Word combinations of English in academic writing

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Abstract
Collocations, no matter where to use them, are an important linguistic issue if it is native fluency that is longed for in academic writing. In line with that, the present study aimed at increasing the awareness towards the importance of collocations in order to have native fluency in academic writing; making some suggestions regarding involvement of collocations in academic texts, and creating a practicable list of collocations to be used especially in research articles by non-native writers of English. A hundred research articles written in English in the field of ELT by native speakers of English made up the data of the present study. The data were analysed and the collocations were identified and categorized. The categorized collocations were enhanced through collocations dictionaries to be able to create a comprehensive list of collocations. The findings showed that native speakers heavily rely on collocations while writing academic texts. In addition, the literature also provided compelling evidence regarding the close relation between native fluency in academic texts and correct collocation use.

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1. Introduction
The impact and role of phraseology have received due recognition in foreign language teaching. Thanks to the advent of corpus linguistics, phraseological patterns in academic texts became visible, which spawned valuable building blocks in vocabulary learning of a learner (Jurko, 2010). Later Nation (2006) pointed out that L2 word combination, also called collocation, deserved special attention. Collocation is recurrence of two or more words in a way more than arbitrary, and is instinctively used by writers heavily in academic texts. In contrast with the views that often regard collocations as arbitrary, many wording preferences in English sentence structure cannot be explained on the base of syntactic or semantic grounds, but on the base of relations between words that mostly occur together (Smadja, 1989).

It is commonly known that many important facts that were previously neglected as extralinguistic gradually started to expand its influence (Telia, Bragina, Oparina, & Sandomirskaya, 1994). Once considered as trivial, collocations began to gain importance, and a considerable interest was attributed to lexical collocations, which were largely seen as pre-fabricate language units at earlier times (Cowie,
1994). Today it is a definite proof that lexical collocations have pivotal roles in ELT particularly in vocabulary acquisition and phraseology. There is an extensive literature that proves the benefit of collocations for language producers. The first benefit is that collocations are valuable for learners in order to increase their knowledge of lexicon and general language proficiency. The second is that brain seems to work better with chunks and formulaic expressions while L1 influence in metacognitive issues remain as a major challenge that needs to be overcome. The final is that collocation may assist writers to have native-like writing skill. In other words, it is through collocations that a language user has native-fluency in their spoken or written discourses because “collocation is the key to fluency” (Hill, 2000, p. 164).

1.1. What is a collocation?

Better understanding of collocations may contribute us to increase our awareness toward them. For that purpose, definitions explaining collocations from various aspects by different researchers are due to help us understanding the importance of collocations for academic writing. Although definitions of a collocation in the literature centre around intuitive co-occurrence of words in the speaker’s mind, many other definitions provide us a better way of understanding collocations, some of which chronologically are:

- A collocation addresses to syntagmatic relations, the meaning of which is not directly committed to the conceptual meaning (Firth, 1957).
- Collocations are two or more words occurring together with a strong tendency (Halliday, McIntosh, & Strevens, 1964).
- Contextually, collocations are appropriate forms of language. They have the power of specifying one another’s occurrence (Kororsadowicz-Strazynska, 1980).
- Because a collocation is a sequence of lexical item that occurs habitually together, it is idiomatic. Yet, there is a difference that makes a collocation different from an idiomatic expression, which is that a collocation is wholly transparent, and a semantic constituent (Benson, 1985).
- A collocation is a type of semantic cohesion in which varies by the constituent elements in mutual degrees. The co-occurrence between lexical units in a collocational constituent may be strong or weak (Cruise, 1986).
- A collocation is composed of two co-occurring words that are connected in a native-speaker’s memory (Aghbar, 1990).
- A collocation in English is described as a formulaic, prefabricated, and conventionalized combination of two or more words (Zhang, 1993).

Apart from being word combinations, the issue that should not be overlooked is that collocations are patterned speech. These patterned speeches include (Becker, 1975; cited in Kennedy, 1990):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>formulaic speech</th>
<th>(as a matter of fact)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prefabricated patterns</td>
<td>(that’s a ....)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unassimilated fragments</td>
<td>(“to meet you” as a greeting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefabricated routines</td>
<td>(how are you)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentence builders</td>
<td>(that’s a ....)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idioms</td>
<td>(kick the bucket)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clichés</td>
<td>(as a matter of fact)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lexicalized sentence stems</td>
<td>(as a matter of fact)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set phrases</td>
<td>(in brief; at the present time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polywords</td>
<td>(the powder room)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deictic locations</td>
<td>(as a matter of fact)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>situational utterances</td>
<td>(I’m glad to meet you)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbatim texts</td>
<td>(oozing charm from every pore)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although collocations include majority of the patterned speech, they do not cover all of them. For example, idioms are patterned speech that should not be confused with collocations. Concisely, every patterned speech should not be considered as a collocation, which is “recurring sequences of words” (Kennedy, 1990, p.217).

1.2. Types of collocation

**Lexical collocations vs. Grammatical collocations** - Collocations, which previously had been regarded as a single title were divided into two as lexical and grammatical collocations by Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986). Grammatical collocations include an adjective, a verb or noun, plus an infinitive, a preposition or clause. The patterns of a phrasal grammatical collocations form from a lexical unit and a pattern that specifies the sub-categorization property of the head (Bentivogli & Pianta, 2003). Similarly, verb + noun, preposition + noun, and infinitive verbs have dominant places in grammatical collocations, reported Fontenelle (1998). On the other hand, lexical collocations, as stated by Bahns (1993), do not include infinitives, prepositions, or clauses; instead, various combinations of adjectives, adverbs, verbs, and nouns. Again, if compared to closed class structure of grammatical collocations, lexical collocations are composed of two equal open-class lexical items, and include no subordinate element (Fontenelle, 1998). This study dealt with lexical collocations rather than grammatical collocations.

**Solid lexical collocations** - When compared to lexical collocations, solid lexical collocations are much more rigorous in constructing a lexical word combination. The term was first used in a dissertation titled “Personal Communication” in 2002 under Dr. Aghbar’ advising (cited from Sung, 2003) to refer to sequences of lexical items that occur repeatedly, hence get a strong bond to each other. There is such a strong interconnection among lexical items in solid lexical collocations that the native speaker hardly considers them as separate items or free combinations. High winds, acute pain, light drizzle can be considered as examples of solid lexical collocations. The present study did not make a distinction between lexical collocations and solid lexical collocations, and referred to both as lexical collocations.

**Mis-collocation** - Mis-collocations, contrary to well-established collocations, are in contravention of co-occurrence restrictions (Cruise, 1990). Though, they are very prevalent in non-native writers’ writings. For example, a native speaker would say the fast train; rancid butter; or a quick shower but not the quick train; rotten butter; or a fast shower. Incorrect collocations are not acceptable in academic discourse at all, and they are regarded as “a major indicator of foreignness” (McArthur, 1992, p. 232).

1.3. The Importance of collocation

Having been introduced by Palmer (1933) and then brought to the discipline of theoretical linguistics by Firth (1957), collocations have had a growing influence on ELT. Vocabulary teaching, to which Lewis (2001) attracted attention through his theory of Lexical approach, is one of the issues that fell under the influence of collocations. Lexical approach entails teaching vocabulary to learners by using the power of word combinations already in their chunks. Accordingly, vocabulary knowledge is not only to know its dictionary meaning but to understand a number of details about the word. In addition to possible combinations of words, their derivational aspects such as suffixes and prefixes, their semantic behaviour, and their sociolinguistic attributes have importance in familiarizing with a
word (Richards, 1976). Therefore, word combination predictability plays a significant role in
determining the way we use language, and likewise, prefabricated sentences taught in units make the
learner to store and recall words readily (Nattinger, 1980) because “the importance of prefabricated
speech routines in language behaviour” (Nattinger, 1980, p. 337) is known to language users.

Not all researchers made a consensus on the influence of collocation. For instance, Kennedy (1990)
casted some doubts on whether collocation truly existed, which is a view in stark contrast with other
eminent researchers in the field (e.g. Lewis, Nattinger, Pawley) who achieved an agreement on
overwhelming prevalence of collocations. Similar to Kennedy, Krashen and Scarcella (1980) denied
the views of that a large part of language included collocations. In spite of the objections regarding the
prevalence of collocations, they did not make any serious claims with respect to the importance of
colloctions.

The close relationship between collation and specialized translation is worth mentioning
specifically. Some researchers (e.g. Castro, Martinez, & Faber, 2014) established a strong bond
between specialized translation and collocation. Specialised translation cannot be achieved only with
accurate meaning transfer but adjustment to format specifications, punctuality in delivery (Bonet,
2002), satisfaction of communicative expectations (Montero, Silvia, & Mercedes, 2001), and
understanding the concepts formed by various types of specialized lexical units; for example
terminological phrases and terms (Montero, Silvia, & Pedro, 2002). It is understood that to a great
extent- phraseological units composed of prefabricated chunks and collocations contribute to achieve
better specialised translations. Similarly, Castro et al. (2014) stated that collocations gain importance
for both decoding and encoding the texts in the course of specialized translation. According to Rundell
(2010), even grammar is not more important than collocations while making a translation because
colloctions make writers sound fluent.

It is becoming gradually apparent that “language is largely formulaic in nature, and that the
competent use of formulaic sequences is an important part of fluent and natural language use”
(Durrant & Schmitt, 2009, p. 157). Although to what extent non-native writers use collocation is not
evident (Durrant & Schmitt, 2009), it is stated that non-native writers tend not to know much about
colloctions (Kjellmer, 1990), which are ready-at-hand and pre-constructed in minds of natives. That
is not a no-objection case in terms of having native fluency because the strong bond between academic
writing and collocations is well-established.

Howarth (1998) reported that ESL/EFL learners may become native-like writers if they become
aware of the important role of collocations, and pay the necessary attention on collocation
competence. Brown (1974) stressed that collocation competence enables language producers to realize
formulaic expressions or language chunks used by natives in their writings, and to get the intuitive use
of word combinations in a natural way as natives do. Thanks to collocations, a writer may shift his/her
concentration from individual words to structures of the discourse, which is a case done through
teaching lexical phrases in ELT, and the most important reason to teach lexical phrase is that it leads
to writing fluency (Li C, 2005).

We have witnessed different studies persevering on the benefits of collocations on behalf of
language users in the last decade. For example, an early experimental study by Zhang (1993) was
conducted to detect the effect of collocations on EFL/ESL writing. In addition, the relationship
between collocations and general language proficiency was aroused some researchers’ interests (e.g.
Al-Zahrani, 1998; Bonk, 2000). The literature points to studies which aim to detect the relation
between collocation and four English skill: collocation and listening (Hsu & Hsu, 2007); between
colloctions and reading (Lien, 2003), between collocations and speaking (Sung, 2003; Hsu & Chiu,
2008), and collocation and vocabulary acquisition (Kennedy, 1990). However, although it seems that
collocation does not only have an influence on writing skill but also on other basic skills like speaking, reading, and speaking, the most significant benefit remains for writing quality.

1.4. Collocations, lexical competence, and general English proficiency

Some studies focused on positive correlation between collocational knowledge and level of lexicon (cf. Wray, 2002). To start with, the foremost of them belongs to Nation (2001) who claimed that a language producer’s collocational knowledge constitutes “one important aspect of vocabulary knowledge” (p. 328). There are passive and active vocabularies in our mind. Active vocabularies are much faster than passive vocabularies in recalling when needed. Wu (1996) conducted an empirical study in order to find out whether passive vocabularies could be turned into active vocabularies through the frequent use of lexical collocations, and concluded that a good command of lexical collocations is a useful way to turn passive vocabularies into active ones.

Concerning the relationship between language proficiency and lexical competence a study (Zareva, Schwanenflugel, & Nikolova, 2005) that aimed to determine what features of language were associated with the macrolevel of lexical competence showed that word association increased lexical competence of language producers, and accordingly their L2 proficiency. Likewise, turning back to Nattinger’s study (1980), it is understood that there are some prefabricated phrases and sentences that could be taught in chunks. According to Nattinger, if vocabularies are taught in chunks, a learner could get use of them by expanding their lexicon, which is to say concisely; collocations may assist writers in enhancing their vocabulary fluency and accuracy in L2 by improving communicative functions of language. Similarly, Howarth (1998) made a comparison between native and non-native writers in terms of measuring their language performances. The findings put forth that lexically competent writers internalized collocation successfully, which may be seen as a sign of relation between collocation and lexical competence. In contrast to studies favouring the contribution of collocation, Tekingul (2012) conducted a study to find out whether explicit collocation teaching or single-item vocabulary instruction is more successful on reading comprehension. She reported an inconclusive result, which proved no significant difference between collocation teaching treatment and single-item vocabulary instruction treatment. Though, she did not deny the importance of collocation on vocabulary teaching, but only stressed no superiority regarding the two teaching methods.

The issue of whether lower-level language users had limited knowledge of collocations when compared to higher-level language users was investigated, and it was concluded that language users with lower collocational knowledge demonstrated lower language proficiency when compared to learner with high collocational knowledge (Bonk, 2000). Another study (Nizonkiza, 2011) assessed the relationship between lexical competence, EFL proficiency, and collocational competence. Nizonkiza performed an experiment with 104 freshmen, sophomore, and senior students in total, and the results clearly revealed that lexical competence is a reliable predictor of L2 proficiency and mastery of collocations is found to be related to frequency. To be able to enhance academic performance, and make a voice in the wider community, together with lexical competence, Turner (2004) stressed the importance of improving, what he called, “collocation repertoire” (p. 107). It is understood from Turner’s writings that collocation is at least as much important as other linguistic features in academic prose. An empirical study with a purpose of measuring the direct effect of collocation on English language proficiency by Rahimi and Momeni (2012) showed systematic teaching of collocation could enhance learners’ language proficiency. Cloze tests are generally designed to gauge the general English proficiency of learner due to its large sphere of measuring area ranging from vocabularies and prepositions to basic grammar skills. Whether there was a correlation between collocational competence and cloze test proficiency was investigated (Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007), and statistical analyses yielded a statistically significant difference between performance on
cloze tests and competence of collocation, which may be construed as the effect of collocational knowledge on general English proficiency.

1.5. Collocations, metacognition, and L1 influence

Since Ellis’s (1986) study, L1 influence has always been a factor that should not be kept outdoor while investigating linguistic issues. It is quite common for non-native English speakers to transfer L1 word combinations into target language, which is a major cause of errors in non-native speakers’ language productions (Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). The negative effect of L1 on L2 collocation acquisition was studied by Gabrys-Biskup (1992), and the interference was seen as the prime cause of errors in mis-collocations. A year later, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) argued that non-native speakers of English could convey their L1 collocational knowledge conventions into target language inappropriately. Sadeghi (2009) aimed at discovering whether native language might be an obstacle for non-native speakers in the course of acquiring English collocations and demonstrated that negative transfer of linguistic knowledge of L1 into L2 context was a troublesome issue that must be dealt with immediately. Similarly, Martelli (2006) gathered a group of advanced Italian students of English in order to detect the influence of L1 in L2 lexical collocation use. Unsurprisingly, he corroborated the role of L1 interference in the generation of wrong lexical collocations. Different from other studies, Martelli’s study yielded that certain types of collocation errors are more prone to occurring than others, which carried the issue to a different point. Martelli prompted us to notice that some types of collocations could be affected from L1 influence more than other types of collocations. Martelli’s findings corroborated Li (2005) who detected that verb+noun collocation types are the most common errors while adjective+infinitive errors are the least experienced ones, which proved that not all types of collocations are affected by L1 interference on an equal basis. Another study (Fan, 2009) attempted to have a deeper understanding of collocation usage and problems by adopting a task based approach while analysing British and Honk Kong ESL learners’ written texts. Likewise, apart from absolute L1 influence, the study found that any lexical or grammatical inadequacy in L2 could adversely affect L2 collocation use. Concisely, L1 transfer seems to be an important issue that may affect academic writing negatively, thus should be taken into consideration while creating a word combination.

1.6. Collocation and nativeness

It does not matter whether collocations are associated to “ready-made chunks (Robins, 1967, p. 21)”, or to “mutual expectancy (Zhang, 1993, p. 1)”, they are word combinations that are well-linked in a native speaker’s memory (Aghbar, 1990). According to Fillmore (1979), the proficiency of how to combine words in association with one another is a source of fluency. Therefore, knowledge of collocation undoubtedly brings benefits to non-native writers who desperately long for native fluency in writing.

It is understood that collocations are word combinations that occur in a native speaker’s mind intuitively (Sung, 2003), which refers to a situation occurring without restoring to vocabulary memory purposely but instinctively. The instinctive formation of word combinations in a native speaker’s mind can be attributed to its association with nativeness because there is a strong positive correlation between nativeness and automation on a linguistic component (Nation, 2001). According to Allerton (1984), words in non-native writers’ minds do not co-occur freely; instead they lead to co-occurrence restrictions. Accordingly, Hill (2000) commented on the natural way of word combinations occurring in mind as “within the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally occurring text” (p. 49). Concerning non-native writers’ characterization of collocation fallacies, Korosadowicz-Struzynska (1980) uttered that “errors in the use of word collocations surely add to the foreign flavour in the learner’s speech and writing, and along with his
faulty pronunciation they are the strongest markers of an accent (p. 115).” Similar to all, Stubbs (2001) emphasized that “Native speakers’ unconscious knowledge of collocation is an essential component of their idiomatic and fluent language use and an important part of their communicative competence (p. 73).” Until now, it seems blatantly apparent that the collocation competence differentiates native and non-native speakers from one another (Wouden, 1997; Nation, 2001; Ellis, 2001; Koya, 2006). Due to the fact that knowledge of collocation is an essential component of communicative competence (Partington, 1998) and a source of fluency, non-native writers should aim at gaining the competence of collocation to have native fluency in the target language (Coxhead, 2000; Olson, Scarcella, & Matuchniak, 2013; Sonbul & Schmitt, 2013).

What about if a writer is not a native speaker of the language? Does it make any sense to claim that the competence of collocation is not possible to acquire by non-native writers because it is a skill that is intuitively acquired and used? We know that collocations are ready-made chunks just like other fixed expressions and idioms (Benson, Benson, & Ilson, 1986), and it is possible to teach ready-made chunks, including collocations, to all types of learners (Approach, 1993). Likewise, Wray (2002) claimed that learning formulaic language like collocations through conscious effort is possible. Therefore, any claims that address to impossibility of acquiring collocations must be dismissed because the literature provides the opposite.

1.7. Collocations and native fluency in writing

According to Prodromou (2003), on the path of achieving native-fluency in written productions, the use of collocation is a potential difficulty that non-native writers usually face. Prodromou, like many other researchers, claims that there is a close relationship between collocations and native fluency. Some researchers carried their allegations further, and made experimental and/or theoretical investigations in order to prove the relationship. One of these valuable studies belongs to Martynska (2004) who had a study with a twofold purpose; one of which was to reveal non-native English speakers’ level of collocational competence, and the latter of which was to take attention to the role of collocation in the process of L2 learning. Martynska concluded that the knowledge of how to combine words into chunks efficiently is a compulsory act, and non-native speakers of English are bound to have collocational competence if native-like proficiency is wanted. Furthermore, Martynska reported that “the richer in collocations the learner’s lexicon is, the higher precision, accuracy, coherence and authenticity of his/her speech, which is a perfect way to fluency and proficiency in the language as well as to greater language competence” (p. 11).

Hsu (2007) compared Taiwanese English majors’ and non-English majors’ written texts in order to obtain some insights on how Taiwanese English majors and non-English majors used lexical collocations in their writings. The findings showed a statistically significant correlation between two types of majors in terms of writing scores and frequency of lexical collocations. Furthermore, the analysis put forth a significant correlation between subjects’ online writing scores and their variety of lexical collocations. In other words, diversity and frequency of lexical collocations in an academic paper obtained higher writing scores. Therefore, it can be said that the effect of lexical collocation awareness on writing skill is overwhelming and lexical collocation awareness helps writers have fluency in their writing (cf. Eidian, Gorjian, & Aghvami, 2014).

Brain function is an important process in collocation acquisition. In terms of brain functionality, the processes of learning a collocation involve the same paths as learning a vocabulary. Different from vocabulary, a collocation involves sequences of words that are processed in a more efficient way because single memorized units can be processed more easily and quickly than the same sequences of words that are produced creatively (Pawley & Syder, 1983). Conklin and Schmitt (2008) investigated
the processing of formulaic sequences by comparing reading times for nonformulaic phrases and formulaic sequences of native and non-native speakers of English. The findings showed that nonformulaic phrases were read more slowly than formulaic sequences, which proved that formulaic sequences have a processing advantage. At the end of their study, Conklin and Schmitt advised non-native speakers to get accustomed to formulaic sequences if they want to enjoy the same type of processing advantages as native speakers do.

Having considered playing a significant role in written language (Wei & Lei, 2011), collocations is a must for scholarly writing, and a non-native writer with insufficient collocation knowledge will have difficulties and some infelicities regarding their academic positions while composing a scientific writing. One important problem that could rise due to insufficient collocation knowledge is inappropriate word combinations. McArthur (1992) asserted that a failure to use collocations appropriately is a principal indicator of foreignness in academic texts. Therefore, any inappropriety of collocations, i.e. wrong or weird word combinations may give rise to lack of confidence to writer’s language ability no matter how worthy the content of the writing is. It is difficult for non-native writers to escape seemingly inept and unnatural expressions in their written production without appropriate knowledge of collocation because the knowledge of collocation is critical for L2 writers to be able to have full communicative mastery of English (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993). Therefore, writers who want to improve their writing fluency need to have competence of collocation at a certain extent (Sung, 2003), otherwise they may fall into collocation failures that may adversely affect the language quality of the manuscript.

1.8. The aims of the research

The present study aimed at increasing the awareness towards the importance of collocations in order to have native fluency in academic writing. In line with this, the study aimed at making some suggestions regarding involvement of collocations in academic texts, and creating a practicable list of collocations to be used especially in research articles by non-native writers of English.

2. Methodology

2.1. Data

The corpus was composed of 100 research articles written in English by native speakers of English in the field of ELT. Verification about the nationality of authors was not assured by contacting them in person or through mass communication tools. Author status of nationality was presumed based on the author name and country. The corresponding author was regarded as the writer of article, in which more than one scholar existed, hence the nationality of the corresponding author represented for all other authors in the affiliation.

The articles were selected randomly from 13 SSCI journals publishing in the field of ELT. Each journal provided equal many of articles as shown in the Table 1.
Table 1. The journals that built the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The name of the journal</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Tokens</th>
<th>Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ELT journal</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>219275</td>
<td>5825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Specific Purposes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>65229</td>
<td>3686</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>57565</td>
<td>2788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40254</td>
<td>1801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Learning</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>39221</td>
<td>1855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESOL Quarterly</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36352</td>
<td>1699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Teaching Research</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29424</td>
<td>1252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Second Language Writing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Language Teaching</td>
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<td>First Language</td>
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</tr>
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<td>RELC Journal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Journal of English for Academic Purposes</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>601025</td>
<td>24076</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To ensure the representativeness of the data, a probabilistic sample using simple random sampling technique was used to compile articles, hence to construct the corpora. Probabilistic sample technique refers to a sampling procedure in which “all members of the population have the same probability of being selected” (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011, p. 87).

2.2. Categorization of collocations

The categorization of collocations was made with some minor changes on the categorization of Benson, Benson, &Ilson (1986). Collocations were divided into seven as shown below:

1. Verb + Noun (achieve a purpose)
2. Verb + Adverb/Adjective (become embedded)
3. Noun + Verb (article seeks)
4. Noun + Noun (discussion board)
5. Adjective + Noun (adequate account)
6. Adverb + Adjective (culturally biased)
7. Adverb + verb (continually change)

2.3. Data analysis and procedure

The whole data was manually scanned by the researcher and collocation samples were compiled. Then, the compiled collocations found by the researcher were checked through collocations dictionaries (e.g. Macmillan, Longman, Oxford) in order to affirm the reliability of the researcher. A concordance programme was used to find the pivot words and their frequencies as well as token and type numbers. Each pivot word that was taken from the data was checked through the collocations dictionaries to enhance the number of collocate words. Thanks to the second check many new collocation examples that did not exist in the articles were discovered. For example, in the course of manually scanning a verb + noun collocation i.e. provided evidence was found. Then the pivot word provide was exposed to a second check through collocations dictionaries in order to find more collocate words apart from evidence. The second check enabled us to find more collocate words like insight, opportunity, understanding, care, base etc.
3. Results and Discussions

3.1. Category of verb + noun

According to the findings, this category included 861 word tokens and 400 word types. Four pivot words that were mostly used by Anglophonic writers are respectively make, provide, give, and gain. Some authentic examples including most frequently used pivot words are as follows:

(1) Ellis (1993) argued for the importance of having a grammatical syllabus to make provision for an explicit focus on individual grammatical forms...
(2) The entire departmental teaching staff (n = 28) was then interviewed to provide an insight into the ramifications of context...
(3) It was also given credence by Nation’s...
(4) ELT and its affiliated academic units can gain power through their ability to make money.

3.2. Category of verb + adverb/adjective

This collocation category included 673 tokens and 370 types. The most frequently used pivot words are respectively become, seem, make, and feel. Some examples are those:

(5) ...and even then the frequency is starting to become marginal.
(6) This seems sensible, but despite this, the topic-based focus of many materials means that...
(7) The study findings make clear that...
(8) Still, they feel unsure about how to teach using media and pop culture.

3.3. Category of noun + verb

The results gave relatively small number of tokens (234) and types (100) when compared to other collocation categories. The most frequently used pivot words are study, show, table, and data. The authentic examples regarding the use of these pivot words are as follows:

(9) The present study did not find essays and short tasks to occur frequently.
(10) The data in this way shows that...
(11) Table 1 contains the first nine idea units from her written story...
(12) ... data suggest a partial advantage for one subset of chat output that...

3.4. Category of noun + noun

The category included 406 tokens and 220 types. The pivot words with the highest frequencies are respectively lack, learning, knowledge, and research. The examples are those:

(13) A lack of fluency can have a major impact on the way English can be used...
(14) Learner variables consist of everything the student brings to the learning experience.
(15) ...with effects on the creation and dissemination of knowledge and ideology in the global ideoscape...
(16) ... the interventions in this study were designed to fill the research gap noted by...
3.5. Category of adjective + noun

This category has the highest frequency in both word tokens and word types, 2425; 1066 respectively. *Important, difference, significant,* and *effect* are the pivot words ranked from top to less. The examples for each most frequent pivot words are as follows:

(17) It also emphasizes originality as an **important criterion** for effective response.

(18) The **fundamental differences** between the two types of presentation are discussed in Section 3.

(19) Despite **significant challenges**, such as access to limited hardware and infrastructure...

(20) Findings suggested that grades had **little effect** on student writing...

3.6. Category of adverb + adjective

This is another category heavily used by native writers of English. It was calculated that 684 word tokens and 349 word types were used with top pivot words of *highly, relatively, particularly,* and *quite.* The examples are those:

(21) While such a structure appears to be highly conventional, the difference between this set of materials...

(22) This is a relatively new idea in listening pedagogy and...

(23) The textual data itself suggest that within each stance option, some language resources are particularly popular.

(24) The interaction pattern is quite different in bus driver dialogues.

3.7. Category of adverb + verb

In this category, 555 word tokens and 313 words existed. The most frequently used pivot words are *use, widely, clearly,* and *explicitly.* The examples of pivot words are as follows:

(25) Passive structures were extensively used in the professional corpus...

(26) It is widely argued in EAP that...

(27) ...our findings raise has to do with the need to clearly define the construct that...

(28) ...post-reading tasks explicitly focusing on target words led to better vocabulary learning than...

Table 2 summaries the most used pivot words, and type and token numbers in the categories that have been provided so far.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>861</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>2452</td>
<td>684</td>
<td>555</td>
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<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>1066</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pivot Words</td>
<td>Make</td>
<td>Become</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Lack</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>Highly</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The present study found that native writers of English tend to use low-frequency word combinations as Durrant and Schmitt (2009) reported. When the list of collocations in the appendix was checked, it will be seen that native writers of English used many low-frequency collocations, which is a robust indicator for sounding native in the language because the use of low-frequency collocations instead of repeating high-frequency ones boosts lexical diversity of a writer, and high lexical diversity is as an illuminative predictor of writers’ language competence and an essential indicator of their writing quality (Guoxing, 2009).

4. Conclusion

It is crystal clear that there exists a strong link of interdependence between knowledge of collocation and native-fluency in academic writing according to the literature. Seen in this light, it can assuredly be stated that knowledge of collocation brings invaluable benefits particularly to non-native writers who desperately aspire for fluency in the English language. Because “errors in the use of word collocations surely add to the foreign flavour in the learner’s speech and writing, and along with his faulty pronunciation they are the strongest markers of ‘an accent (Korosadowicz-Struzynska, 1980, p. 115)’”, a miscollocation may lead an academic paper to end up with misery in academe, hence may create infelicities in publishing opportunities.

Even if the acquisition of collocation competence is seen as an intuitive process occurring in mind without any special effort to restore memory on purpose, it was proven that conscious acquisition of collocation knowledge is possible even at the very late stages of life (cf. Approach, 1993; Wray, 2002). In accordance with that, some pedagogical implications were provided as follows in order to offer non-native writers genuine opportunities in the acquisition of collocations and how to involve them in academic writing:

1) Lewis (1997) suggested collocation exercises that may contribute to increase learners’ awareness of collocations. Particularly two exercises may help substantially: matching and de-lexicalised verbs exercises. Matching exercises, the source of which was borrowed from native sentences, could be of utmost benefit. For de-lexicalised verbs exercises, a list of verbs can be noted down (take, make, have, do etc) and their collocate words can be written (a laugh, a smoke, an experience, a trip etc.).

2) Ready-made collocation lists will be of paramount importance for those who desire to expand productive collocation skills. The list presented in the appendix A kindly submitted to the service for specifically non-native writers or those who are already in the need of enhancing their native-fluency in writing.

3) To avoid producing inappropriate or odd collocations, some exercises should be done to improve collocational behaviour of synonyms; that is, which synonym associates well with a collocate word. For example two synonyms verbs join and attend are used with different collocates; join a club, join the army, attend a class, attend a meeting etc. Therefore, what should be kept in mind is that even exact synonyms have different collocate words, and they cannot be used interchangeably (Liu, 2000).

4) Translation is also an effective practice for the acquisition of collocations. However, the point that should be cared extensively is to do translations as “collocation to collocation” (Newmark, 1988, p. 69) or “chunk-for-chunk” (Lewis, 1997, p.62) instead of word-for-word translation.

5) Using a collocation dictionary may help improve collocation competence subconsciously. Nearly all prominent publishers have collocation dictionaries at different proficiency levels. In addition,
online-collocation dictionaries may also be helpful by way of calling the required information quicker than conventional hardcopy dictionaries.

6) Some on-going computational approaches that are able to detect collocation errors can be of paramount importance for particularly novice-writers. Those who are in such a need should stay tuned in up-to-date literature (cf. Futagi, Deane, Chodorow, & Tetreault, 2008; Chang, Chang, Chen, & Liou, 2008).

7) Collocation attainment can be supported via digital library works (Wu, Franken, & Witten, 2010). A digital library has distinctive advantages when compared to other conventional initiatives. Firstly, it provides a great amount of authentic sources to access free of charge. Secondly, they are fast and accessible all over the world with no or partial restriction. The studies in the linguistic literature proved that collocations are intuitive, yet they can be learned sizeably through extensive reading (Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013). One thing to mind is that reading types such as skimming or scanning are likely to cause overlooking word combinations; therefore critical reading is required not to miss good collocation samples.

8) It is indicated that any failure in non-native writers’ competence of collocation is due to inadequate input (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010). Seen in this light, data-driven studies and web-sites (e.g. BNC or COCA) may greatly help non-native writers with endless authentic examples and well-ordered data submission features. Data-driven learning is claimed to be robustly effective in acquisition of native-like collocation knowledge (Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). When compared to digital libraries, corpora websites are easier to use and get what you look for. Furthermore, data-driven learning works can be accessed easily on various databases.

9) One challenge for non-native writer of English is L1 interference. In order not to be seen foreign or odd to the audience, the writer should check his/her newly used word combinations. What is understood from the literature is that it is highly possible the writer may associate words similar in his/her native language. Therefore, to get rid of L1 negative transfer, the newly constructed word combinations should be checked through collocation dictionaries or authentic samples in corpora to justify whether they are in agreement with native-use.

10) Different from conventional suggestions, Cowie and Howarth (1999) considered that the collocational competence is not likely to develop through massive exposure to or repeated use of collocations. For them, familiarization with collocations or possible collocational competence is supposed to come about through writers’ gradual growing perception of idiosyncratic properties. Therefore, idiomatic expressions are important like other formulaic expressions.

11) Concordancing activities can increase collocation competence of non-native writers of English (Yoon, 2008).

5. Suggestions for Further Research

Durrant and Schmitt (2009) suggested that claims concerning indeterminacy of non-native writers’ collocation and formulaicity are a problematic issue requiring to be solved immediately and Durrant and Schmitt found that non-native writers depended heavily on high-frequency collocations than less frequent ones that are decidedly salient for native writers. However, “Unfortunately, the high percentage of appropriate collocations does not mean that non-native writers of English necessarily develop fully native-like knowledge of collocation (Siyanova and Schmitt, 2008, p. 429)”, which means that using high frequency and strongly associated word combinations is not sufficient to be seen native-like; i.e. non-native speakers should also use less frequent collocations to have native-like
writing flair (cf. Durrant & Schmitt, 2009). Therefore, a study that investigates why non-native writers have a tendency on low-frequency collocations will be of importance to gain an insight on the issue and to find ways of encouraging non-native writers to use low-frequency collocations.

The present study created a list of collocations to be used primarily in ELT. A study that will construct new lists of collocations may also be helpful for non-native writers writing in other fields. Moreover, grammatical collocations are also one of two collocation types being widely used in linguistics (Granger & Paquot, 2008) but this study only created a list of lexical collocations. Therefore, a list of grammatical collocations may offer generous contribution.

References


Allerton, D. J. (1984). Three (or four) levels of word co-occurrence restriction. Lingua, 63:17-40.


Appendix A
Collocations List

VERB + NOUN

1. Achieve aims
2. Achieve goal
3. Achieve purpose
4. Add interest
5. Add weight
6. Adopt a methodology
7. Adopt a stance
8. Affect performance
9. Allocate resource
10. Allow acquisition
11. Appeal for assistance
12. Ask question
13. Ask clarification
14. Assure confidentiality
15. Attend class
16. Attend conference
17. Attend school
18. Attract attention
19. Avoid confusion
20. Avoid loss
21. Avoid overuse
22. Avoid problem
23. Become a focus
24. Become (active) agents
25. Become commonplace
26. Become example
27. Boost confidence
28. Borrow technique
29. Bridge the gap
30. Build a connection
31. Build confidence
32. Build corpus
33. Build up understanding
34. Call attention
35. Capture insight
36. Capture relationship
37. Challenge views
38. Change roles
39. Claim authority
40. Clarify uncertainties
41. Collect information
42. Complete task
43. Complete test
44. Compile a corpus (of)
45. Compose a response
46. Conduct a study
47. Conduct an investigation
48. Construct corpora
49. Convey a message
50. Correct error
51. Create an image
52. Create demand
53. Create interest
54. Create opportunity
55. Create possibility
56. Create tension
57. Cut off conversation
58. Demonstrate a benefit
59. Demonstrate a concern
60. Demonstrate a desire
61. Demonstrate evidence
62. Demonstrate variability
63. Desire attention
64. Devalue the content
65. Develop a persona
66. Develop awareness
67. Develop idea
68. Develop insight
69. Develop skill
70. Develop strategy
71. Display familiarity
72. Display similarity
73. Draw attention
74. Draw a distinction
75. Draw conclusion
76. Edit message
77. Effect a change
78. Effect an upheaval
79. Enable generalization
80. Encourage compliance
81. Enter the university
82. Ensure consistency
83. Ensure safety
84. Entail a shift
85. Eradicate dissatisfaction
86. Espouse ideas
87. Establish a link
88. Establish authority
89. Establish groundwork
90. Examine correlation
91. Examine problems
92. Exchange farewell
93. Exchange greetings
94. Exchange ideas
95. Exchange information
96. Exhibit a tendency
97. Experience a shift
98. Experience confusion
99. Experience difficulty
100. Exploit benefits
101. Express emotion
102. Express opinion
103. Extend discussion
104. Extract information
105. Face challenge
106. Face difficulty
107. Facilitate acquisition
108. Feel gap
109. Feel guilty
110. Feel need
111. Fill gap
112. Fill out questionnaire
113. Find a benefit
114. Find challenging
115. Find correlation
116. Find opportunity
117. Focus on target
118. Form a basis (for)
119. Foster acquisition
120. Foster learning
121. Furnish information
122. Gain acceptance
123. Gain an overview
124. Gain appreciation
125. Gain ascendance
126. Gain confidence
127. Gain control
128. Gain flexibility
129. Gain ground
130. Gain insight
131. Gain inspiration
132. Gain perspective
133. Gain popularity
134. Gain power
135. Gain recognition
136. Gain resource
137. Gain support
138. Gain understanding
139. Gauge development
140. Generate understanding
141. Get grade
142. Give access
143. Give attention
144. Give confidence
145. Give credence
146. Give credit
147. Give evidence
148. Give experience
149. Give feedback
150. Give freedom
151. Give indication
152. Give insight
153. Give opportunity
154. Give order
155. Give outline
156. Give permission
157. Give security
158. Give thought
159. Give voice
160. Give weight
161. Outline guideline
162. Have a provenance
163. Have a tendency
164. Have an impact
165. Have confidence
166. Have difficulty
167. Have experience
168. Have limitation
169. Have merit
| 170. | Have opportunity | 230. | Make request | 290. | Provide details |
| 171. | Have trouble | 231. | Make sense | 291. | Provide definition |
| 174. | Identify changes | 234. | Meet (certain) criteria | 294. | Provide discussion |
| 175. | Identify words | 235. | Meet desiderate | 295. | Provide evidence |
| 176. | Illustrate benefits | 236. | Merit a position | 296. | Provide example |
| 177. | Improve pronunciation | 237. | Merit attention | 297. | Provide feedback |
| 178. | Incentivize collaboration | 238. | Miss opportunity | 298. | Provide information |
| 179. | Increase confidence | 239. | Motivate learning | 299. | Provide input |
| 180. | Intensify demand | 240. | Narrow the gap | 300. | Provide insight |
| 181. | Interpret meaning | 241. | Need attention | 301. | Provide opportunity |
| 182. | Invest effort | 242. | Need support | 302. | Prove problematic |
| 184. | Justify an evaluation | 244. | Obscure difference | 304. | Provide response |
| 185. | Lack access | 245. | Offer evidence | 305. | Provide service |
| 186. | Lack authenticity | 246. | Offer insight | 306. | Provide support |
| 188. | Lack competence | 248. | Offer solution | 308. | Provide view |
| 189. | Lack depth | 249. | Offer suggestion | 309. | Put an effort |
| 190. | Lead to scepticism | 250. | Offer support | 310. | Raise awareness |
| 191. | Lend credence | 251. | Offer window | 311. | Raise concern |
| 192. | Lend weight | 252. | Obscure information | 312. | Raise doubts |
| 193. | Lessen impact | 253. | Open up discussion | 313. | Raise interest |
| 194. | Limit progress | 254. | Open up space | 314. | Raise possibility |
| 195. | Load baggage | 255. | Overlook errors | 315. | Raise question |
| 196. | Make a claim | 256. | Pay attention | 316. | Raise standard |
| 197. | Make a comparison | 257. | Pilot an activity | 317. | Reach a point |
| 198. | Make a difference | 258. | Play a part | 318. | Reach an agreement |
| 199. | Make a distinction | 259. | Play role | 319. | Receive attention |
| 200. | Make a decision | 260. | Pose a challenge | 320. | Receive feedback |
| 201. | Make agreement | 261. | Pose a problem | 321. | Receive instruction |
| 202. | Make an effort | 262. | Pose question | 322. | Receive knowledge |
| 203. | Make argument | 263. | Present challenges | 323. | Reduce pressure |
| 204. | Make attempt | 264. | Present challenges | 324. | Repair errors |
| 206. | Make change | 266. | Produce evidence | 326. | Require attention |
| 207. | Make choice | 267. | Promote a sense (of) | 327. | Require (detailed) research |
| 208. | Make clear | 268. | Promote development | 328. | Require substantiation |
| 209. | Make comment | 269. | Promote engagement | 329. | Resolve a problem |
| 210. | Make comparison | 270. | Promote learning | 330. | Reveal difference |
| 211. | Make connection | 271. | Propose a solution | 331. | See a growth |
| 212. | Make contribution | 272. | Propose desiderata | 332. | See emergence |
| 213. | Make correction | 273. | Provide a basis | 333. | Seek permission |
| 214. | Make decision | 274. | Provide a foundation | 334. | Serve (as a) backup |
| 215. | Make effort | 275. | Provide a framework | 335. | Serve (as a) baseline |
| 216. | Make error | 276. | Provide a snapshot (of) | 336. | Serve (as a) buffer |
| 217. | Make gains | 277. | Provide access | 337. | Serve food |
| 218. | Make generalisation | 278. | Provide advantageous | 338. | Set a foundation |
| 221. | Make investigation | 281. | Provide an example | 341. | Share experience |
| 222. | Make judgements | 282. | Provide an impetus (for) | 342. | Share ideas |
| 223. | Make mistake | 283. | Provide an overview | 343. | Share interest |
| 224. | Make notes | 284. | Provide assistant | 344. | Shed light |
| 227. | Make promise | 287. | Provide complete picture | 347. | Show benefit |
| 228. | Make provision | 288. | Provide data | 348. | Show interest |
| 229. | Make recording | 289. | Provide database | 349. | Show evidence |
350. Show results
351. Show sensitivity
352. Show tendency
353. Solve problem
354. Stimulate knowledge
355. Stimulate learning
356. Spark controversy
357. Stand a chance
358. Support claim
359. Take a stance
360. Take a test
361. Take a view
362. Take advantage
363. Take notes
364. Take position
365. Take responsibility
366. Take risk
367. Take up life
368. Trigger a change
369. Trigger biases
370. Uncover differences
371. Uncover similarities
372. Understand difficulties
373. Unload baggage
374. Unravel complexities
375. Use knowledge
376. View as burden
377. Welcome a possibility
378. Wield influence
379. Worth consideration
380. Worth (the) effort
381. Worth asking
382. Worth noting
383. Yield a result
384. Yield outcome

VERB + ADVERB / ADJECTIVE

1. Add greatly
2. Addressed peripherally
3. Adopt quickly
4. Affect profoundly
5. Analyze qualitatively
6. Appear crucial
7. Appear frequently
8. Appear important
9. Apply primarily
10. Ask directly
11. Attend close
12. Become adept
13. Become apparent
14. Become attuned
15. Become autonomous
16. Become aware
17. Become boring
18. Become clear
19. Become common
20. Become complex
21. Become concrete
22. Become confident
23. Become contested
24. Become effective
25. Become embedded
26. Become essential
27. Become evident
28. Become familiar
29. Become fluent
30. Become fragmented
31. Become important
32. Become independent
33. Become interested
34. Become interesting
35. Become known
36. Become major
37. Become marginal
38. Become prevalent
39. Become proficient
40. Become sensitized
41. Become sophisticated
42. Become specific
43. Become tolerant
44. Become topical
45. Calculate separately
46. Carry out intensively
47. Change fundamentally
48. Change radically
49. Check carefully
50. Check manually
51. Choose evenly
52. Clearly illustrate
53. Close improperly
54. Code separately
55. Come close
56. Comment positively
57. Communicate effectively
58. Communicate orally
59. Communicate successfully
60. Compete globally
61. Complete accurately
62. Compose concisely
63. Compose quickly
64. Concentrate strictly
65. Conduct independently
66. Consider briefly
67. Considered appropriate
68. Consult independently
69. Construct meaning
70. Contrast strikingly
71. Contribute little
72. Contribute positively
73. Correct consistently
74. Correlate significantly
75. Correlate strongly
76. Deal effectively
77. Decrease dramatically
78. Deem acceptable
79. Deemed appropriate
80. Deemed important
81. Delve deeply
82. Depend heavily (on)
83. Develop naturally
84. Developed unexpectedly
85. Differ considerably
86. Differ markedly
87. Differ significantly
88. Disregard strongly
89. Discuss directly
90. Discuss individually
91. Discuss intensively
92. Do better
93. Do well
94. Drop precipitously
95. Drop substantially
96. Elaborate extensively
97. Evidence (no) interest (in)
98. Evolve strongly
99. Examine carefully
100. Examine closely
101. Explore extensively
102. Express explicitly
103. Express independently
104. Express orally
105. Fail short
106. Fare better
107. Fare well
108. Feel challenged
109. Feel comfortable
110. Feel confident
111. Feel confused
112. Feel encouraged
113. Feel enormous
114. Feel inclined
115. Feel isolated
116. Feel motivated
117. Feel overwhelmed
118. Feel similarly
119. Feel proud
120. Feel uncomfortable
121. Feel unsure
122. Find challenging
123. Find difficult
124. Find easy
125. Find helpful
126. Find necessary
127. Find sparingly
128. Find useful
129. Find valuable
130. Fit neatly
131. Fit well
132. Flow naturally
133. Flow uninterruptedly
134. Focus exclusively
135. Focus explicitly
136. Focus mainly
137. Focus predominantly
138. Focus primarily
139. Found predominantly
140. Function differently
141. Grow rapidly
142. Go away
143. Go further
144. Guess correctly
145. Hold potential
146. Hold true
147. Impact positively
148. Impact significantly
149. Implement effectively
150. Improve firmly
151. Improve substantially
152. Indicate clearly
153. Indicate verbally
154. Influence inappropriately
155. Keep current
156. Keep occupied
157. Link directly
158. Look carefully (into)
159. Look closely (at)
160. Look deeply (into)
161. Make accessible
162. Make apparent
163. Make arduous
164. Make attainable
165. Make available
166. Make better
167. Make briefly
168. Make certain
169. Make clear
170. Make comfortable
171. Make concise
172. Make covert
173. Make difficult
174. Make explicit
175. Make feasible
176. Make impossible
177. Make overt
178. Make possible
179. Make realistic
180. Make untenable
181. Make visible
182. Measure rigorously
183. Merit additional research
184. Move simultaneously
185. Navigate successfully
186. Negotiate explicitly
187. Negotiate implicitly
188. Occur frequently
189. Occur instantaneously
190. Occur often
191. Occur significantly
192. Occur spontaneously
193. Operate effectively
194. Operate independently
195. Participate effectively
196. Participate voluntarily
197. Pay particular attention
198. Perform better
199. Perform extensively
200. Perform highly
201. Perform poorly
202. Perform well
203. Portray comprehensively
204. Portray transparently
205. Post regularly
206. Predict accurately
207. Present effectively
208. Present orally
209. Present persuasively
210. Pronounced differently
211. Prove (to be) effective
212. Prove (to be) efficient
213. Prove (to be) sure
214. Prove fruitful
215. Prove impossible
216. Prove (to be) useful
217. Provide potential (for)
218. Provide profitable (over)
219. Put differently
220. Rate equally
221. Read silently
222. Record alphabetically
223. Rely exclusively (on)
224. Rely heavily (on)
225. Remain accessible
226. Remain consistently
227. Remain imperfect
228. Remain opaque
229. Remain similar
230. Remain strong
231. Remain unanswered
232. Remain unchanged
233. Remain unclear
234. Remain undecided
235. Remind regularly
236. Report explicitly
237. Respond freely
238. Respond physically
239. Respond verbally
240. Review critically
241. Run counter
242. Seem achievable
243. Score better
244. Seem common
245. Seem competent
246. Seem conclusive
247. Seem desirable
248. Seem feasible
249. Seem intuitive
250. Seem largely
251. Seem likely
252. Seem minor
253. Seem obvious
254. Seem pertinent
255. Seem plausible
256. Seem prudent
257. Seem reasonable
258. Seem relevant
259. Seem sensible
260. Seem sensitive
261. Seem similar
262. Seem undesirable
263. Seem unexpected
264. Seem uninteresting
265. Seem unreasonable
266. Seem unsure
267. Select randomly
268. Set to stepwise
269. Shift dramatically
270. Sit uncomfortably (with)
271. Sound better
272. Sound positive
273. Speak correctly
274. Speak fluently
275. Speak freely
276. Speak openly
277. Speak positively
278. Speak profusely
279. Spoken informally
280. Stay connected
281. Stem largely (from)
282. Submit electronically
283. Suggest alternative
284. Take further
285. Take part voluntarily
286. Take place incidentally
287. Take seriously
288. Talk enthusiastically
289. Teach explicitly
290. Think consciously
291. Think critically
292. Think deeply
293. Think longitudinally
294. Think nonlinearly
295. Translate quickly
296. Trigger new idea
297. Use correctly
298. Use effectively
299. Use heavily
300. Use inappropriately
301. Use independently
302. Use indiscriminately
303. Use inductively
304. Used frequently
305. Used subsequently
306. Used variably
307. Utilize successfully
308. Vary greatly
309. Vary significantly
310. Vary widely
311. View effectively
312. Viewed differently
313. Wish fervently
314. Work autonomously
315. Work collaboratively
316. Work creatively
317. Work independently
318. Work individually
319. Work together
NOUN + VERB

1. Analyses indicate
2. Analyses show
3. Article describe
4. Article discuss
5. Article examine
6. Article focus
7. Article present
8. Article report
9. Article seek
10. Article suggest
11. Attempt to achieve
12. Change to practise
13. Concern arise
14. Data consist
15. Data elicit
16. Data indicate
17. Data provide
18. Data reveal
19. Data show
20. Data suggest
21. Data were analyzed
22. Data were collected
23. Desire to interact
24. Difference were found
25. Evidence exist
26. Evidence suggest
27. Evidence support
28. Figure illustrate
29. Figure indicate
30. Figure represent
31. Figure show
32. Findings demonstrate
33. Findings find
34. Findings indicate
35. Findings reveal
36. Findings show
37. Findings suggest
38. Findings support
39. Investigation describe
40. Issues to consider
41. Lack of knowledge
42. Learning environment
43. Literature propose
44. Literature reveal
45. Literature show
46. Literature suggest
47. Misunderstanding occur
48. Need to communicate
49. Need to go
50. Need to help
51. Paper consider
52. Paper examines
53. Paper report
54. Paper summarize
55. Program design
56. Question arise
57. Report claim
58. Report confirm
59. Research show
60. Results demonstrate
61. Results determine
62. Results enable
63. Results give
64. Results indicate
65. Result provide
66. Results reveal
67. Results show
68. Results suggest
69. Story reveal
70. Studies prove
71. Study address
72. Study aim
73. Study analyze
74. Study attempt
75. Study combine
76. Study compare
77. Study contribute
78. Study demonstrate
79. Study employ
80. Study examine
81. Study explore
82. Study find
83. Study focus
84. Study give
85. Study intend
86. Study investigate
87. Study look at
88. Study mark
89. Study provide
90. Study raise
91. Study report
92. Study reveal
93. Study set out
94. Study show
95. Study suggest
96. Study use
97. Study was conducted
98. Survey reveal
99. Survey show
100. Table compare
101. Table contain
102. Table include
103. Table shed light on
104. Table show
105. Table summarize
106. Table present
107. Table provide
108. Table represent
109. Table reveal

NOUN + NOUN

1. Access information
2. Achievement gap
3. Assessment criteria
4. Blanket statement
5. Book review
6. Capstone experience
7. Case of death
8. Case of life
9. Catering staff
10. Chance of success
11. (in) Class use
12. Composing process
13. Conference attendance
14. Consent form
15. Context cue
16. Correction of error
17. Construing meaning
18. Construing reality
19. Curriculum development
20. Data analysis
21. Data collection
22. Data description
23. Decision-making process
24. Developmental opportunities
25. Development study
26. Devoid of originality
27. Discourse community
28. Discussion board
29. Dissemination of knowledge
30. Education reform
31. Effect size
32. Effect value
33. Equipment failure
34. Error correction
35. Error detection
36. Feeling of insecurity
37. Feeling of isolation
38. Feeling of unease
39. Frequency of occurrence
40. Future success
41. Gender difference
42. Hallmark of data
43. Harbinger of change
44. Head start
45. Home discipline
46. Humanist orientation
47. Identity construction
48. Importance of repetition
49. Information retrieval
50. Input flood
51. Intend of study
52. Key to understanding
53. Knowledge source
54. Lack of awareness
55. Lack of clarity
56. Lack of competence
57. Lack of confidence
58. Lack of credibility
59. Lack of evidence
60. Lack of exposure
ADJECTIVE + NOUN

1. Absolute growth
2. Absolute learning
3. Abstract meaning
4. Academic affairs
5. Academic communication
6. Academic community
7. Academic development
8. Academic literacy
9. Academic prestige
10. Academic rigor
11. Academic setting
12. Academic success
13. Academic text
14. Academic values
15. Academic writing
16. Acceptable errors
17. Acceptable level
18. Accurate assessment
19. Acquisitional benefits
20. Active role
21. Actual role
22. Added value
23. Additional attention
24. Additional benefit
25. Additional factors
26. Additional help
27. Additional information
28. Additional instruction
29. Additional work
30. Additive revision
31. Adequate account
32. Adequate data
33. Administrative efficiency
34. Adult learner
35. Advantageous positions
36. Adversarial aspect
37. Adverse experience
38. Adverse impact
39. Affective factors
40. Agitated passengers
41. Agreed solution
42. Alternative applications
43. Alternative perspective
44. Amalgamated corpora
45. Ambiguous idea
46. Ambiguous notion
47. Ample evidence
48. Ample opportunity
49. Analytic insights
50. Anecdotal evidence
51. Anecdotal observation
52. Annual conference
53. Antagonistic question
54. Apparent discrepancy
55. Apparent growth
56. Apparent reluctance
57. Appealing idea
58. Applied science
59. Ardent support
60. Arduous challenge
61. Attainable goal
62. Attentional span
63. Attentive observation
64. Attractive feature
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1175. Valuable insight
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1177. Valuable step forward
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1179. Value-laden behaviour
1180. Vanishing point
1181. (at) varying levels
1182. Vast literature
1183. Verbal fluency
1184. Vexing question
1185. Viable alternatives
1186. Viable tool
1187. Violated rule
1188. Virtual environment
1189. Visual cue
1190. Vital assumption
1191. Vital clues
1192. Vital role
1193. Vocabulary knowledge
1194. Weak impact
1195. Welcome outcome
1196. Widespread belief
1197. Widespread popularity
1198. Widespread resistance
1199. Widespread use
1200. Wired world
1201. Wildly-held beliefs
1202. Wired world
1203. Working memory
1204. World-wide interest
1205. Worrisome feature
1206. Worthwhile experience
1207. Written feedback
1208. Wrong answer
1209. Zero relevance

**ADVERB + ADJECTIVE**

1. Admittedly problematic
2. Adversely impact
3. Apparently beneficial
4. Arguably beneficial
5. Barely adequate
6. Barely coherent
7. Barely perceptible
8. Broadly applicable
9. Broadly confident
10. Broadly contrasting
11. Broadly representative
12. Centrally concerned
13. Certainly possible
14. Certainly problematic
15. Clearly adept
16. Clearly crucial
17. Clearly defined
18. Clearly evident
19. Clearly important
20. Clearly impossible
21. Clearly impractical
22. Clearly interpretable
23. Clearly specify
24. Clearly useful
25. Closely associated
26. Closely connected
27. Closely interconnected
28. Closely linked
29. Closely related
30. Cognitively challenging
31. Cognitively complex
32. Cognitively mature
33. Cognitively salient
34. Commonly known
35. Comparatively weaker
36. Completely appropriate
37. Completely comfortable
38. Completely discrete
39. Completely familiar
40. Completely free
41. Completely irrelevant
42. Completely negative
43. Completely positive
44. Completely wrong
45. Conceptually plausible
46. Conceptually simple
47. Concisely written
48. Considerably different
49. Considerable harder
50. Considerably weak
51. Consistently higher
52. Constantly changing
53. Contextually clear
54. Conventionally construed
55. Critically important
56. Culturally appropriate
57. Culturally biased
58. Culturally bond
59. Culturally different
60. Culturally distinct
61. Culturally familiar
62. Culturally sensitive
63. Culturally unfamiliar
64. Culturally variable
65. Daily routine
66. Descriptively real
67. Diametrically opposed
68. Directly related
69. Directly relevant
70. Directly transferable
71. Distantly related
72. Doubtlessly important
73. Dramatically different
74. Easily accessible
75. Easily definable
76. Easily forgotten
77. Easily replicable
78. Easily understandable
79. Economically disadvantaged
80. Effectively develop
81. Entirely new
82. Entirely plausible
83. Entirely unexpected
84. Equally challenging
85. Equally complex
86. Equally effective
87. Equally important
88. Equally sized
89. Equally well
90. Especially helpful
91. Especially important
92. Especially interesting
93. Especially notable
94. Especially true
95. Essentially practical
96. Explicitly present
97. Extremely attractive
98. Extremely common
99. Extremely controversial
100. Extremely difficult
101. Extremely frequent
102. Extremely helpful
103. Extremely high
104. Extremely small
105. Extremely successful
106. Extremely useful
107. Fairly efficient
108. Fairly experienced
109. Fairly straightforward
110. Freely available
ADVERB + VERB
1. Actively encourage
2. Actively engage
3. Actively impact
4. Actively involved
5. Actively select
6. Actively transform
7. Actually do
8. Additionally propose
9. Additionally suggest
10. Adversely impact
11. Always change
12. Appropriately apply
13. Apparently err on
14. Arguably apply
15. Better understand
16. Briefly attempt
17. Briefly discuss
18. Briefly examine
19. Briefly review
20. Briefly summarize
21. Broadly speak
22. Broadly think
23. Carefully analyzed
24. Carefully compile
25. Carefully controlled
26. Carefully define
27. Carefully design
28. Carefully edit
29. Certainly worth
30. Chronologically determine
31. Clearly align with
32. Clearly define
33. Clearly express
34. Clearly illustrate
35. Clearly indicate
36. Clearly intend
37. Clearly need
38. Closely aligned with
39. Closely examine
40. Closely follow
41. Cognitively engage
42. Collaboratively work
43. Commonly assume
44. Commonly believed
45. Commonly occur
46. Commonly used
47. Comprehensively integrate
48. Consistently apply
49. Consistently attend
50. Conspicuously dominated
51. Constantly alter
52. Constantly change
53. Constantly evolve
54. Continually change
55. Continually shift
56. Correctly classify
57. Correctly identify
58. Correctly use
59. Critically depend on
60. Critically evaluate
61. Currently occupy
62. Currently represent
63. Deeply steeped
64. Definitely worth
65. Deliberately ignore
66. Deliberately place
67. Deliberately try
68. Depend entirely (on)
69. Directly examine
70. Directly explain
71. Directly impact
72. Directly involved
73. Directly observe
74. Directly reflect
75. Easily describe
76. Easily forget
77. Easily guess
78. Effectively manage
79. Effectively teach
80. Elegantly challenge
81. Erroneously assume
82. Erroneously written
83. Exclusively focus
84. Explicitly address
85. Explicitly describe
86. Explicitly distinguish
87. Explicitly explain
88. Explicitly introduce
89. Explicitly represent
90. Explicitly say
91. Extensively develop
92. Extensively research
93. Extensively use
94. Fiercely resist
95. Frequently cited
96. Frequently imply
97. Frequently mention
98. Frequently occur
99. Frequently use
100. Fully assess
101. Fully comprehend
102. Fully establish
103. Fully exploit
104. Fully focus
105. Fully understand
106. Fully warrant
107. Fundamentally alter
108. Further developed
109. Further discuss
110. Further reveal
111. Generally accepted
112. Generally believed
113. Generally considered
114. Generally illustrate
115. Generally seen
116. Generally view
117. Generally use
118. Gradually build up
119. Gradually decrease
120. Gradually learn
121. Gradually wear (thin)
122. Graphically represented
123. Greatly affect
124. Greatly favor
İngilizce yazılan akademik metinlerde sözcük birliği

Öz

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kelime bazlı eşdizim; sözcük eşdizimi; anadilde akıcılık; akademik yazım

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