vocabulary in target language which led to reliance on first language.

In terms of negative transfer, Burmese ethnic group had more deviant collocations as opposed to other groups. Examples of Burmese participants' deviant collocation are illustrated in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations Caused by Negative Transfer

Learner Collocations	Burmese Version	Target Collocations
We celebrated class party. (P3)	<i>Ngo doe thin</i> (we) <i>dan parte</i> (party) <i>pwe kyin-pa</i> (celebrate) <i>ge de</i> (suffix to indicate past tense)	We organized class party.
It was movie time. (P13)	<i>A da yoke shin</i> (it was) <i>kyi bo</i> (movie) <i>achane be</i> (time).	It was movie session.
It was game time. (P13)	<i>A da</i> (it was) <i>sar: bo</i> (game) <i>achane be</i> (time).	It was game session.
It was really- really big. (S15)	<i>De har ga daw</i> (it was) <i>ta-ge</i> <i>ta-ge</i> (really- really) <i>kyi de</i> (big).	It was really big.
It was really-really funny. (S15)	<i>De har ga daw</i> (it was) <i>ta-ge</i> <i>ta-ge ye</i> (really-really) <i>sa yar</i> <i>be</i> (fun).	It was really fun.
It was really- really nice. (S15)	<i>De har ga daw</i> (it was) <i>ta-ge</i> <i>ta-ge</i> (really-really) <i>kaung de</i> (nice).	It was really nice.

Based on Table 4.31, Participant 3 had produced a deviant collocation which is “celebrated class party” and its Burmese equivalent is “*parte kyin pa*”. According to the Participant 3, in Burmese sense, they use “celebrate” for parties and festivals. Hence proven that, the participant would have directly translated the collocation, which is clear sign of negative transfer.

Moving on, Participant 13 had produced “movie time” which is actually a direct translation. The participant had explained in the interview that Burmese say “*kyi bo achane*” (movie time) not movie session. “*Achane*” means time and the word is also used to indicate time slot or session where a particular activity takes place. With that understanding, the participant would have produced deviant collocation such as “movie time” and “game time”.

Participant 15 produced 3 deviant collocations with similar pattern where the participant repeated the word “really” twice. According to the participant, Burmese do repeat the word “*ta ge*” (really) in their day to day conversations though it is not applicable in formal writings which also found in Zomi and Hakha speakers’ productions.

4.6.5 Approximation

Approximation occurs when a learner employ a wrong vocabulary item or structure which carries similar semantic feature with target item. Examples of approximation are following:

Table 4.32 Examples of Deviant Lexical Collocations Caused by Approximation

Ethnic Group	Learner Collocations	Target Collocations
Burmese (20)	It was a <i>happiness day</i> . (P20)	It was a <i>happy day</i> .

‘Table 4.32 Continued’

Burmese (3)	Students have <i>relaxed day</i>	Students had a <i>relaxing day</i>
Zomi (8)	That day was really <i>tired day</i> .	That was a really <i>tiring day</i> .
Zomi (16)	They brough for us <i>happy birthday cake</i> .	They brought us <i>birthday cake</i> .
Hakha (10)	On <i>schooling day</i> some of friend did not come.	Some of my friends did not come on <i>school day</i> .
Hakha (18)	It is a <i>funny day</i>	It was a <i>fun day</i>

The participants produced deviant lexical collocations as the target items did not show any contrast to them. For instance the word “*happiness*” and “*happy*” did not bring any contrast to the participant. Another approximation is production of “*happy birthday cake*” instead of “*birthday cake*” as both convey the same meaning despite the wrong construction. There were productions like “*tired day*” and “*relaxed day*” by Participant 3 and 8. Here, the participants were not aware of the difference between “*tired*” and “*tiring*”. Deviant collocations might have occurred as the students could not differentiate between adjective with suffix “*ed*” and “*ing*”. Adjectives that end with suffix “*ed*” usually used to describe feelings whereas adjectives ending with “*ing*” are used to describe characteristic of a thing or person. For example,

I am excited. (Indicates subject’s feeling)

The movie was exciting. (Indicates description about the movie)

Moving on, the word “*fun*” and “*funny*” don’t seem to bring any contrast to the participant too. This is because some had produced “*funny games*”, “*funny day*” instead of “*fun games*” and “*fun day*”.

4.6.6 Word Coinage

Only one error had occurred because of word coinage. Therefore, current study too supports the claim by previous studies that word coinage is less likely to cause deviant collocation as compared to other sources. The example is given in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33 Example of Deviant Lexical Collocation Caused by Word Coinage

Ethnic Group & Participant	Learner Collocation	Target Collocation
Hakha (22)	One student brought <i>butter knife</i> and mayonis.	One student brought <i>bread knife</i> and mayonnaise.

As the participant was not aware of the target item, he had created his own term which is “*butter knife*”. It was not negative transfer as he revealed in interview that the Hakha term for “*bread knife*” is “*namte*” which means knife.

4.7 Summary

In total the participants had produced a total of 239 lexical collocations and 64 deviant collocations. Analysis on the types of lexical collocations revealed that lexical collocations are not easy for the participants. Particularly, they did not do well in L4 (**Noun of Noun**) and other types like L1 (**V +N**), L2 (**Adj. + N**) and L5 (**Adv. +Adj.**) need emphasis too. Besides that, the less frequent lexical collocations like L4 (**N of N**) and L6 (**V + Adv.**) hinted to shallow collocational knowledge among participants as they are expected to apply various kinds of collocations. In relation to that, a study by May Fan argues that lexical variety is a key feature in determining one’s proficiency (2009). Similarly, no attempt in producing L3 (**N + V**) type in the current study could be a sign of low proficiency too.

Furthermore, use of synonym was cited as the main source for lexical collocational errors. It also reflects the participants' superficial knowledge of words being the intermediate learner group. As for negative transfer which always seen as the hindrance in second language learning, in the current study native language was not a strong source as most of the errors were caused by intralingual sources like false concept hypothesized, ignorance of rule restrictions and use of synonym. To conclude, collocations proven to be a tough call for the participants though they only had produced 64 deviant collocations.

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CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

Current study looked at lexical collocation productions of 30 Myanmar refugee learners in Malaysia. The research questions were formulated to identify the types of lexical collocations that the participants were able and unable to produce whereas the second question explains the possible sources for deviant lexical collocations to occur in participants' written productions.

It was found that participants had produced a total of 234 lexical collocations with 64 deviant collocations. Interestingly, the participants of the present study marked a very low percentage of lexical collocational errors which is only 26.4%. Use of synonym was identified as the main possible source for deviant lexical collocations to occur in participants' written productions.

5.2 Summary of the study

5.2.1 Research Question 1 (Lexical Collocation Types Found in Participants' Written Productions)

The most frequently used lexical collocation type across all 4 ethnic groups is L2 (**Adj. +Noun**) type which marked 125 occurrences and followed by L7 (**N +N**) with 32 occurrences. The rest of types like L1 (**V+ N**), L3 (**N + V**), L4 (**N of N**), L5 (**Adv. +Adj.**) and L6 (**V + Adv.**) marked 42, 0, 5 and 33 respectively.

In the present study L2 (**Adj. +N**) type was notified as the preferred type which resonated the findings of previous studies as latter too had marked L2 type as the easiest and most frequent in learners' written productions (Wong, 2012; Ahmadi, 2012). A closer look at the use of adjectives involved in the previously mentioned type had revealed frequent use of common adjectives like best, good, nice, great, happy, fun and so on. Similarly, use of common adverbs was also found in L5 (**Adv. +Adj.**) type

collocations. Therefore, employment of common adjectives and adverbs indicate that participants' vocabulary is still at its' embryonic state.

Additionally, fewer usage of other difficult lexical collocation types like L6 (**Adv. + V**) and L4 (**N of N**) are too a strong indication of participants' limited vocabulary. Besides that, occurrence of deviant lexical collocations shows lack of collocational knowledge among the participants. For instance, Participant 3 had produced "*traditional food*" instead of "*traditional cuisines*". He was not aware that "*food*" does not collocate with "*traditional*". He might have learnt the words as single unit thus had led to non- native like collocations. Despite the small number of deviant lexical collocations, collocations are not easy for the participants. Hence, participants' lack of collocational knowledge should be addressed as it could lead to better language learning.

5.2.2 Research question 2 (Possible Sources for Deviant Lexical Collocations to Occur in Participants' Written Productions)

Use of synonym was identified as the main source for 28 deviant lexical collocations. Participants had showed tendency of using words based on the latter's superficial meaning with no collocational knowledge of a particular word. "*Last day*", a deviant L2 (**Adj. + N**) type collocation was found in a participant's written production. He could not produce "*final day*" the acceptable collocation due to semantic vagueness between "*last*" and "*final*". Hence, with collocational knowledge a learner will be able to distinguish words use despite their semantic vagueness.

Moving on, negative transfer has been cited as one of the major sources too. As explained earlier, negative transfer occurred because the study had involved participants with different language backgrounds. With lack of proficiency in English they have to rely on their first language which leads to deviant language productions.

On the whole, more deviant lexical collocations were assigned to intarlingual sources than interlingual source which ascertains the existence of incomplete English learning among the participants. This gap might have occurred because of their stateless condition which had robbed off their education rights and ultimately access to formal education. To sum up, few implications could be drawn through the findings of the current study which are discussed in upcoming section.

5.3 Implications of the study

5.3.1 Theoretical Implication

This study calls for change in “grammar –vocabulary” dichotomy which is subscribed by most of the second language learning settings. Malaysia is no exception as incorporation of phraseology yet to be popularized among young learners despite continuous recommendations from past studies done in Malaysian context (Normazidah Che Musa, Koo & Hazita Azam, 2012; Ong & Yuen, 2014). In relation to that, occurrence of deviant lexical collocations in participants’ writings of the present study revealed their lack of awareness about collocations. They mostly practice single word learning and use typical dictionaries. Both participants and language teachers were not aware of existence of collocation dictionaries (field notes). It has been often quoted that learners are not sensitive in realizing the co-occurrence of words as they are only trained to look at single word (Pawley & Syder, 1983; Kjellemer, 1990; Lewis, 1993; Palmer, 1993).

Having said that, in order to implement collocation teaching, lexical approach by Michael Lewis (1999) should be implemented. Learners must be made to “see and sense” collocations in any discourses they come across. Noticing Hypothesis by Schmidt (1990) claimed that by noticing importance linguistic structures a learner will

be able to enhance his or her language learning. Similarly, through ‘noticing’ learners will familiarize themselves with collocations and ultimately will become more sensitive with co-occurrence of words.

5.3.2 Pedagogical Implication

5.3.2.1 Language Teachers

The study strongly recommends inclusion of collocational teaching in second language learning setting. It can be done by introducing the use of collocation dictionaries, native corpuses like British National Corpus and so on in language classes. Besides that, the teachers too can focus on certain types of collocations particularly those involving high frequency verbs and adjectives. As per the current study, focus should be given to L4 (**N of N**) type as it was the most problematic collocation type for the participants.

Moving on, teaching of collocations can be specified based on one’s field of study too. For example, a language teacher who is teaching for engineering students can teach collocations of that specific field. Current studies have embarked on identifying genre/field specific collocations as the latter facilitates better learning (Peters & Fernandez, 2013).

5.3.2.2 Curriculum Designers

As collocational teaching yet to be popularized in Malaysian context, curriculum designers should include collocation teaching. Textbooks should clearly highlight collocations especially the important ones. Interestingly, collocations can also be taught without changing the content of a textbook as a language teacher just have make

students “notice” them. However, by clearly highlighting in textbooks, collocation teaching can be practiced widely.

So far, only IELTS exams test collocational knowledge of a student. Likewise, Malaysian major exams like PT3 (Penilaian Tingkatan 3) and SPM (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia) should figure out ways to test learners collocational knowledge too.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Study

5.4.1 Instruments

In the present study, written task was employed to investigate lexical collocation productions of participants. Upcoming studies can employ other methods like fill-in-the-blanks, multiple choice questions and translation task to investigate learners’ comprehension on collocations. This technique can help to specify the collocations that learners struggle with.

Other than that, future studies can use different types of genre in writings like argumentative, factual and so on. It is because collocation productions vary depending on the genre of written task assigned to the participants. By employing different types of genre it will assist in understanding participants’ collocation productions.

5.4.2 Collocations

Upcoming studies can examine either grammatical and lexical collocations or one specific type of collocation. It will add to literature on collocational studies as a whole. Additionally, classification of collocations can use a different approach. Present study employed Hsu’s classification which is a phraseological approach. Future studies can use frequency or other approaches in identifying collocations because collocations come with multiple meanings.

5.4.3 Participants

Only 30 Myanmar refugee learners had participated in this study. The number of participants should be increased so that generalization can be made in terms of results. Furthermore, future studies can involve other refugee learning centres in Malaysia to get a better picture refugees' English learning in Malaysia. The study can also be replicated in Malaysian setting by involving Chinese and Indians as past study only involved Form 4 Malay learners.

5.4.4 Duration of Data Collection

In present study written task was collected just at one point of time. Future studies can employ a longitudinal approach by collecting data more than once to see the development of collocational use among learners. Besides, longitudinal approach can be used to investigate effectiveness of collocational teaching through which a stronger claim for collocational teaching can be made.

5.5 Conclusion

This study managed to draw insights on lexical collocational productions of Myanmar refugee learners in Malaysia. It was done in the hope to better facilitate the “unvoiced group” in Malaysia in terms of English language learning. Helping them improving their English language will guarantee a better future upon residing in first world countries like Canada. Most importantly, the study intends to see inclusion of collocational teaching in Malaysian context as the latter aspires to excel in English language learning.

Above all, inclusion of collocational teaching is the key point of this study. By highlighting the significance of collocations, the study attempts to create awareness

among educators, curriculum designers, policy makers and learners. Those are the people who have the capacity to bring changes to the current vocabulary teaching and learning.

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