Collocations with mind in Corpus and Implications for Language Teaching

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Abstract

Problem Statement: Collocations are frequent constructions that pertain to the level of language between the lexicon and grammar. In order to reach advanced proficiency levels and to communicate effectively and fluently, foreign language learners must acquire the knowledge of numerous collocations. However, it is observed in the literature that even advanced learners have problems in using correct collocations, especially with verb-noun collocations. It is, therefore, important for learners to be frequently exposed to collocations.

Purpose of Study: This study aims at finding out whether the degree of frequency of verb-noun collocations with *mind* in naturally-occuring English data is represented in textbook materials (TeMa corpus) and two widely used advanced grammar textbooks. In additon, potential problems in learning collocations are discussed and solutions are sought.

Method: Since the role of frequency in learning collocations is significant, a corpus-based analysis of *mind* collocations in L1 data and their functional analysis are given and then the frequency of these collocations are compared to the collocations attested in advanced level textbooks. Since collocations in textbooks are sparse, a quantitative analysis cannot be conducted.

Results: The analysis reveals that collocations found in the English native speaker corpus are not represented in terms of frequency and diversity in advanced level textbooks under investigation. It was also found that the most frequent collocations used are conceptual metaphors. For this reason, they can be understood by learners via evoking concepts of experience. Nevertheless, learners may encounter problems in productive skills such as speaking and writing. Due to this, they may require special attention.

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Conclusions and Recommendations: Textbooks seem to lack a consistent focus on collocations under investigation. Moreover, they may forego presenting some most frequent collocations; while including the rarest and marginal ones. Corpus-based studies such as this one can shed light on such inconsistencies and have implications for pedagogical grammar and language teaching practice.

Keywords: collocations, restricted and idiomatic collocations, idioms, metaphors, teaching English, corpus studies, significance of frequency of input in language learning

Collocations have a significant role in foreign language instruction: Collocations form a very large body of a language both in written and spoken modes (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999; Brazil, 1995; Leech, Rayson & Wilson, 2001). Approximately 70% of London-Lund English corpus contains collocations (Altenberg, 1991). Learners must learn collocations to attain high levels of proficiency and to communicate effectively and fluently. Bizarre and unconventional word combinations sound non-native-like and may even cause communication break-down. Therefore, the importance of collocations is beyond question. In order to make effective learning and teaching suggestions, it is necessary to understand the frequency and variety of collocations by native speakers in English corpus.

In this study, the nature and types collocations are discussed in the next section followed by a section on how they are processed and learned. Then, a frequency investigation of some selected collocations in the COCA corpus with *mind* is given and they are compared with those found in TeMa corpus and two advanced grammar textbooks. This is followed by some pedagogical implications. In the last section, conclusions and suggestions for further research are given.

Collocations

Collocations are recurrent combinations of two or more words. These word combinations have been referred to with different terms: Holophrases (Corder, 1973), prefabricated routines and patterns (Hakuta, 1974), formulaic speech (Wong-Fillmore, 1976); formulas (R. Ellis, 1994); lexical patterns (Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Hoey, 1991), lexical phrases (Nattinger & De Carrico, 1992), set phrases or phrasemes (Mel'čuk, 1998), lexical bundles[i] (for similar, but not identical, constructions by Biber, et.al 1991). The term 'collocation' was coined by the British linguist J.R. Firth (1957) and has attracted attention to the present day. Collocations have been widely studied by British linguists who followed the Firthian view of collocations (Sinclair, 1991) and by Russian linguists under the term of phraseology (Mel'čuk, 1998). Research within the framework of usage-based theories in linguistics like Construction

Grammar has emphasized the significance of collocations, which are a kind of constructions. Constructions are any linguistic units that constitute form-meaning pairs (Fillmore, Kay & O'Connor, 1988). Native speakers are intuitively aware of collocations and idioms in their language and unconventional combinations; they can detect unconventional collocations in the speech of non-native speakers.

Classification of Collocations

Collocations can be free or restricted. Free collocations allow flexible choice of words in one or more slots. For example, the verb *eat* can collocate with a variety of Noun Phrases: *eat bread/ cake/ a sandwich,* etc. These are examples of free collocations as the object of the verb may change quite freely so long as it denotes something edible. Free collocations are very loose and form semantically transparent phrases; their meanings are interpreted from the meanings of its parts. Therefore, they can be used and understood without much difficulty once the learner has learnt the form and meaning of separate words. Free collocations, therefore, involve vocabulary knowledge rather than that of whole units. This, however, does not mean that mastery of vocabulary is an easy task. The learner must know various aspects of a word, its form, its meaning, and the contexts in which it can be used. For example, the verb *cause,* simple though as it may seem, has negative connotations that learners may not be aware of (Hoey, 1991). Therefore, *he caused an accident* is appropriate, while *he caused my happiness* is strange. Such subtle meaning differences must be considered in language instruction. Sentences like *he put his students down* and *he put his suitcases down* are structurally similar. However, put *down* forms a collocation in the former sentence but not in the latter (Greenbaum, 1974, p.81). This type of vocabulary knowledge must be included in language classrooms.

Apart from free collocations, Cowie (1994) three other categories: Rrestricted collocations (*jog one's memory*), figurative idioms (*close ranks:* members of a group that support each other in the face of criticism from outside) and pure idioms (*kick the bucket:* die). Restricted collocations are specialized, as in the Verb-Preposition phrase *eat in* is restricted and it always means *eating at home;* while *eat somebody alive* (to criticize someone very angirily) is metaphoric and the meaning of the collocation cannot be computed from the meaning of its parts. These types of collocations are highly conventionalized and form frequent combinations. These types of collocations form fixed and semi-fixed complex items which are treated as complex whole units due to semantic and pragmatic reasons According to (Moon, 1998). Table (1) illustrates a classifaction of collocations based on Cowie (1981, 1994) and Howarth (1998):

Table 1

Types of Collocations

	Free collocation	Restricted collocation	Idiomatic collocation	Pure idioms
Definition	Combination of words where all words are used in their literal sense Words can be substituted without much difficulty	Combination of words where one component is used literally, the other is conventionalized and can be figurative or technical	Combinations with figurative meanings in the whole, i.e. the meaning of the collocation is different from the component words, some part of the collocation may be substituted.	Combinations that are completely figurative and no part can be substituted.
Examples	*kick the ball* *under the table*	*kick a habit* *under attack*	*kick oneself* (to regret) *under the microscope*	*kick the bucket* (to die) *under the weather*

(Adapted from Howarth, 1998, p. 28)

In fact, the categories in Table (1) above appear to form a continuum rather than a clear-cut classification. Restricted collocations seem to be metaphoric in the sense of Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Metaphors are linguistic expressions mapped onto conceptual domains in the mind. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), speakers conceptualize one domain to express another. For example, *keep in mind* is a collocation where *mind* is conceptualized as a container that contains information / ideas. Lakoff and Johnson propose that metaphors are right in the realm of everday language use in abstract concepts such as container, time, causation, and purpose.

Collocations do not form a heterogenous group of constructions in terms of form (N-N: *salt and pepper*, pure idiom V-NP: *spill the beans*), meaning and pragmatics. Semantically, some collocations are opaque (*go cold turkey*) and some are transparent (*salt and pepper*). In an idiom like *day-in day-out*, the word *day* and the prepositions retain their literal meanings and yet the collocational meaning is not strictly compositional. Moreover, idioms also come from various sources, diachronically (*red herring*), of Biblical origin (*turn the other cheek*), from mythology (*open Pandora's box*), borrowings (*ad hoc* from Latin, *imam bayildi* from Turkish). Collocations can be used

as utterances in small talk to keep social relationships smooth, such as *What's up?*, *take care,* as conjunctions at discourse level *by the way, vice versa,* etc. They can have irregular syntactic structure as in, *the more the merrier.* It is, therefore, difficult to define and classify restricted collocations and idioms in a uniform way (also Nunberg, Sag &Wasow, 1994, p. 492). However, they have certain properties: They are highly conventionalized in the sense that the collocation forms a different meaning than the meanings of its component parts. For example, *center divider* (of a high-way) is an idiomatic collocation because it is conventionalized and no other phrase can be used to refer to the middle separator of the high-way (Nunberg, et.al. 1994, p. 495). Metaphoric uses of word combinations are also structurally fixed. For example, the passive form does not retain the idiomatic meaning. Moreover, idioms may contain a kind of emotion (*affect* in Nunberg, et.al's (1994) term). For example, *dyed-in-the-wool* and *smart cookie* carry emotional nuances that their counterparts *steadfast, an intelligent person* respectively, do not. Restricted and idiomatic collocations are extremely variable in terms of their structure, meaning, and communicative functions and they provide speakers with tools for colorfully diverse communication.

We have seen above that it is difficult to make a clear-cut classification of collocations excluding, perhaps the free collocation type. Moreover, free collocations are expected to cause much less difficulty in language learning as has been stated before. Thus, in the rest of this paper, we concentrate on other types of collocation: restricted and idiomatic collocations. The collocations with *mind* investigated in this study are metaphoric in the sense of Lakoff and Johnson (1980). They can be grouped around experiential concepts, such as ENTITY and CONTAINER. Speakers use concrete concepts to express abstract notions, such as MIND IS A CONTAINER where one can hold ENTITIES such as ideas, opinions, views. One can keep / bear ideas in mind, have an entity in the container, one can change this entity, and make it up.

Learning and processing collocations

It is no wonder that such heteregenous and numerous collocations form difficulty for foreign language learners. Semantically opaque collocations, i.e. *out-of-the-blue* are unintelligible for a learner, yet they may be salient and so once exposed, they may not be easily forgotten. Everyday metaphoric uses can be understood but cannot always be correctly produced. According to Nesselhauf and Tschichold (2002) "(t)he most difficult part for learners (..) is not comprehension of collocations, but the correct production of them" (p. 254). Learners may use a collocation that is semantically synonymous with one part of the collocation or they may use a direct translation from their native language.

In usage-based theories of language such as Construction Grammar (Goldberg, 1995) and language learning (N. Ellis, 2001, 2002) like most aspects of language, fixed and conventionalized collocations are learned as chunks. Language learners not only learn single words and grammar, but they also learn families of constructions, including collocations of various types. Learners must not only learn phrase and sentence structures, but also collocations that are restrictedly combined to the exclusion of other combinations. Thus, learners must recognize that speakers do not

form completely novel constructions; but rather select from recurrent patterns based on the speech situation. Recurrent patterns are used to show appreciation, in marriage proposals, in academic texts, etc. (Ellis, 2003).

Another premise of usage-based theories is that: The frequency of patterns facilitates and accelerates language learning. Frequency effects are observed at every level of language from sounds to discourse. By the same token, learning collocations is highly correlated with the frequency of input. The more frequent a collocation in the input, the better it is learned. According to N. Ellis (2003) frequency of words triggers rapid judgment in word decision tasks, spelling more accurately, better word recognition, higher speed in acquisition by children and adults in both native and second languages. Ellis states that faster and better learning by reference to the power of law of learning, which means that practice is important in language learning as in other cognitive skills. At earlier stages of learning, the learner has to spend more cognitive effort and energy to understand and use words and constructions in the input. Each time a learner speaks or listens, processing time reduces and learning takes place as more input comes. Practice is more important at earlier stages and as the learner becomes relatively competent, the construction becomes automatic and this takes the burden of effortful processing of language eventually allowing space in the memory to learn other constructions.

Abel (2003), in a series of experiments, found that German L2 learners who read English texts everyday processed semantically opaque idioms like native speakers do. The success of non-native speakers indicates that those who are exposed to more input will encounter more idioms and become familiar to them. Abel (2003) also proposes that the frequency of an opaque idiom determines how it is stored in the mental lexicon. As the L2 speaker's exposure to an idiom increases, it tends to be stored separately in the cognition and not as the list of component words. A frequent idiom is judged familiar, but familiar idioms are not necessarily frequent (Abel, 2003: 346). According to Abel (2003), idiomatic collocations in the form of conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) can be processed based on general background and world knowledge.

Context facilitates understanding meanings of words: "Words are recognized earlier in context than out of context" (Giora, 1997, p. 185). Nevertheless, context does not always restrict the more frequent meanings, which shows that the role of context can be overridden in the case of a salient (more frequent) meaning of the word (Giora, 1997, p. 186). Frequent words have priority over the context. Even if the context is biased for the less frequent meaning of an ambiguous word, the frequent interpretation is evoked. If the context leads the speaker to reject it, only then is the novel meaning computed. The more frequent the meaning, the harder it is to compute the intended meaning. In an approptiate context, the figurative meaning is processed faster than the literal meaning since the former is a chunk (N. Ellis, 2002, 2005). Since restricted collocations are saved holistically as 'big words' in the mental lexicon, they are expected to be learned as form - meaning pairs.

The holistic nature of collocations and the importance of frequency in learning are factors that make corpus-based studies a suitable method which can shed light on

pedagogical grammars in decision making, writing textbooks, and teaching collocations. Corpus-based studies can show which collocations are frequent in the target language and which collocations can be taught in a particular order.

Relevance of corpus-based studies

A corpus is a large scale, well-balanced, and representative electronic collection of language(s). A corpus must be well-balanced in that ideally all parts of language should be sampled; also the proportion of the sample should reflect the proportion that constitutes this variety. A corpus should also be representative; Different varieties of a language should be included in the collection (Gries, 2009, p. 7). The language samples must also come from naurally-occurring language. There are various types of corpora in the World today: General and specific corpora. General corpora are considered to represent the language as a whole; while specific corpora may be restricted to a certain variety such as spoken language, academic discourse, or journal articles, etc. A corpus can be monolingual containing samples from a single language; a corpus can be paralel, built by selections of comparable texts from several languages (Gries, 2009). Today corpora are usually annotated for parts-of-speech, sometimes for sentence structure, semantics, and discourse structure for automatic retrieval and language analysis. In addition to samples collected from native speakers, collections of Textbook Materials (TeMa) and learner language are available. TeMa corpus was also used in this study. We shall return to this corpus in the Samples and Research Sources Section below.

Corpus is used for linguistic analyses and natural language processing as well language teaching and learner research and practice. By using specific corpora researchers can describe language more objectively otherwise not necessarily captured by their intuitions and reference grammars. Corpus studies are also relevant to language teaching / learning: There are corpus-based reference grammars (Biber et.al., 1999), dictionaries, syllabuses and materials based on frequency lists extracted from corpus (McCarten, 2007).

In the last twenty years or so research in corpus-based data and computer tools have gained importance in language teaching area. As stated by Conrad (1999), corpus-based research has three important characteristics: First, a corpus is dependable in representing language constructions in the target language, it is a diverse language source from various genres, spoken language, newspapers, academic texts, and fiction, etc. produced by different writers at different times. The corpus can be analyzed by computer means, without which analyzing such large language data would not be possible. Corpus-based studies are based on quantitative and functional structural analyses of the data. By investigating English native speaker and learner textbook materials corpus, researchers can have a reliable insight on the frequency of words, collocations, and other patterns used in that particular language. According to O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007), the most frequent 2000 words make up 80% of our daily use of language. Verbs such *do, make, get, take,* etc. are very high frequency verbs. Despite their high frequency in corpora, as in the cases of *make coffee, get home, take a test,* etc., they also have collocational uses with less transparent meanings such as *make an appointment, make sense, get a rain*

check, get away with, etc. These verbs with their collocations can have lower frequency, beyond core (O'Keefe, et. al., 2007, p. 38). Native speakers, textbook writers, and even non-native speaker language instructors may have an intuitive idea about what is in the core and what is not in deciding which collocations to be included in teaching materials. However, this intuition may not be sufficient when writing textbooks and deciding which collocations to be covered in the language classroom. In that case, corpus-based studies can illuminate these aspects of language instruction. As Flowerdew (1998) states "…exploitation of corpora is now becoming an increasingly significant additional aspect of corpus work in the sense that learners' needs are governing decisions about where to undertake descriptive research for various pedagogical purposes" (p. 542). Corpus can also be used by the student as an autonomous learner in order to infer the differences between some subtleties of language. For example, *extremely* and *very* are two degree adverbs that may at times be used interchangibly as in, *I am extremely / very happy.* It is not always easy even for the instructor to explain the difference between these two adverbs upon a question from the learner. In that case, learners can be encouraged to consult a corpus to compare the contexts in which they are used. The learner thus can deduce the differences in collocation and meaning. For example, the comparison between the two at the COCA reveals even at the first glance that both adverbs can be used with adjectives; but *very* can also be used to modify verbs, such as *thank you very much* and nouns such as *very essence* and even non-gradable adjectives such as *at the very last moment.*

This study is motivated by the fact that collocations are a significant part of language and so it may be illuminating to determine to what extent collocation frequency and use in L1 corpus is reflected in the English for General Purpose textbook materials written for learners. Previous studies that investigated collocations concentrated on the frequent verb collocations such as *make, take* (Gouverneur, 2008), verb-noun collocations such as *make an attempt, take sth. into account,* etc. used by German learners of English in argumentative essays based on a learner corpus (Nesselhauf, 2004). Kennedy (2003) analyzed the collocations of amplifier adverbs such as *completely, absolutely* in the British National Corpus, in order to make suggestions for the language classroom. The present study is based on *mind* collocations. The word *mind* is a frequent word covered in a wide variety of contexts from academic discourse to informal spoken genres. Since *mind-* collocations have not been studied previously, the findings of this study may shed light on to what extent they are represented in the English for General Purpose textbook materials.

Method

Research Design

In this study, collocations with *V-mind* are investigated both in terms of frequency in the L1 corpus and a functional analysis of their linguistic properties. Then the frequency found in the COCA is compared with that found in the textbook

corpus. This is, therefore, a descriptive study. A quantitave research method is not suitable since the data in the textbooks are sparse.

Research Sources

Our *mind*-collocation samples come from the corpora presented below. The main research sources for this study are: the selected collocations from the L1 data, i.e. the COCA corpus, the TeMa (Textbook Materials) sub-corpus, and two grammar textbooks. COCA is largely used by linguists, teachers, and other researchers (Davies, 2010). The corpus consists of more than 425-million-words of text equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts, including 20-million words each year from 1990-2011. (More information can be found at the COCA web-site). The TeMa corpus was collected by Meunier and her colleagues at the University of Louvain, Belgium. Meunier and Gouverneur (2009) provide detailed information on the selection prıcedures of the textbooks and why they were selected. The TeMa corpus has been collected to investigate phrases or collocations in textbook materials in language learning and teaching. "The textbooks compiled were selected among recent best-sellers on the international ELT market and in similar proportion among the most renowned publishers." The collection contains advanced and high intermediate level learners, specifically the following English for General Purpose textbooks: *Accelerate, Clockwise, Cutting Edge, Inside Out, Matters, New Cambridge, New Headway, Advance Your English, English Panaroma, Iniative (*(Meunier & Gouverneur, 2009). TeMa is not distributed due to copyright restrictions but sub-corpus is available for research purposes only. The sub-corpus of TeMa used in this study is representative of the types of English General Purpose textbooks that have been collected, i.e. texts, vocabulary exercises, tapescripts, and guidelines to the vocabulary exercises. In addition, two advanced English grammar textbooks: *English Grammar in Use* by Raymond Murphy (2004) and *Advanced Grammar in Use* by Martin Hewing (2005). Collocations *V-mind* were chosen for analysis in the corpus. The reason why these were selected is that *mind* is commonly used in different grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic contexts and can collocate with a variety of verbs. This sheds light on the diversity found in the English language data and provides an opportunity to see whether this diversity exists in grammar textbooks.

Validity and Reliability

The word *mind* is a frequent word (rank 469) in COCA. A frequent and abstract noun and its collocations has been selected for analysis are selected based on the frequent uses in the corpus and in consultation with two colleagues who teach language at the university level.

Data Collection Procedure

The collocations were electronically searched in the COCA as tokens of lemmas and their collocations. *Lemma* is the citation form of a word that goes with all its inflected forms. For example, the verb *keep* comes with its lemmas, i.e., inflected forms: *keeps, kept, don't keep, doesn't keep, have kept.* This procedure makes sure all inflected forms of the words in the selected collocations are retrieved. The TeMa sub-

corpus files were uploaded and collocations were electronically retrieved by using the software Concordance, 3.3. These collocations were then manually searched in the two widely used advanced English grammar books mentioned above in terms of frequency and diversity.

Data Analysis

The extracted collocations in the COCA were analyzed in terms of their frequency as well as in terms of their meaning and pragmatic functions. As we shall see in the Results section, the collocations are very sparse in the TeMa sub-corpus and grammar books. Therefore, a statistical analysis for comparing L1 data with that in the textbook corpus could not be conducted.

Results

Figure (1) shows the frequencies found in the COCA per million words from the most frequent to the least.
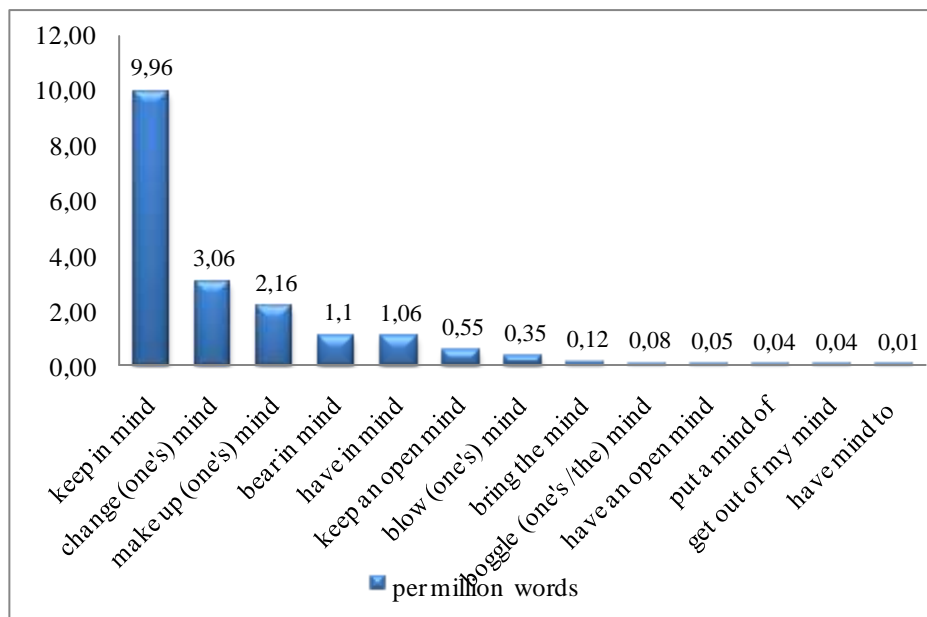

Figure 1: Collocations with *mind* in the COCA

As seen in Figure (1), the order of frequency of the collocations with *mind* is as follows: *keep in mind* is the highest and it is attested in all genres, spoken language is being the medium that favors the most frequent uses (13.96): One example is as follows: *So keep in mind, you had a third of this country totally devastated.* (from COCA:

NBC Meet Press, 2010). It seems that *keep in mind* is used to direct the attention of the listener / or the reader to some point as in constructions such as *it is important to keep in mind that, we should keep in mind….*or in its imperative form; it also seems to provide suggestions for a third party as in *the instructors should keep in mind.* A similar communicative function seems to be fulfilled by the fourth highest collocation *bear in mind* (1.1), albeit much less frequent than the previous one. This frequency difference cannot be explained by genre formality differences because both are used across all genres in the corpus. We cannot explain the difference in terms of the frequency of the verbs they co-occur with because the verbs *keep* and *bear* are not comparable. For example, *keep this book for future reference* is grammatical but *bear this book* is not. The frequency differences may be due to their conventionalized uses. *Change (one's) mind* (3.06) is the second, *make up (one's) mind* is the third (2.16), *have in mind* is the next (1.06) across all genres. *Keep / have an open mind*, though approximately synonymous have different frequencies (0.55 and 0.33, respectively). The rest of the collocations are attested less than these. *Change (one's) mind* seems to have a variety of discourse functions: threats such in *This, unless you change your mind, will be the last time I ever talk to you* (COCA, spoken) to extending an invitation as in *The invitation stands if you change your mind* (COCA, spoken) by giving options to the listener. It is of course used to express factual information as in *you've changed your mind, then*. The last three collocations are much rarer than the others. *Have in mind* denotes a cognitive state in assertions and *keep an open* mind is used in declaratives that provide actual information or as a suggestion to the addressee.

In the TeMa sub-corpus 26 instances of *mind* were found. 7 of these were very frequent cases, but as being verbs, they are outside the scope of this study: *I don't mind; do /would you mind…?*, 2 of them were *mind you…..* Therefore, the remaining 23 cases of *mind* are used as nouns, most of which are used as CONTAINER metaphors collocating with prepositions of place: *The last thing on my mind, in the back of my mind, Nobler in the mind to suffer, come to his mind, in people's minds*, as well as 1 case of *open-minded*. Surprisingly, however, very rare collocations have also been found in the textbook sub-corpus: *His mind goes blank; the mind boggles, being bloody-minded*. This frequency of collocations attested in the COCA are not represented in the TeMa sub-corpus. As far as grammar textbooks are concerned: In *Advanced Grammar in Use* by Martin Hewing (2005), the following *mind* collocations are used: *Change (one's) mind* 7 times, *People or things in mind* 3 times, and *make up (one's) mind* 3 times, *cast (one's) mind back* 1 time. Other uses of *mind* is not of concern here (i.e. *Do you mind…?, I don't mind…,* etc.). In another advanced grammar textbook, *English Grammar in Use* by Raymond Murphy (2004) *change (one's) mind* is used 3 times, *make up (one's) mind* 2 times, and other cases of *mind* are not related to the collocations dealt with here (i.e. *Do you mind…?, mind your own business*, etc.). These results show that advanced grammar textbooks do not necessarily include the highly frequent collocations of *mind* and neither do they cover diverse collocations found in the COCA corpus. They might also include less frequent ones rather than those of high frequency. A reason for this might be that the writers of these books use their own judgments of what may be frequent. In order to overcome this possible bias in the input, learners should

be directed to other sources in order to encounter diverse collocations found in the target language. These will be discussed later in the next section.

Below, we turn to the question whether these collocations might cause problems for learners in receptive and productive skills. CONTAINER metaphors of *mind* are experiential and similar metaphoric uses are found in Turkish. Turkish learners are not expected to have problems in comprehending these collocations in receptive skills (reading and listening). Learners can figure out the meanings quite accurately based on conceptual experience. However, difficulties might arise in productive skills, speaking and writing. This is because verbs collocate with the abstract noun *mind* are conventionalized as an example, one can *keep / bear some idea in mind*, but one cannot **store ideas in mind,* although *store* roughly means *keep entities in a container.*

Discussion and Conclusion

This study reveals that there is a mismatch between the L1 corpus and textbooks in terms of the collocations investigated. Firstly, there is no systematic choice of collocations with *mind* in the textbooks and they may include marginal and rare collocations. Gouveneur (2008) also found that textbooks do not represent the real use of collocations. She suggests that the selection of collocations in textbooks should be redesigned because advanced level textbooks lack a direct focus on restricted collocations and they have inconsistent selection.

However, according to Lui (2010) textbooks seem to include collocations not necessarily based on frequency alone but the choice is still motivated by another criterion, that of cognitive patterning. For example, *make vs. have a nice trip* collocations formed with everyday verbs are differentiated by a cognitive analyses of their core meanings. While *have* denotes experience in its core meaning, *make* is related to spending energy, planning, and /or initiating. Lui (2010) concludes that collocations used in learner textbooks are not arbitrary but they seem to be well-motivated when a cognitive analysis of the core meanings is taken into consideration. It may well be the case that the authors of the textbooks investigated in this study also intuitively appealed to the semantic / cognitive criterion that *mind*s are containers. That may be the reason why collocations with locative prepositions are common in these textbooks. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that some very frequent collocations are not represented at all, while random ones are. On the other hand, Kennedy (2003) suggests "learning to associate forms with forms, forms with semantic or pragmatic functions, and forms and functions with contexts requires huge amounts of exposure" (p.481). Therefore, textbooks are not and should not be the only input source for advanced learners.

Pedagogical Implications

As it has been emphasized, collocations can be difficult for learners to master (Wray, 2000, p. 468) and even advanced learners have problems with collocations (Nesselhauf, 2003, p.238). When teaching and learning a language, learners should

be made sensitive towards the collocational choices in the target language for successful communication. Collocation choice must be made based on students' proficiency level, their needs, and the objectives of the course as well as the frequency and range. Another factor to be considered is the congruity of the metaphoric collocations between the target language and the native language of the learners. Nesselhauf (2003) found that learners had problems if the collocations are incongruent in the native language and the target language. Thus, they may also create problems and might need special attention.

Teachers can use a variety of authentic and / or simplified texts from a variety of sources that would attract learner's interest depending on the proficiency level. Various authentic texts will contain a variety of collocations to be exposed and special attention can be drawn to the uses of these collocations. Moreover, learners should be encouraged to become autonomous learners as early as possible. The teacher should be a leader to help learners to learn by raising the learner consciousness on collocations at advanced levels and lead learners to notice them. Noticing facilitates grammar learning (Schmidt, 1990), by extension, noticing can lead to better learning of collocations. Since teachers do not have limitless time in language classrooms, learners should be encouraged to spend time on activities that provide oppurtunities for them to receive as much input as possible. This can be ensured by regular guided assignments designed for learners to watch films, news, etc.in the target language, listen to music, read materials on the subjects of their personal or professional interest.

Nesselhauf (2003) suggests that collocations that are non-congruent between L1 and L2 cause difficulty. On the other hand, some collocations, restricted or idiomatic may be similar in that they contain the same words in both languages, but their meanings may differ. Therefore, guessing the meaning from the context may cause problems sometimes and this strategy should be used with care. It can also be a good idea to use images, pictures, imagination, or giving situations when teaching collocations. The teacher may elaborate on the etymology of and the story involved in a collocation. This introduces a mental image. This may help learners to evoke a vivid mental image, leading long term recall of the collocation because information is processed in a dual fashion, visually and orally (Boers, et al., 2007, p.58).

Conclusions and suggestions for further research

The study found a discrepancy in terms of mind-collocations in the L1 corpus nad textbook materials. However, it has some limitations: Firstly, it focused on the collocations of a single word *mind.* A future study may focus on a wider semantic paradigm, such as all cognitive verbs and their collocations, such as t*hink, believe, guess, cognize.* Secondly, the TeMa sub-corpus is a limited sample representative of the text materials used in advanced language instruction. Therefore, a larger textbook corpus can be used to obtain sufficient data to carry out statistical analysis. Thirdly, a study may be designed to collect empirical data, concerning the collocation knowledge of the students, comparing this knowledge to those found in the textbooks. Finally it would be revealing to understand the role of frequency vs. cognitive core meanings of collocations in language learning and teaching.

Collocation research is significant in terms of linguistic, cognitive, and learning aspects. Collocations can also be investigated in terms of the congruency in learners' native and target languages. . Some congruent idiomatic collocations between English and Turkish are: *A lot of water has gone under the bridge; Burn bridges; Like a fish out of water;* incongruent ones are: *take a break, to be on the rocks*, etc.

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Derlemde **'*Mind*' Sözcüğü Eşdizimleri ve İngilizce Öğret**imine Etkileri

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(Özet)

Problem Durumu

Derlem tabanlı işlevsel dilbilim ve yapılandırmacı dilbilim alanında çalışan araştırmacıların ortaya koyduğu gibi, dilin büyük bir bölümü kalıplaşmış olan ve eğretileme özellikleri taşıyan eşdizimlerden oluşmaktadır. Bu tür gelenekselleşmiş eşdizim öbekleri, İngilizcenin yaklaşık olarak %70'ini oluşturmaktadır. Dolayısıyla, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler için doğru eşdizim kullanımı önemlidir. Doğru eşdizim kullanılmadığı takdirde etkili iletişim kuramama ve söylediklerini doğru ifade edememe gibi sorunlar oluşabilir. Ancak yapılan araştırmalar, doğru eşdizim kullanmanın ileri düzeyde yabancı dil öğrenmiş olan öğrencilerde bile sorun olduğunu ortaya çıkarmaktadır. Bu nedenle, eşdizimliliğin daha iyi anlaşılması, eğitsel dilbilgisi ve dil öğrenimi / öğretiminde ışık gösterici nitelikte olacaktır.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmada İngilizcede *mind* sözcüğü içeren eşdizimlerin ileri düzeydeki dilbilgisi kitaplarında ne ölçüde temsil edildiğinin saptanması amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçla, seçilen sözcüklerin oluşturduğu eşdizimler Çağdaş İngilizcenin en büyük derlemi olan (COCA) 'daki sıklık ve çeşitlilik açısından incelenerek TeMa adlı ileri düzey ders kitabı alt-derlemi ve yaygın olarak kullanılan iki adet ileri düzeydeki dilbilgisi ders kitabındaki eşdizimlerle karşılaştırılmıştır. Ders kitaplarında öğrencilerin karşılaşabileceği dil girdileri olası sorunları açıklamakta ışık tutucu nitelikte olabilir.

Çalışmanın Yöntemi

Çalışmada Çağdaş Amerikan İngilizcesinin elektronik ortamda bulunan, 1990-2011 yılları arasında toplanmış olan ve yaklaşık 450 milyon sözcükten oluşan derlemi ile TeMa olarak bilinen ders kitaplarından oluşan alt-derlem ve iki ileri düzey dilbilgisi kitabı veri olarak kullanılmıştır. *Mind-* sözcüğü ile oluşturulan eşdizimler sıklık ve çeşitlilik açısından adı geçen derlemde incelenmiş ve ders kitapları derlemlerinde yeralan eşdizimlerle sıklık ve çeşitlilik açılarından karşılaştırılmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra, öğrenciler için bilişsel, dil içi ve dillerarası özelliklerden kaynaklanabilecek diğer olası sorunlar da tartışılmış ve bu sorunlara çözümler aranmıştır. Ders kitaplarında bulunan az sayıda eşdizim verisi olası bir niceliksel çalışmayı mümkün kılmamaktadır.

Araştırmanın Bulguları

İleri düzeyde İngilizce ders kitabı derlemi ve iki dilbilgisi kitabındaki eşdizimlerin anadil derleminde bulunan sıklık ve çeşitliliği yansıtmadığı görülmüştür. Ders kitabı

derleminde, bir tarafta sık kullanılan eşdizinler bulunmamakta bir taraftan da anadil derleminde nadiren kullanılan eşdizimlerin yer aldığı görülmüştür. Bu da ders kitaplarında bulunan bazı eşdizimlerin sıklık ve çeşitlilik açısından dizgesel bir biçimde seçilmeyebileceği görüşüne yol açmaktadır. Ayrıca, anadil derleminde en sık rastlanan eşdizimlerin kalıplaşmış eğretilemeler olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bu eşdizimlerde bulunan eğretilemelerin dünya bilgisine dayalı somut kavramları çağrıştırmaları nedeniyle söz konusu eşdizimlerin öğrenciler tarafından anlama becerileri doğrultusunda sorun oluşturmayabileceği, ancak üretime dayalı konuşma ve yazma becerilerinde sorunların var olabileceği söylenebilir. Bu sorunları ortadan kaldırmak amacıyla alanyazındaki çalışmaların ışığında öneriler sunulmuştur.

Araştırmanın Sonuçları ve Öneriler

Eşdizim kullanımı, öğrencinin anlama ve konuşma becerilerini geliştirerek, öğrencinin iletişim becerilerini arttırır. Bu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, yabancı dil sınıflarında bu yapılara özel önem verilmesi gerekmektedir. Bu doğrultuda yabancı dil sınıflarında öğrencilerin dikkatleri bu yapılara çekilmeli, bilinçleri yükseltilmeli, özerk bireyler olarak, öğrenmeyi öğrenmeleri sağlanmalıdır. Eşdizimlerin çok çeşitli olması ve ders kitaplarında her zaman anadil kullanımındaki sıklık ve çeşitlilik doğrultusunda temsil edilemeyebileceği görüşünden hareketle, öğrencinin sınıf dışında öğrendiği dilde daha fazla okumaya yönlendirilmesi, o dilde film, dizi izlemesinin ve müzik dinlemesinin özendirilmesi önerilebilir. Böylece öğrenci daha fazla dil girdisi alacak ve eşdizimleri bilinçli ya da bilinçsiz olarak sıkça okuyup duyma olasılığı yakalayabilecektir. Sınıf içi eşdizim öğrenme stratejilerinden bir bölümü ise, bağlamdan anlamı tahmin etme, eşdizimi oluşturan sözcüklerin anlamını sözlükte arama, dünya bilgisini kullanma, vb. olabilir. Ancak, eşdizimin anlamı, bileşkesi olan sözcüklerin sözlük anlamlarından farklı ise o zaman bağlamdan tahmin etme stratejisi dikkatle kullanılmalıdır. Çünkü bazı durumlarda her iki dilde benzer yapıda bir eşdizim bulunsa bile bunların anlamları birbirinden tamamen farklı olabilir. Bir başka deyişle her iki dilde yapısal eşdeğerlik anlamsal eşdeğerliğe yol açmayabilir. Öte yandan tam deyimsel eşdizimler ise diğer eşdizimlere oranla daha fazla öne çıkan yapılardır ve bu tür eşdizimlerle karşılaşan öğrenciler, bu belirgin yapıları kolay unutmayabilirler. Bunun yanı sıra, öğretmenin deyimlerin tarihsel kökenlerini, sosyal-kültürel bağlamlarını ve bunların öykülerini anlatması, öğrencilerin belleklerinde kalıcı olmalarını sağlayacaktır. Özellikle eğretileme içeren eşdizimler aynı zamanda görsel etkiler çağrıştırırlar. Eğretilemeler, hem görsel hem de işitselliğe dayalı imgeler oluştururlar ve soyut ile somut kavramlar arasında bağlantı kurulmasını sağlarlar. Böylece, eşdizimlerin öğrenilmesi kolaylaşabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: eşdizimlilik, eğretileme, anadil derlemi, ders kitabı derlemi, girdi, sıklık