



T.C.

AKDENİZ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

MA
THESIS

FROM WORDS TO SPEECH:
UNLOCKING THE ROLE OF
COLLOCATIONS IN L2 SPEAKING

FATMA MERVE AKTAŞ

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

MASTER'S PROGRAM

Antalya, 2024



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Supervisor:

Asst. Prof. Ersen VURAL

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AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ YABANCI DİLLER ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

SÖZCÜKTEN KONUŞMAYA: EŞDİZİMLERİN İKİNCİ DİLDE KONUŞMA
YETERLİLİĞİNDEKİ ROLÜ

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

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Antalya, 2024

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YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİNİN ADI:

FROM WORDS TO SPEECH: UNLOCKING THE ROLE OF COLLOCATIONS IN L2 SPEAKING

ONAY: Bu tez, Enstitü Yönetim Kurulunca belirlenen yukarıdaki jüri üyeleri tarafından uygun görülmüş ve Enstitü Yönetim Kurulunun tarihli ve sayılı kararıyla kabul edilmiştir.

ABSTRACT

FROM WORDS TO SPEECH: UNLOCKING THE ROLE OF COLLOCATIONS IN L2 SPEAKING

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Collocations are a part of formulaic language and an integral component of communicative language. Collocational competence, in addition to ensuring lexical accuracy, enables learners to express themselves in a more native-like manner. This study investigates the relationship between young adult Turkish EFL learners' receptive knowledge of collocations and their speaking proficiency, as well as the production of collocations during spontaneous speech. A quantitative research design was employed with 67 pre-service teachers enrolled in an ELT program at a state university in Turkey. Participants were assessed using a Collocational Knowledge Test and a Speaking Proficiency Test, with additional analysis of collocations produced during speaking performance. Results revealed a moderate positive correlation ($r = .459$, $p < .001$) between collocational competence and speaking proficiency. However, the number of collocations produced in speech exhibited a weak correlation ($r = .156$) with receptive knowledge, indicating a disconnection between recognition and production. These findings suggest that while collocational competence enhances speaking proficiency, other factors have a greater influence in collocation use during spontaneous speech. The study emphasizes the importance of integrating collocational instruction into language teaching practices to foster more natural spoken English. Overall, the present study yields positive outcomes towards understanding and improving language proficiency.

Keywords: *collocations, speaking, competence, language production*

ÖZET

SÖZCÜKTEN KONUŞMAYA: EŞDİZİMLERİN İKİNCİ DİLDE KONUŞMA YETERLİLİĞİNDEKİ ROLÜ

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Eşdizimler kalıplaşmış dilin bir parçasıdır ve iletişimsel dilin ayrılmaz bir bileşenidir. Eşdizim yeterliliği, sözcüksel doğruluğu sağlamanın yanı sıra, öğrencilerin kendilerini ana dile daha yakın bir biçimde ifade etmelerini sağlar. Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen genç yetişkin Türk öğrencilerin alıcı eşdizimlilik bilgisi ile konuşma yeterlilikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Aynı zamanda, anlık konuşma sırasında eşdizimlerin üretimini araştırmaktadır. Araştırmada, Türkiye’deki bir devlet üniversitesinde İngilizce Öğretmenliği programına kayıtlı 67 öğretmen adayının katıldığı nicel bir desen izlenmiştir. Katılımcılar, ilk olarak Eşdizimlilik Bilgisi Sınavı ve ardından Konuşma Yeterliliği Sınavı ile değerlendirilmiş, ayrıca konuşma performansı sırasında üretilen eşdizimler belirlenerek analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, eşdizim yeterliliği ile konuşma yeterliliği arasında orta düzeyde pozitif bir bağlantı ($r = 0,459$, $p < 0,001$) olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, konuşmada üretilen eşdizimsel ifadelerin sayısı ile alıcı eşdizimlilik bilgisi düzeyleri arasında bulunan zayıf bağlantı ($r = 0,156$), eşdizimleri tanıma ile üretme arasında bir kopukluğa işaret eder. Bu bulgular, eşdizim yeterliliğinin konuşma yeterliliğini arttırmasına rağmen, anlık konuşmada eşdizim kullanımını etkileyen diğer faktörlerin daha büyük bir rol oynadığını göstermektedir. Çalışma, eşdizim öğretiminin dil öğretim uygulamalarına dahil edilmesinin, daha doğal bir konuşma İngilizcesi sağlamak açısından önemini vurgulamaktadır. Genel olarak, bu çalışma, dil yeterliliğinin anlaşılması ve geliştirilmesine yönelik olumlu sonuçlar ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: *eşdizimler, konuşma, yeterlilik, dil üretimi*

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language
L2: Second Language
CKT: Collocational Knowledge Test
SPT: Speaking Proficiency Test
NCP: Number of collocations produced
FS: Formulaic Sequences

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Language learning is a complex process that involves developing multiple skills. It requires gaining proficiency in linguistic structures and contextual differences for effective communication in a second language. One important aspect of these acquisitions is the comprehension and production of collocations, or fixed patterns of words. Collocational competence not only facilitates lexical accuracy but also enables learners to express themselves in a manner similar to native speakers. This is because formulaic expressions, which include collocations, constitute a significant portion of communicative language found in authentic materials (Rafieyan, 2018). Given the importance of collocational knowledge in natural language use, it is increasingly incorporated into language teaching programs and has become a topic of scientific research. Despite this growing interest, there is still a limited focus on understanding how collocational competence relates to speaking proficiency.

1.1 Background of the Study

Language learning entails more than the ability to memorize vocabulary or produce sentences. It involves a combination of linguistic knowledge, cultural awareness, and communicative competence. For L2 speech that sounds natural, learners must go beyond grammar rules and isolated vocabulary exercises. They must gain a deeper understanding of language elements, such as idiomatic expressions. This combination of linguistic and social skills improves the speaker's ability to communicate meaningfully in various settings.

One essential aspect of native-like speech is the mastery of collocations. Collocations are the natural combinations of words that frequently occur together in a language setting, although some scholars use different criteria to distinguish collocations from other word combinations (Nesselhauf, 2003). Collocations add authenticity and fluency to speech, allowing

speakers to convey their ideas precisely and in a culturally appropriate manner. Native speakers effortlessly use collocations without conscious thought, as these word combinations are rooted in their linguistic repertoire (Wray, 2002). Thus, true mastery of a language involves not only inferring meaning from words correctly but also recognizing and producing their collocations effectively.

Due to the importance of collocations in achieving natural L2 speech, their use is closely linked to speaking competence, a central aspect of overall language proficiency. Speaking competence involves expressing thoughts clearly, using vocabulary appropriate for context, and adopting strategies for effective interaction. Mastery of speaking in a foreign language reflects a comprehensive understanding of various linguistic elements necessary for meaningful communication. Therefore, speaking competence is not only a measure of language acquisition but also a critical component in applying language skills in social or professional contexts.

Both collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency serve as indicators of a learner's overall proficiency in a foreign language. Thus, it is plausible that there is a significant connection between them. Collocations enable smoother speech and effective communication, particularly in spoken contexts. Adequate knowledge of collocations can improve speaking performance by enhancing accuracy and fluency. This relationship can be attributed to the fact that collocations provide support for producing more natural sentences.

1.2 Problem Statement

The idea that sparked the present study was a question that has been very often asked in Turkey: After years of EFL instruction, why do many Turks fail to speak a good command of English? While there are studies that directly examine this question (Demir, 2017), the present study adopts a different approach by analyzing how language acquisition occurs successfully. Observations from the researcher's teaching experiences revealed that the new

generation of learners often acquire everyday expressions that are not taught in formal classroom settings. This incidental and meaningful learning is usually facilitated by exposure to frequently repeated sentences or multi-word units. This observation prompted further investigation into the potential role of collocations in fostering native-like speech. After an initial review of the literature, the focus of this research was confirmed.

Native speakers frequently use collocations during conversations, utilizing various skills simultaneously. However, L2 learners may not always be successful at recognizing these word combinations or differentiating them from their L1 patterns. Furthermore, collocational competence often does not receive substantial emphasis in coursebooks. Neglecting L2 collocational instruction can hinder learners from using them appropriately for effective communication, causing delays in speech.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Despite the recognized value of collocations in language learning, empirical research directly examining their impact on speaking performance remains limited. This study seeks to address this gap by investigating the extent to which EFL learner university students' receptive collocational knowledge correlates with their speaking proficiency. By exploring this relationship, the study aims to contribute to a better understanding of how L2 collocations and speech are connected. In other words, the purpose of the study is to reveal a potential link between two key aspects of second language acquisition. The research will focus on answering the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a correlation between Turkish young adult EFL learners' receptive collocational competence and speaking proficiency?

RQ2: Is there a correlation between Turkish young adult EFL learners' receptive collocational competence and their use of collocations in speaking performance?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Achieving language proficiency is the primary goal for all learners in formal English education. Various competencies contribute to overall proficiency in a second language, and several studies have suggested that collocational competence is among them (Howarth, 1998; Rafieyan, 2018; Keshavarz & Taherian, 2018). Years of research have revealed that many L2 learners have insufficient knowledge of collocations, a factor that distinguishes non-native speakers from native speakers. Despite this recognition, collocational competence remains an underemphasized aspect of language instruction.

The present study seeks to offer a deeper understanding of better overall proficiency, taking a perspective from how formulaic sequences, specifically collocations, impact more natural L2 speech. By investigating the potential link between collocations and speaking, the study can provide insights for teaching practices, with a focus on improving both collocational competence and speaking proficiency among EFL learners. The insights gained from this study could be particularly valuable for language educators to design more effective instructional strategies. Prioritizing the teaching of collocations can help learners achieve greater fluency and confidence in spoken English, while also bridging the gap between classroom learning and authentic communication.

1.5 Scope of the Study

This study focuses on revealing a connection between receptive collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency among young adult EFL learners who are also first-year pre-service teachers studying in Turkey. The participants are at intermediate to advanced levels of English proficiency; thus, their language skills are sufficient to engage in meaningful communication. The study examines correlations between collocational competence and

speaking performance, with additional attention on the productive use of collocations in speech. Data were collected through a written assessment of participants' collocational knowledge followed by a spoken assessment of their oral proficiency. The findings are limited to the specific context of the participants' educational background and language proficiency. The conclusions are drawn based on the observed correlations following the test results. This scope does not cover other linguistic skills, such as reading or writing, nor does it encompass EFL learners outside the studied population and educational setting.

1.6 Assumptions and Limitations

The present study was conducted under a few assumptions. First, it assumes that collocational knowledge is an indicator of a learner's overall language development, and speaking competence is a component of general language proficiency. Additionally, it is presumed that university students have been exposed to sufficient input to develop a certain degree of collocational competence during their formative years of foreign language learning. The basis for this assumption is the various learning opportunities offered through formal and informal settings. Finally, this study hypothesizes that learners with a greater collection of collocations in their corpus are likely to perform better in speaking activities.

On the other hand, several limitations must be acknowledged beforehand. The focus of the study is on EFL learners at a university, whose language proficiency levels range from intermediate to advanced. The findings are limited to the data gathered from observed correlations and exam results collected from the specified participants. Therefore, the conclusions may not be generalized to populations of younger age or lower proficiency levels. The study also relies on assessments conducted within a specific timeframe, which may not capture long-term language development. Finally, external factors such as anxiety or exposure to English outside the classroom were not controlled and may have impacted the results.

1.7 Definitions

The present study acknowledges some definitions to the terms used throughout. *Collocations* are defined as words frequently appearing together in the corpus more often than by chance. They are a subset of *formulaic expressions*, which are fixed or semi-fixed sequences of words that carry specific meaning as a whole. *Collocational competence* refers to the ability to recognize and use collocations naturally. *Native-like speech* is the ability to produce language closely resembling that of a native speaker. *Speaking proficiency* is defined as a learner's ability to effectively express their thoughts in the target language during speech while demonstrating success in areas such as fluency, linguistic and lexical accuracy, pronunciation, and coherence.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the existing literature on the importance of collocations and speaking in L2. It introduces key concepts related to collocational competence and speaking proficiency. The theories behind the acquisition of collocations are explored. The discussion progresses to the components of speaking proficiency; how it is affected, and how it is assessed. The interplay between collocations and L2 speech is analyzed through previous research findings. Finally, cognitive processes involved in collocation use during speaking are reviewed. The chapter concludes by addressing challenges in assessing the role of collocations in speaking proficiency, providing the rationale for the current study.

2.1 The Role of Collocations in EFL

As defined by Hellman (2018), collocations are habitual word pairings that native speakers use instinctively. Since collocations are a part of nativelike speech, collocational competence is a key aspect of linguistic proficiency, which reflects an ability to use words effectively to communicate with accuracy and fluency (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010). Fundamental to EFL learning, collocations have been a curious topic of research. For example, research by Nizonkiza (2011) supports the claim that both lexical competence and collocational competence are reliable predictors of L2 proficiency, after finding a significant correlation between them. Therefore, appropriately using collocations points to a good command of a foreign language, allowing learners to express themselves more naturally.

2.1.1 Defining and classifying collocations

The most widely acknowledged definition of collocations is a combination of words that frequently occur together. Specifically, L2 collocational competence refers to the learner's

ability to comprehend and produce collocations, in other words, prefabricated multiword combinations (Hellman, 2018). These word pairings are important for numerous reasons as collocational competence is not only restricted to knowing fixed-word sequences but also includes the ability to use a word with other, grammatically and semantically appropriate words in a particular context.

As defined by Nation (2013), collocations are expressions of two or more words that are typically found together in natural speech or writing, such as "make a decision" or "strong tea". In another perspective, Durrant and Schmitt (2010) state that collocations “co-occur more often than would be expected by chance,” suggesting a fixed pattern in their composition. In this sense, collocations are often resistant to change, which presents predictability for native speakers to produce and understand these combinations effortlessly (Nizonkiza, 2011).

Collocations are classified into various types based on the nature of the relationship between the words involved. One of these classifications consists of categories called grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, and semantic collocations (Benson et. al, 1997). Grammatical collocations, such as “depend on”, involve words that frequently co-occur according to grammatical rules, while lexical collocations, such as “gain weight”, focus on the co-occurrence of words. The former involves a content word and a function word while the latter involves only content words. Semantic collocations, on the other hand, rely on the association of words through shared concepts. For example, the verb “commit” collocates with negative actions. Benson et al. (1997) further elaborate that within these categories, collocations can be divided into several types, including verb-noun, adjective-noun, and noun-noun combinations. Understanding these distinctions helps learners improve their use of English to sound more natural.

Other classifications take a different approach and consider the degree of fixedness or strength, ranging from loose or weak combinations to more fixed or stronger expressions.

Durrant & Schmitt (2010) associate this strength with how predictable a certain collocation is, arguing that collocations can be understood through their degree of predictability. For example, proverbs and idioms such as "kick the bucket" are strong, yet some frequently co-occurring words can also frequently co-occur with other words, they are; therefore, weak, as in the combination "beautiful flower." This distinction helps determine which types of collocations should receive a more targeted instructional focus, as stronger collocations are often more challenging for non-native speakers without sufficient exposure.

2.1.2 The importance of collocations for language learning

Collocational competence is essential for quite a few reasons. Collocations significantly contribute to the naturalness of speech. Learners can ensure their language use is both accurate and idiomatic, reflecting the patterns used by native speakers. The seminal work by Pawley and Syder in 1983 presents profound findings on the role of collocations. They established the connection between collocations and native-like speech. They introduced concepts such as native-like selection, formulaicity, and idiomatic preferences that draw the line between native speakers and non-native speakers.

From another point of view, formulaic sequences, including collocations, are integral to vocabulary acquisition and the development of overall language proficiency. For instance, knowing that "take a break" is a correct collocation in English, as opposed to "make a break," helps learners use language more naturally and effectively. Formulaic sequences are "lexical bundles to be adopted automatically, thereby reducing pauses and hesitations in written and spoken communication" (Yücedal & Kara, 2023, p. 2). According to Wray (2002), mastery of formulaic sequences allows language learners to retrieve pre-constructed chunks of language. Wray explains that language users can switch between holistic processing, where collocations are retrieved as whole units, and analytic processing, where language is constructed word-by-

word. This ability to flexibly use formulaic sequences contributes to fluency and helps speakers sound more natural and idiomatic. By learning collocations, learners can better understand and produce language that is both syntactically correct and semantically appropriate, as well as improving their communicative competence.

Studies have demonstrated that collocational competence strongly predicts overall language proficiency. Ranging from verb-noun pairs to fixed phrases, collocations constitute the building blocks of fluent and native-like speech. Learners proficient in collocational competence can express themselves in a manner consistent with native speakers. For example, Nesselhauf (2003) found that learners with a high degree of collocational knowledge excelled in various language tasks including writing and speaking. However, the importance of collocations exceeds comprehension and extends to production. Nesselhauf explains that collocations allow learners to express meaning faster and automatically, which boosts effective speaking and writing. This automaticity is essential for both fluency and idiomatic language use, distinguishing native speakers from learners.

Collocations make way for easier language processing and production because they are stored and retrieved as single units rather than as individual words (Durrant & Schmitt, 2010). Faster and more fluent speech is promoted by this automaticity, which is indispensable for effective communication. Durrant and Schmitt investigated the processing of high-frequency collocations and concluded that frequent exposure to collocations helps develop automaticity and enables easier retrieval. Wood (2006) argues that traditional grammar-focused instruction often fails to equip learners with the tools needed for fluent communication. He advocates for a lexical approach that prioritizes teaching formulaic sequences, including collocations. He believes that such competence provides learners with ready-made chunks commonly used by native speakers. Wood supports this notion by stating that "a large portion of familiar concepts and speech acts can be expressed through fixed expressions (p.7)," suggesting retrieval from

memory enhances fluency. According to the literature, it can be implied that collocations help learners remember better.

Learning English collocations stretches beyond understanding their mechanical structure but also includes cultural contexts. In fact, collocations are important elements in a learner's interlanguage due to their high frequency of occurrence and communicative function. For example, Yücedal and Kara (2023) argue that the correct use of collocations creates cultural awareness because they reflect the impact of the target culture on the native speaker. Thus, a strong command of collocations improves comprehension and production capabilities across authentic texts, which helps learners better engage with fixed expressions that native speakers commonly employ. Given the extensive research in the field, the significance of learning English collocations cannot be overstated. Therefore, L2 collocational competence should be an essential focus in L2 instruction.

2.1.3 Acquisition of collocations: Explicit teaching and implicit learning

Despite their significance, collocations often pose challenges for language learners. These are often predictable to native speakers but may prove difficult for EFL learners. Nizonkiza (2011) emphasizes that this predictability is less common among L2 learners, highlighting the need for focused collocational instruction to bridge this gap. Indeed, the correct use of collocations is a challenging yet indispensable aspect of language learning. Incorrect use can lead to misunderstandings or mark the speaker as a non-native. The study by Nesselhauf (2003) is one example that focused on revealing the collocation errors of learners, especially at lower proficiency levels. She pointed out that the incorrect combination of collocates hinders the speaker's ability to communicate effectively. Therefore, EFL learners must be familiar with the common collocational patterns in the target language to avoid such problems.

Szudarski (2017) reviews key research on the learning and teaching of L2 collocations, emphasizing their significant role in achieving fluency and accuracy in spoken language. He identifies challenges in acquiring collocational competence, such as cross-linguistic differences and the lack of perceptual salience in collocations. Szudarski also highlights the effectiveness of intentional learning strategies, such as exercises focused on whole phrases rather than individual words, for improving L2 collocational knowledge. These insights align with the present study's focus on how collocations contribute to EFL learners' oral proficiency, underscoring the importance of explicit instruction and repeated exposure in mastering collocational patterns, particularly for enhancing speaking performance.

The acquisition of collocations can occur through explicit teaching or implicit learning processes, each with its own advantages. Explicit teaching involves direct instruction on collocations, emphasizing their usage and meaning to learners. Implicit learning, on the other hand, happens when learners naturally acquire collocations through exposure to authentic language use without specific instruction. Combining both explicit teaching and implicit exposure is beneficial for comprehensive collocation acquisition. The following section elaborates on this distinction.

Explicit learning of collocations focuses on making learners aware of common word pairings through direct teaching of such rules and patterns in appropriate contexts. Research by Boers et al. (2007) suggests that explicit teaching of collocations can lead to significant improvements in learners' productive and receptive language skills. Techniques such as collocation dictionaries (Benson et al., 1997), and corpus-based activities (Kızıl & Kilimci, 2017) have been shown to be effective in enhancing learners' collocational knowledge. Among the numerous studies investigating the importance of teaching collocations, Rogers (2018) discusses the issues related to teaching collocations, noting the lack of consensus on what exactly collocations encompass and examining the characteristics of these meaningful

groupings to identify which collocations should be prioritized in teaching. Even though there is ongoing debate surrounding how to teach it, it is nevertheless regrettable that collocational competence has not been fully incorporated into the L2 classroom.

Üstünbaş (2014) examined the impact of explicit instruction on learners' ability to use formulaic language in oral production. The study focused on whether students produced formulaic expressions from their coursebook following targeted teaching. The results showed a moderate correlation ($r = .455, p < .01$) between formulaic language use and oral proficiency, demonstrating that explicit teaching of collocations significantly enhances students' ability to incorporate these sequences into their speech. This finding highlights the effectiveness of explicit instruction in improving formulaic language use, offering a contrast to studies that investigate learners' base knowledge of collocations without such intervention.

On the other hand, implicit learning of collocations allows natural learning through exposure to the language in authentic contexts. This natural absorption process occurs when engaging with authentic language materials via reading and listening, which helps reinforce the collocations in a more natural and memorable way. Webb and Kagimoto (2011) argue that extensive reading and listening activities can provide the necessary input for learners to internalize collocations without direct instruction. This approach relies on the principle that frequent encounters with collocations in meaningful contexts enable learners to subconsciously acquire these patterns. Additionally, the use of authentic materials and real-life communication situations can help learners acquire collocations implicitly, as they encounter and use these word combinations in meaningful contexts (Nation, 2013). However, Durrant and Schmitt (2010) caution that while implicit learning can be effective, it often requires significant time and exposure, and may not be sufficient on its own for mastering more complex or less frequent collocations. Therefore, a combination of both explicit teaching and implicit learning is often recommended to ensure comprehensive collocational competence.

In an attempt to use a balanced strategy, Sonbul and Schmitt (2013) investigated the learning of collocations under three learning conditions: incidental learning through reading passages containing target collocations, explicit decontextualized instruction, and a combination of reading with typographic enhancement of collocations. The findings indicate that both explicit and semi-explicit conditions were more effective compared to purely incidental learning. Consequently, it can be assumed that a hybrid approach can consolidate the learning of collocations taking advantage of both sides; namely, direct awareness via teaching and natural acquisition via exposure.

2.2 Speaking Proficiency

Speaking is a complex skill with various components. It is influenced by many factors, and it requires careful assessment methods to accurately capture learners' abilities. Speaking is often perceived as the most difficult skill to master due to various linguistic and psychological factors (Demir, 2017). Nevertheless, achieving native-like speech proficiency is a key goal for many language learners, as it enables them to communicate effectively and naturally in diverse social and professional contexts. This skill encompasses the correct use of language, fluency, and pronunciation (de Jong et al., 2012), as well as the effective use of gestures and facial expressions (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2017). It also includes the ability to employ different strategies to express meaning clearly and interact effectively with listeners.

2.2.1 Components of speaking proficiency

Speaking or oral proficiency refers to the ability to understand and use spoken language in a variety of social and professional contexts effectively, including both spontaneous and planned language use (Simard, 2022). Fluency, accuracy, and complexity are generally considered to be the most important aspects of speaking proficiency, as they are closely related

to a speaker's ability to communicate. However, what makes oral proficiency a complex and key issue in applied linguistics is that it involves both performance and competence. In their Communicative Competence Model, Canale and Swain (1980) categorized the competencies employed during speech as linguistic, sociolinguistic, and strategic. Differences in language use appear in the context of the conversation and the participants' background knowledge.

At this point, it would be appropriate to discuss certain competencies. Not to be confused with communicative competence, interactive competence is the ability to manage and navigate conversations smoothly. This includes turn-taking, responding appropriately to interlocutors, and maintaining the flow of conversation (Foster, 2020). Sociolinguistic competence includes using language that is appropriate for different social contexts and understanding cultural distinctions. This competence requires an understanding of the social rules of language use while employing speech acts such as requesting, apologizing, and thanking, in a culturally and contextually appropriate manner (Canale & Swain, 1980). Lastly, strategic competence involves using communication strategies to overcome difficulties or enhance communication such as paraphrasing, using fillers, or asking for clarification when encountering communication barriers (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). These components collectively contribute to a learner's ability to engage in successful oral communication in a second language.

Speaking proficiency in a second language comprises several key components that contribute to effective oral communication. One of them is fluency, which refers to the ability to speak at a normal pace with minimal pauses. Fluency is often associated with the automaticity of language processing, allowing learners to focus on conveying meaning rather than on language form (Takizawa, 2024). Accuracy, another key component, involves the correct use of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. High levels of accuracy ensure that the message is not only understood but also delivered in a manner that is close to native-like (de Jong et al., 2012). Learners must have a large range of vocabulary and grammatical structures to construct

accurate sentences. Pronunciation is equally critical, as clear articulation helps prevent misunderstandings and ensures the message is conveyed effectively (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Another essential component is discourse competence, which involves the ability to organize and link sentences coherently, use appropriate conversational strategies, and adjust language use according to the context (Canale & Swain, 1980).

2.2.2 Factors affecting speaking performance

Speaking proficiency serves as a measure of a learner's communication skills and constitutes a significant part of overall language proficiency. Many EFL learners consider speaking to be the hardest language skill to improve. This difficulty arises due to the spontaneous nature of spoken language. Developing speaking skills is, without a doubt, essential, and numerous factors impact speaking performance in EFL learners, ranging from the learner's anxiety levels to task types used for assessment. The role of L1 proficiency (Skehan, 2018) and the possible contributions of social media (Wang & Vásquez, 2014) are among the recent discussions, as well as task conditions (Skehan, 2018). Speaking proficiency can be assessed in both controlled and uncontrolled conditions, and one speaker's proficiency may vary between these settings.

Thoroughly researched both in Türkiye and internationally, individual characteristics have a major impact on L2 speaking performance. According to the seminal study by Horwitz et al. (1986), high levels of anxiety, particularly during oral presentations, can impair speaking performance by causing nervousness and hesitation, leading to decreased fluency and coherence. Psychological factors can either help or hinder learners' attempts to engage in speaking activities. Positive attitudes towards the language and culture, motivation, and higher self-confidence have been identified as elements that enhance willingness to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 2011), encouraging learners to take risks in using new language structures.

Additionally, self-perceived pronunciation can influence confidence levels; learners who believe they have poor pronunciation may avoid speaking opportunities (Demir, 2017), thus limiting their practice and improvement. Moreover, a strong foundation in L1 can positively impact L2 speaking skills by providing a base for understanding complex linguistic structures (de Jong et al., 2012). These individual characteristics, along with the fear of making mistakes and low self-confidence (Demir, 2017), collectively contribute to the perception of speaking as the most challenging language skill to master.

External factors such as task type, task conditions, and the use of speaking strategies also significantly affect L2 speaking performance. Different types of tasks can elicit varying levels of proficiency; for instance, the nature of the task, whether it is a spontaneous conversation or a structured oral exam, can impact a learner's performance (Kılınç & Yıldırım, 2020). Uncontrolled conditions, such as background noise and the presence of an audience, can also distract and affect a learner's ability to speak fluently and coherently. Additionally, the strategic use of communication techniques, such as vlogging or participating in communication workshops, has been shown to enhance speaking proficiency by providing practical and interactive practice opportunities (Wang & Vásquez, 2014). Social factors are compelling, as well. The extent of practice, previous interaction with native speakers, or even the presence of a supportive interlocutor can significantly influence the proficiency level during assessment.

Effective speaking performance entails not only the content of what is said but also the manner in which it is articulated. This includes features such as intonation, stress, and rhythm, which contribute to the natural flow of speech (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Furthermore, mastering non-verbal communication cues, such as gestures and facial expressions, can significantly impact the clarity and reception of spoken language. Additionally, pragmatic competence or using appropriate language depending on the context, significantly impacts the outcome of L2 speaking. Pragmatic competence requires idiomatic expressions and cultural

references correctly considered (Canale & Swain, 1980). For instance, using idiomatic expressions like "kick the bucket" instead of "die" demonstrates a higher level of speaking proficiency as it reflects familiarity with colloquial language. However, selecting the correct register is essential; speaking in an overly casual manner in a formal setting can make one appear unprofessional or even foolish. For example, using the phrase "kick the bucket" instead of "passed away" in a conversation about a respected individual can sound disrespectful. This choice of words would be inappropriate and could diminish the seriousness of the situation.

2.2.3 Assessing speaking performance

Assessing speaking performance is a complex process that requires appropriate evaluation methods. In applied linguistic evaluations, especially in language education, speaking proficiency has been assessed by various experts using different reference levels, scales, and criteria. Moreover, dynamic assessment has emerged as a valuable tool for evaluating speaking proficiency, emphasizing the interactive nature of language learning and assessment (Poehner & Wang, 2020). Despite the progress made in understanding and evaluation of speaking proficiency, reliable grading of performance remains very difficult. However, a combination of traditional assessment methods and innovative approaches can provide a more accurate and supportive assessment.

Speaking assessments evaluate various aspects of oral communication to provide a comprehensive picture. One common approach is analytic scoring, which assesses distinct components such as pronunciation, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and interactional competence. This method offers a detailed evaluation that highlights specific strengths and weaknesses (Luoma, 2004). Another method is task-based assessment, which evaluates learners' ability to perform specific communicative tasks in realistic contexts, such as interviews and role-plays. This approach allows learners to demonstrate their ability to use language spontaneously and appropriately. Standardized tests, such as the IELTS Speaking Test, assess a

range of speaking competencies through structured and semi-structured interviews (Luoma, 2004). Peer assessment and self-assessment are less common but promote learner autonomy (Iwashita, 2022). Additionally, technological tools, such as language learning apps and online platforms, offer innovative ways to assess speaking performance through recorded responses and immediate automated feedback (Iwashita, 2022). Indeed, computer-assisted language testing has gained popularity and is usually considered reliable.

Evaluating individuals' speaking performances and discussing the implications of these evaluations can be significantly challenging. De Jong et al. (2012) explain the differences between first and second language speakers in this regard. Speaking proficiency, as a cornerstone of general language proficiency, enables individuals to communicate successfully in both personal and professional contexts. Demir (2017) has examined the challenges faced by Turkish learners in English speaking classes, emphasizing the importance of addressing the underlying reasons for these difficulties. He identifies key challenges such as anxiety, lack of vocabulary, pronunciation difficulties, and limited opportunities for practice. Therefore, a comprehensive approach to developing speaking proficiency should integrate various elements to foster a more authentic communicative competence.

2.3 The Interplay Between Collocational Competence and Speaking Performance

Native speakers often use collocations in authentic materials, which can be a significant indicator of speaking proficiency. Research has shown that the ability to use collocations effectively is associated with oral proficiency (Saito, 2020; Uchihara et al., 2021). A learner's ability to use collocations correctly typically signals that they have understood how the target language is used in daily life through substantial exposure. Macis and Schmitt (2016) emphasize the importance of collocational knowledge in activities that require language production. Collocations require not only an understanding of the language's grammar and

vocabulary but also its cultural and discourse contexts. Understanding and effectively using collocations aids in producing contextually appropriate and comprehensible speech in a second language (Saito, 2020). This competence aids in faster language processing and retrieval, leading to more fluent and spontaneous speech. Additionally, it helps speakers convey precise meanings and reduces the possibility of misunderstandings. Therefore, improving collocational competence is crucial for achieving higher levels of speaking proficiency in a second language.

Uchihara et al. (2021) investigate the link between L2 learners' collocation knowledge and oral proficiency through a corpus-based approach. By employing a word association task and analyzing collocational strength using frequency, t-scores, and MI scores, they found that speakers who produced low-frequency collocations were perceived as more fluent, with fewer silent pauses. The study highlights the importance of collocation knowledge in shaping lexical richness and fluency, suggesting that learners with a richer lexicon demonstrate higher oral proficiency.

Saito (2020) examined the impact of collocational complexity on raters' judgments of L2 learners' speaking performance, focusing on how the use of more complex, less frequent collocations influenced comprehensibility and lexical appropriateness ratings. The study found that learners who produced more advanced collocations received higher speaking scores, emphasizing the importance of not just using collocations, but also the quality of the collocations in determining oral proficiency. This research is relevant to the present study as it underscores the role of collocational competence in speaking performance, offering insights into how different aspects of collocational use—such as complexity and frequency—can affect speaking outcomes, complementing findings on collocational knowledge and its general influence on oral proficiency.

Furthermore, formulaic sequences, such as idioms and collocations, have been identified as a significant predictor of language proficiency and fluency (Rafieyan, 2018;

Yücedal & Kara, 2023), by reducing pauses in spoken communication (Nergis, 2021). Collocational competence enhances speaking proficiency by improving fluency, accuracy, and coherence, facilitating native-like speech. Qader (2018) discussed that collocational mistakes may lead to a lack of clarity that does not sound quite natural. Moreover, the use of high-frequency multi-word units has been linked to improved speech rate and listening perception, leading to less cognitive load (McGuire & Larson-Hall, 2021). Additionally, productive vocabulary knowledge has been linked to second language oral ability (Uchihara & Saito, 2016). Miralpeix and Muñoz (2018) uncover the relationship between receptive vocabulary size and EFL language skills, meaning the larger the vocabulary size, the better language proficiency. In conclusion, developing collocational competence, a part of formulaic sequences and vocabulary proficiency, is essential for developing communicative competence, thereby improving overall speaking proficiency in second language learners.

2.4 Cognitive Processes Involved in Collocation Use During Speaking

The processing required for using collocations while speaking involves multiple complex stages. Firstly, collocational competence requires the rapid recall of appropriate word combinations from long-term memory, a process accelerated by exposure and practice (Wray, 2002). This recall is influenced by the speaker's familiarity with the collocations, which aids in reducing cognitive load and increasing processing speed, a concept known as lexical access. Secondly, the activation of these word combinations must be parallel to the contextual and syntactic demands of the conversation (Wray, 2002). In other words, correct grammatical structures and appropriate situations must be considered in collocation choice. Furthermore, the use of collocations necessitates spontaneous monitoring. Speakers must continuously evaluate their responses for accuracy, fluency, and coherence, making corrections when necessary. This

process of automaticity allows for smooth and rapid speech without extensive conscious thought.

Additionally, Takizawa (2024) claims that effective processing of collocations can enable more natural and fluent speech. His research demonstrates that faster and more accurate retrieval of common word combinations reduces pauses and interruptions. High-frequency collocations, in particular, are processed more quickly, as they are more familiar to learners and thus easier to access during spontaneous communication.

In addition, the processing of high-frequency collocations has been observed to have a priming effect, even when the collocates are not semantically associated, which proves the complexity of collocational processing (Öksüz et al., 2020). The acquisition of collocations involves processing frequently co-occurring novel pairs, emphasizing the importance of exposure frequency in this learning process (Pellicer-Sánchez et al., 2022). Studies have shown that both advanced native speakers and advanced second language speakers are sensitive to second language collocational frequency (Wolter & Yamashita, 2017), emphasizing the significance of collocational processing in language proficiency.

Öksüz et al. (2020) examined the cognitive processing of collocations in both L1 and L2 speakers, focusing on the effects of word and collocational frequency, as well as association measures. The study used an acceptability judgment task to analyze response times for different types of adjective-noun pairs, comparing high-frequency, low-frequency, and baseline items. Their findings indicated that both L1 and L2 speakers are sensitive to collocational frequency, though L2 speakers demonstrated reduced sensitivity compared to native speakers. This suggests that while advanced L2 learners can recognize and process collocations, their processing efficiency may still lag behind that of L1 speakers, especially for less frequent combinations. This research provides insights into the cognitive mechanisms underlying collocation use, supporting the idea that frequency and familiarity play significant roles in fluent

language use, which is crucial for understanding how L2 learners manage collocational knowledge during speaking tasks.

When learners engage in authentic materials, whether for educational or recreational purposes, they encounter instances of native-like selection. According to Pawley and Syder (1983), native speakers usually choose idiomatic usage over many other grammatically correct paraphrases that don't stand out, recognizing idioms and other examples of formulaic language as salient. Wolter and Yamashita (2017) have stated that collocations can aid in deducing meanings even without recognizing the collocation as a whole, emphasizing the importance of individual word knowledge in processing collocations. The ability to group and code some words as single units is known as chunking, which aids in fluent speech production. This concept of native-like processing, along with lexical access, automaticity, and idiomaticity, is crucial for understanding why non-native speakers often sound unnatural.

2.5 Recent Studies and the Synthesis

Recent studies have emphasized the importance of collocations in second language speech comprehensibility and lexical appropriateness. Saito (2020) explores how the use of low-frequency, abstract, and complex collocations can significantly influence native speakers' judgments of L2 speech in terms of both comprehensibility and contextual appropriateness. This research highlights the role of collocational use as a key determinant of L2 proficiency, suggesting that the ability to use collocations effectively can enhance learners' oral communication skills. The findings underscore the broader impact of collocational knowledge on speaking performance, which aligns with other studies focusing on formulaic language and oral fluency.

Yazdandoost et al. (2014) explored the relationship between collocation knowledge and the proficiency of Iranian EFL learners across the four language skills: reading, writing,

speaking, and listening. Their study revealed significant correlations between collocation knowledge and proficiency in all skills, with the highest correlation found in speaking. This finding indicates that collocations play a central role in developing overall language proficiency, including oral skills.

Abdullah et al. (2015) explored the relationship between learners' collocational competence and their speaking proficiency in an EFL context. The study assessed university students' ability to use collocations accurately and examined how this impacted their overall performance in speaking tasks. The researchers found that students who demonstrated a higher understanding of lexical collocations were more successful in their speaking assessments. This study highlights the significance of collocational knowledge as a crucial component of effective oral communication, suggesting that mastery of collocations can facilitate fluency and improve the naturalness of speech.

Yücedal and Kara (2023) explored the effects of formulaic sequences (FS), particularly collocations and idioms, on EFL learners' oral proficiency using a quasi-experimental design. Their study involved 60 first-year university students in Iraq, divided into two experimental groups. One received collocation-enriched education and the other idiom-enriched education. The control group followed the standard curriculum. The findings indicated that both experimental groups outperformed the control group, demonstrating the positive impact of FS on speaking proficiency.

Vu and Peters (2022) analyzed existing research on the role of formulaic sequences in L2 speaking. They argue that L2 learners who use more formulaic sequences tend to exhibit higher proficiency levels, as formulaic sequences allow faster speech processing and smoother communication. Their findings highlight the importance of multiword expressions, including collocations, for improving fluency and speech rate.

The theoretical framework of the present study is the Communicative Competence Model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), which outlines four key components. This model was utilized to analyze the participants' oral performances by examining their ability to accurately use collocations within each domain of communicative competence. Grammatical competence was reflected in the correct form and structure of collocations, discourse competence in how well collocations contributed to the cohesion and coherence of speech, strategic competence in the use of collocations to overcome communication difficulties, and sociolinguistic competence in the appropriateness of collocational usage across various contexts. In light of the theory, the present study aims to offer a better understanding of the role of collocations in oral communication.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The present study adopts an exploratory, correlational, and quantitative research design. First, the exploratory nature of this study attempts to uncover patterns within the data that have not been comprehensively studied in the context of Turkish university students. In this respect, the research does not control variables to observe certain results but reveals potential connections between the specified variables. By investigating the number of collocations recognized and then used in spontaneous speech, the study aims to reach outcomes in a natural light.

Next, the correlational design allows the study to identify the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables. This approach is useful for determining whether a high level of collocational knowledge is associated with better speaking performance, and with more collocations produced while speaking. At the same time, it must be noted that a correlational design does not imply that the variables cause each other to increase or decrease but it can indicate valuable trends that can inform future research.

Finally, by utilizing quantitative methods, the study was able to collect easily measurable, statistical data. This approach enables an objective data analysis of the connections between collocation scores, speaking scores, and the number of collocations used in spontaneous speech. This design allows for a comprehensive analysis of how collocational knowledge interacts with speaking performance.

3.2 Participants

The present study was conducted at a state university in Antalya with the written consent of the participants (n=67). The population of the present study consists of first-year

university students enrolled in the English Language Teaching program. The participating pre-service teachers were aged 18-28, 22 of whom are male and 45 are female. Throughout the study, the participants are described as young adults since the majority of them were 18-19, had not yet developed a professional identity, and still had ongoing L2 development.

All participants were independent or proficient users of English at a B1 or higher proficiency level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, in other words, intermediate to advanced level speakers. This classification indicates that they had sufficient language skills to engage in spontaneous conversations, express opinions with some fluency, and interact with native speakers (Global scale: Common Reference, 2023). The university has an entry requirement of a language proficiency test, ensuring that the students speak English at least at an intermediate level.

The participants were selected through convenience sampling, with an aim to include all students enrolled in the same course in the same program. This method was chosen to ensure that the study sample was representative and easily accessible. Participation was voluntary and anonymity was ensured throughout the process. Before data collection, participants were properly informed about the study, its nature, its objectives, and its methods, following a clear explanation of their involvement so that they were aware of their rights. Then, a consent form was distributed and signed, during which they were reminded that they could withdraw at any stage.

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

The present study utilized two primary data collection instruments: the Collocational Knowledge Test (CKT) and the Speaking Proficiency Test (SPT). The CKT assesses the participants' receptive collocational knowledge while The SPT measures the following aspects of speaking proficiency: coherence, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. These

tests were chosen to provide a thorough statistical assessment of participants' ability to recognize collocations and their overall speaking performance.

The research did not involve any instructional interventions because the primary objective was to observe how learners naturally use collocations in spontaneous speech, and how it relates to their current level of competence without the influence of a controlled environment. This approach leads to a more authentic assessment of participants' language use. By exploring authentic language use, the study aims to offer a clearer picture of how existing skills impact oral proficiency and what potential benefits could emerge, even without direct instruction.

3.3.1 Collocational knowledge test

This test was designed and first administered by Gyllstad (2009) with the name COLLEX (See Appendix A). It consists of 50 items measuring the participants' knowledge of verb-noun collocations, covering a range of contexts from everyday to academic. Each item requires participants to identify the target collocation alongside two distractors by distinguishing between the formulaic expression and more literal combinations. The verb-noun pairs in each option either form a new, idiomatic meaning or express a meaning directly related to the individual words within the pair. After choosing the correct option, participants were asked to write down the translation of the chosen verb-noun pair into L1. This step was intended to ensure that even if they selected the correct option, their choice was not random, and it would allow for further interpretation of data from error patterns if needed.

The CKT is an effective tool for measuring receptive knowledge of collocations with its structured format. It was selected for its reliability and its multiple-choice format. The test design makes it easier to administer and participants can demonstrate their understanding without complex responses. In order to administer the test, written permission was obtained from the author via e-mail (See Appendix D). The test was used in its original form with no

adjustments. Therefore, the initial pilot testing was conducted with Swedish university students. The reliability scores exceeded the benchmark ($\alpha = 0.84$) with evidence of construct and concurrent validity (Gyllstad, 2009).

3.3.2 Speaking proficiency test

This test consists of 18 question items that were designed by the researcher according to the standards of international language assessments, along with a speaking assessment rubric. The question items (See Appendix B) cover a range of topics and difficulty levels to measure various aspects of speaking proficiency. The open-ended items ranged from casual, conversational topics to more formal, academic settings. These speaking prompts were designed to elicit authentic language in three main themes: personal experiences, describing various situations, and comparing debated opinions. These themes are aligned with those in each part of the IELTS speaking test (IELTS Academic Format, 2024). The SPT questions were refined through pilot tests conducted with the researcher's own students, who shared similar language proficiency levels to the study participants. These students went through a similar procedure to the study participants to ensure that the prompts, as well as the rubric, were clear and effective for assessing speaking skills.

Additionally, a speaking assessment rubric (See Appendix C) was adapted from the IELTS framework for the specific context of this study. The rubric was designed to evaluate performance across five components: coherence, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. It included clear descriptors for each component of speaking proficiency, with scores ranging from 1 to 5. The total possible score ranges from 5 (*basic*) to 25 (*proficient*). The original rubric was adapted for a simpler structure while maintaining consistency with established assessment criteria. For example, fluency and coherence were listed as separate components with distinct focus points to emphasize the ability to sustain communication.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The data were collected in two stages. First, the participants were divided into two groups to take the CKT in different classrooms in an attempt to ensure a balanced distribution. Prior to the test, participants were fully informed about both tests to prevent misunderstandings. Clear instructions were given, and the consent form was signed. Participants were assured there were no penalties for not wishing to be included in the study. They were given a few minutes to ask questions if needed. Then, the CKT was administered in pen and paper, in which participants were asked to select the correct word pairings from a set of options in 30 minutes. Each participant completed the test individually, under supervision, with minimized distractions.

Next, the participants were asked to pair up and wait for their turn to take the SPT. The speaking assessments were conducted in an office where participants entered in pairs. Each pair was asked to randomly choose a speaking card and have a conversation with each other about the topic presented. The prompts were selected to elicit spontaneous, sustained speech but the participants adjusted the depth of discussion according to their level. All data collection sessions took place in a quiet environment without interruptions. Each speaking session lasted approximately 8 minutes and was recorded for later reference. Two raters independently scored the performances using the rubric to ensure reliable evaluation and minimal bias. Disagreements were discussed for fair scoring.

The whole data collection process was carried out within a day over several sessions, and consistent conditions were provided for all participants. The data gathered from the tools adhered to research ethics standards. For example, the participants' confidentiality was protected throughout the study. The collected data were analyzed to explore the extent of the relationship between collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency among pre-service EFL teachers.

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Data preparation

In this study, thorough data preparation was undertaken to ensure the accuracy and reliability of the analysis. Initially, the CKT responses were organized and entered into a spreadsheet (See Appendix E), where each column represented a test item, and each row corresponded to an individual participant's answer. Responses were coded numerically, indicating the multiple-choice options. Correct answers were visually highlighted to be quickly identified. This method allowed for an opportunity to observe response patterns across participants, such as identifying common errors or collocations correctly recognized more times than others.

The SPT results were entered into a spreadsheet (See Appendix E) and the dataset included student number, coherence, fluency, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and total speaking scores, with an addition of total collocation scores and the number of collocations produced in speech, all carefully organized and processed. The collocations produced during speaking performance were transcribed from the recordings, listed, and then counted. This method would minimize the likelihood of errors during the analysis process, as opposed to determining which collocations were correctly produced in real-time observation.

The data was then organized to visually represent each participant's performance, and scores were color-coded for easier identification of trends and inconsistencies across all variables. This approach enabled a clear and organized analysis. For example, lower scores were highlighted in red while higher scores were shown in green. Finally, the prepared data was transferred to data management software for statistical analysis.

3.5.2 Statistical treatment of the data

The statistical analysis aimed to understand the interplay between collocations and speaking. All collected data were analyzed using computer-based statistical software, namely Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics 27. For the visualization of findings, artificial intelligence was utilized. First, the data preparation process was completed in Excel. This step helped identify patterns outliers at first glance. Then, the data was imported into SPSS for descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation, revealing tendencies and variability. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between collocation scores and speaking scores.

Additionally, this study investigated the extent to which collocations were used in speaking performance. Scores were grouped into categories by the number of collocations used during speech: *low, medium, and high*. This approach allowed a comparison of how knowledge and production of collocations interact.

The inter-rater reliability, or the agreement between the total speaking scores by the two raters, was calculated with the percentage of close agreement method, where ratings within one point of each other were considered in agreement. This approach led to a score of 86%, reflecting a high level of consistency.

After the data was analyzed, visual depictions of the findings were created using specialized tools of artificial intelligence. This included customized scatter plots, line graphs, and pie charts that demonstrate the correlations that were discovered or illustrate the absence of those not discovered. These steps were crucial in presenting accurate and visually supported findings. The combination of analysis techniques enabled precise statistical treatment with a solid foundation for interpreting the results.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The analysis of the collected data aims to explore the relationships between young adult EFL learners' receptive collocational competence, their speaking proficiency, and the frequency of collocation use in their spontaneous speech. This section presents the findings derived from the dataset, demonstrating key patterns, correlations, and exceptions among the participants. The following interpretations provide insights into how collocational knowledge influences speaking performance and the use of collocations in communication.

To obtain the findings presented in this chapter, the data collected from the participants were carefully analyzed in multiple steps. First, the scores from the data collection tools were organized into color-coded datasets for a more consistent and accurate analysis. Subsequently, relevant variables were identified as the knowledge of selected verb + noun collocations, overall speaking proficiency consisting of five components and frequency of collocations used during speaking. The complexity of their speech later came under scrutiny as well after the findings unfolded about the complexity and number of collocations they produced. Three software programs were used to carry out statistical and correlational analyses, in addition to creating precise visuals to represent the findings.

4.1 RQ1: Is there a correlation between young adult EFL learners' receptive collocational competence and speaking proficiency?

To address the first research question, the scores from CKT and SPT were categorized by their range. The relationship between collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency was calculated using descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation as well as inferential statistics of correlation analysis. This analysis determined the strength and direction of the relationship between these two variables.

The first set of data revealed a positive correlation between the learners' receptive collocational competence and their overall speaking proficiency. Table 1 presents the sample size (n), the mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and the correlation coefficient between CKT scores (1) and SPT scores (2). This table contributes to answering RQ1 by establishing the basic relationship between collocation scores and speaking scores.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics and correlations for CKT and SPT

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2
1. Total collocation score	67	31.36	6.93	—	.459***
2. Total speaking score	67	20.04	2.66	.459***	—
*** $p < .001$					

According to Table 1, 67 pre-service EFL teachers took part in the present study and the average score they received was 31.36 out of 50 in CKT, a moderately good performance. A standard deviation of 6.93 points above or below this mean score indicates a moderate level of variability in their performance. In addition, the participants scored, on average, 20.04 out of 25 in SPT, which reflects an upper-medium level of achievement. A standard deviation of 2.66 points above or below this mean score indicates a relatively consistent level of performance among the group. Regarding the interplay between the two sets of scores, Table 1 demonstrates a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.459$) between the variables and the correlation is statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.001$). This suggests that participants who have a higher recognition of collocations tend to perform better in their speaking performance and there is a low probability that this correlation occurs by chance. Consequently, the

correlation for the first research question is not strong yet it is likely a true relationship in the population studied. This correlation lays the foundation for the overall relationship to be disclosed throughout the present study.

For more detailed results, collocation scores were also compared to the scores in each component of speaking. Table 2 presents the correlations between CKT scores and all five components that were assessed via SPT. Among these, coherence represents the logical flow of the arguments and the clarity of speech, fluency represents the speed and ease of speech delivery, grammar represents the accuracy and complexity of grammatical structures, vocabulary represents the accuracy and complexity of the vocabulary, and pronunciation represents the accuracy of speech sounds. The correlation coefficients indicate the strength and direction of the relationship while the significance level denotes whether this relationship is consistent across all participants and unlikely to be a result of randomness.

Table 2

Correlations for CKT and components of SPT

Variable	coherence	fluency	grammar	vocabulary	pronunciation
1. Total collocation score	.370**	.361**	.489**	.461**	.388**

** $p < .01$

Table 2 shows that the strongest positive correlation is observed with grammar ($r = 0.489$), though still on a moderate level. This suggests that higher knowledge of collocations is associated with better grammatical accuracy and complexity in speaking to a notable degree. The weakest correlation is with fluency ($r = 0.361$) on a weak to moderate level, though still statistically significant. This indicates that while there is a relationship between collocation knowledge and fluency in speaking, it is not strong. In other words, there is some tendency for

learners who did well in recognizing collocations to also perform well in speaking fast with minimal pauses, but many learners may not follow this pattern. Moreover, the correlations between collocation scores and scores in each component of speaking are statistically significant ($p = < 0.01$), which means there is less than 1% chance that the observed correlations in Table 2 have occurred randomly. This suggests that receptive collocational knowledge has a meaningful impact across all assessed aspects of speaking proficiency.

To better understand the data, the participants' scores were grouped into five categories, ranging from the lowest to the highest received. The numbers of collocations produced during the speaking assessment were also included in the data analysis after a process of recording, listing, and counting each word pairing used by the participants during their speaking performance. Table 3 categorizes these scores across all data collection methods, providing corresponding score ranges for the CKT and the SPT in addition to the number of collocations produced while speaking. Table 3 was designed to address RQ1 by providing a clearer picture of how learners performed across different score groups. The categorizations of scores for all the data collection methods were carefully designed based on the difficulty of assessments and the overall proficiency level of the participants, who were pre-service EFL teachers. Moreover, the categorization aimed for a balanced distribution of participants across the score ranges where necessary, due to the clustering of similar scores observed within the data. This method was implemented to reduce potential biases that could arise from having score groups with disproportionate sizes, enabling a fair representation of the participants' performance.

Table 3*Scores received in all data collection methods*

Score category	Score range of the CKT (out of 50)	Score range of the SPT (out of 25)	Number of collocations produced (NCP)
Very high	38-49	-	-
High	32-37	20.5-25	9-15
Medium	26-31	16-20.25	5-8
Low	20-25	13.5-15.75	1-4
Very low	17-19	-	0

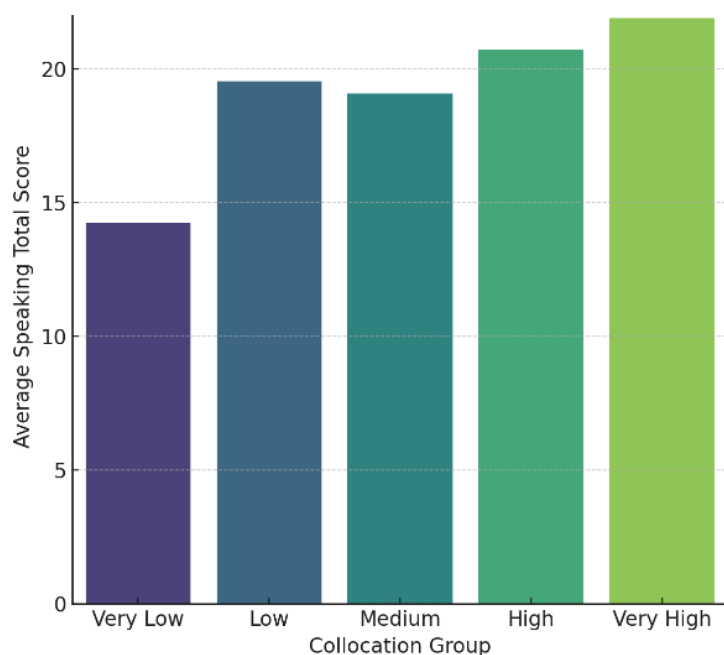
Table 3 provides an overview of the participants' proficiency across three metrics. The categorization of CKT scores reveals that the participants' collocational knowledge varies significantly, with the lowest score of 17 and the highest score of 49. Many learners' scores fall into the *medium* range, with 21 scoring in this category, and the *high* range, with 19 scoring in this category, out of 67 total learners. This distribution suggests that while many participants recognize collocations well, there is still a noticeable spread in competencies. The SPT score ranges display a similar pattern concentrated in the *medium* range, with 31 scoring in this category, and the *high* range, with 32 scoring in this category out of 67 total learners. The absence of a *very high* range is due to the maximum achievable score limit of 25 and the necessity of allowing some variation within each score group. The absence of a *very low* range is because no participant scored lower than 13.5. In terms of the frequency of collocations used in speech, there is a noticeable clustering in the *medium* range, with 32 scoring in this category. The learners' ability to use a certain number of collocations during the speaking performance shows some variation, with the highest number being 15 and the lowest being 0. The absence

of a *very high* NCP category is due to the limited range of collocations produced, with 15 as the maximum score. The scale was adjusted considering this narrow distribution. The presence of the *low* and *very low* categories suggests that some individuals may require further support. Moreover, the majority of scores fall below the average of 6.49. Overall, the data presented in Table 3 highlights the need for differentiated instruction and classroom activities to boost collocation use while speaking.

Figure 1, a bar chart, visualizes the relationship between collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency. The figure enables a comparison of the average speaking scores across all collocation score groups. The horizontal axis categorizes participants into five groups scored in the CKT, ranging from very low to very high. The vertical axis represents the average score received in the SPT by each group. This figure is necessary for illustrating how speaking scores vary across different collocation groups, exhibiting the connection between receptive collocational competence and overall speaking proficiency.

Figure 1

The ratio of speaking scores to collocation score groups



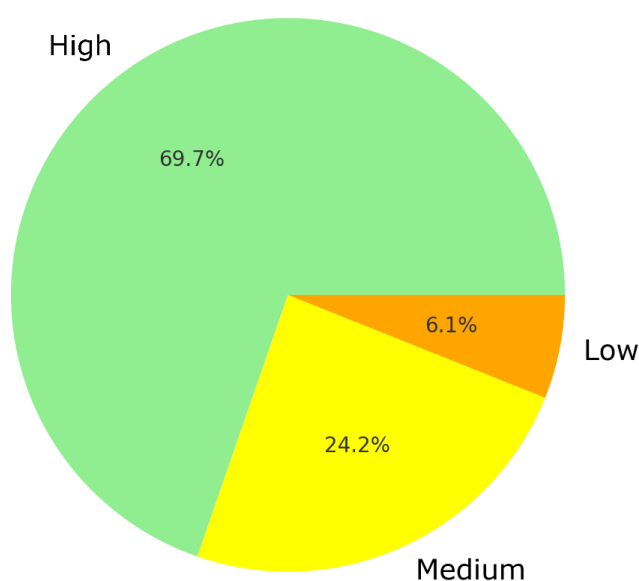
According to Figure 1, apart from the *low* and *medium* collocation groups, who scored similar in speaking, the data is consistent. There is a clear upward trend, meaning that as the collocation score increases, so does the speaking score. This relationship indicates that a good command of collocations can play a part in improving speaking, possibly due to their contribution to fluency and coherence. The bars representing the *medium*, *high*, and *very high* collocation score groups show relatively high average speaking scores closely together. This clustering suggests that once a certain level of collocation knowledge is attained, participants are likely to achieve higher speaking proficiency. The wide distinction between the *very low* and *very high* groups further supports this by implying that significant improvements in speaking proficiency can be achieved by enhancing collocational knowledge.

The following figures offer a deeper analysis of the patterns and trends in the data, providing an answer to RQ1 from a distinctive perspective by allowing a visual examination of the connection between collocations and speaking. The pie charts in Figure 2 and Figure 3 clearly depict how participants' speaking scores are distributed across different collocation score groups.

The first pie chart (Figure 2) represents the percentage distribution of the SPT scores among participants classified as high achievers in the CKT. It is divided into three segments representing different levels of speaking proficiency: high, medium, and low. The *high* segment, shown in green, illustrates the portion of high achievers in both tests. The *medium* segment, represented in yellow, shows the percentage of participants who attained a medium level of speaking proficiency, while the *low* segment in orange represents those with lower speaking proficiency. Each segment is labeled with the corresponding percentage, showing the proportion of SPT scores within the group of high CKT achievers. Unlike the figures that provide a general overview, Figure 2 specifically focuses on participants whose CKT scores were above the mean, representing those in the *high* and *very high* collocation score groups.

Figure 2

Percentage distribution of the SPT scores of high achievers in the CKT

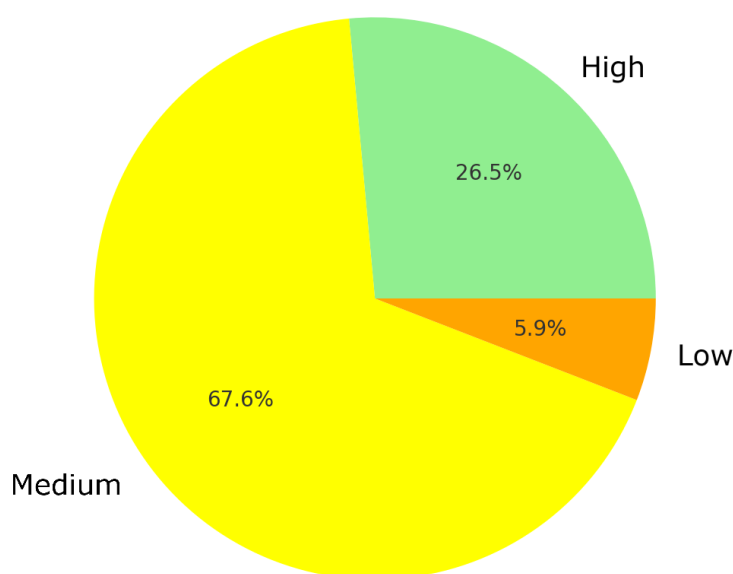


According to Figure 2, the *high* segment makes up the largest portion of the chart. A substantial percentage (69.7%) of participants with strong collocational knowledge also scored within the *high* range for speaking proficiency. Participants who performed well on the CKT have been found to be highly likely to also excel in the SPT. This indicates a close correlation between a strong mastery of collocations and higher speaking ability. Although these participants achieved high scores in the CKT, a considerable minority (24.2%) fell into the *medium* speaking proficiency range. This suggests that while collocation knowledge contributes significantly to speaking performance, it may not always lead to the highest scores for all individuals. Finally, only 6.1% of them scored in the *low* category, reinforcing the idea that strong collocation knowledge generally supports better speaking proficiency. This small portion implies that participants who can recognize collocations are generally less likely to struggle with speaking tasks. This finding further highlights the importance of collocational knowledge to support overall language proficiency.

The second pie chart (Figure 3) presents how much the low achievers in the CKT scored in the SPT as in percentage distribution. It is also divided into three segments, representing the levels of speaking proficiency determined earlier in the chapter. The *high* segment in green represents high scores in the SPT while achieving low scores in the CKT. The *medium* segment in yellow shows the percentage of participants with medium speaking abilities and low scores in the CKT. The *low* segment in orange illustrates the portion of low achievers in both tests. Figure 3 specifically focuses on participants whose CKT scores were below the mean, representing those in the *low* and *very low* collocation score groups.

Figure 3

Percentage distribution of the SPT scores of low achievers in the CKT



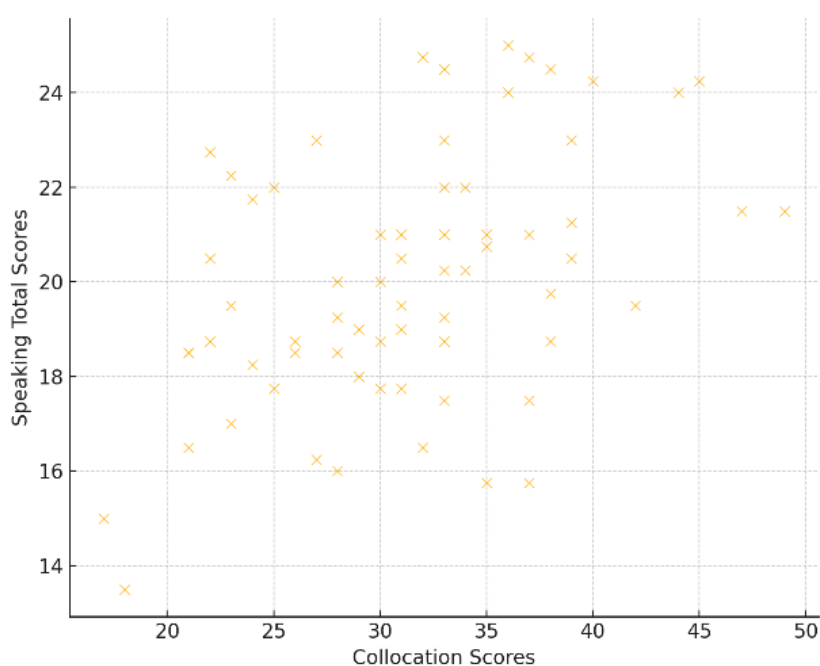
The largest proportion (67.6%) of the participants in Figure 3 scored in the *medium* segment. This indicates that even among participants with lower collocational knowledge, many managed to achieve a moderate level of speaking competence. Despite the lower CKT scores, slightly over a quarter of participants (26.5%) were still able to perform speaking at the *high* range. This percentage points out the presence of other factors affecting speaking

proficiency. Only a small percentage of participants (5.9%) scored in the *low* category for both tests, suggesting that most low achievers in the CKT successfully avoided scoring low in the SPT. The figure reveals a weak correlation between low collocational knowledge and low speaking performance, further supporting the role of factors influencing L2 speaking other than the ability to recognize and understand L2 collocations.

In addition to the distribution of scores across groups, it is necessary to explore the dataset for variability. By considering individual data points, specific cases of divergence from the overall trend can be detected. Figure 4 is a scatter plot that displays the relationship between participants' collocation scores and speaking scores, taking a perspective that can enable the detection of such divergence. The horizontal axis represents the CKT scores, while the vertical axis represents the SPT scores. Each cross on the figure represents an individual participant's score in both categories.

Figure 4

Correlations for the CKT scores and the SPT scores in a scatter plot



The scatter plot (Figure 4) illustrates a trend in which higher collocation scores generally correspond to higher speaking scores and the lower scores also tend to be consistent for both tests. The pattern suggests a positive correlation, although the data in this figure does not provide a numerical value to determine the strength of the correlation. The upward trend is most evident in the lowest and highest score ranges; however, some of the data is noticeably dispersed around the general trend. For example, many crosses are concentrated around collocation scores of 30-35 and speaking scores of 18-22, both of which correspond to the medium-to-high-level scores in their component. The clustering in collocation scores coincides with considerable variation in speaking scores. This indicates that while collocational knowledge contributes to speaking ability, other factors also play a role in determining proficiency at this level. Furthermore, outliers can be observed in cases where students with lower CKT scores exhibit relatively higher SPT scores. Conversely, there are cases in which students with higher CKT scores demonstrate lower SPT scores. The presence of outliers suggests variability in learner profiles and other individual differences.

Figure 5, the final figure addressing the RQ1, is a line graph that emphasizes the general trend within the data. It depicts the overall relationship between the CKT and the SPT scores, offering a clear summary of the data. The horizontal axis represents the CKT scores, while the vertical axis represents the SPT scores. Each point on the line corresponds to an average speaking score for a given collocation score. The shaded area around the line represents the variability within the sample, showing how speaking scores fluctuate at different collocation score ranges.

Figure 5

Correlations for the CKT scores and the SPT scores in a line graph

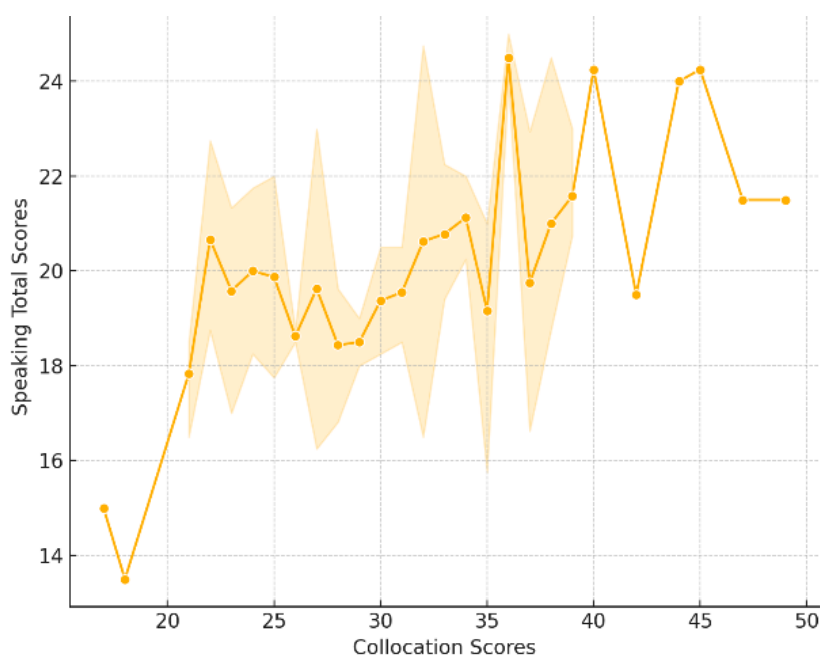


Figure 5 reveals a generally positive relationship between the CKT scores and the SPT scores, with higher collocation scores usually corresponding to higher speaking scores. The trend is upward; however, there are considerable fluctuations. It must be noted, for example, that the students with the highest scores in the SPT were not necessarily the same as the ones with the highest scores in the CKT. Particularly in the *high-range* collocation scores (32-37), speaking scores vary significantly, as represented in the wide-shaded areas. The data becomes more stable in the higher collocation scores, with little variability and consistently higher speaking scores. The peaks and troughs in the shaded area throughout the graph suggest factors beyond collocational knowledge that may influence speaking performance. The absence of a shaded area in the *very high* score range can be explained due to the tight clustering of scores with minimal variability, whereas the absence of a shaded area in the *very low* score range can be explained due to the unreliability of the variability, in that, only 2 participants scored in this range.

4.2 RQ2: Is there a correlation between young adult EFL learners' receptive collocational competence and use of collocations in speaking performance?

To address the second research question, the scores from the CKT and the SPT were utilized again, along with the number of collocations produced orally by each student during their speaking performance. Initially, these collocations were transcribed, and their numbers were counted. Then, the participants' CKT scores were compared with the NCP using descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. Finally, the data were visualized through graphs to improve clarity and to better explore the potential relationship between receptive collocational competence and the actual use of collocations in spoken language.

Table 4 presents two different sets of data for total collocation scores received in the CKT, total speaking scores received in the SPT, and the number of collocations produced during speaking (NCP). The first column lists the variables measured in the present study: the scores received in the CKT (variable 1), the SPT (variable 2), and the NCP (variable 3). The following three columns provide the descriptive statistics, subsequently the means (M), standard deviations (SD), and skewness values for each of these variables. The remaining three columns (1, 2, and 3) display the Pearson correlation coefficients between the variables, with significance levels indicated by asterisks. The table offers an understanding of how collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency relate to the use of collocations in speech.

Table 4*Descriptive statistics and correlations for both test scores and the collocations produced*

Variable	M	SD	Skewness	1	2	3
1. Total collocation score	31.36	6.93	.198	—	.459***	.156
2. Total speaking score	20.04	2.66	.008	.459***	—	.263*
3. Number of collocations used during speaking	6.49	3.56	.730	.156	.263*	—

*** $p < .001$, * $p < .1$

The mean scores received in both the CKT and the SPT have been found to be in the *medium-to-high* range while the mean score received in the NCP is in the *medium* range. In terms of a high standard deviation (3.56) and a distinct positive skewness (.730), NCP (Variable 3) shows notable variability, as most participants used a moderate number of collocations, some used very few, with 17 scoring 1-4 and two scoring 0. This finding suggests considerable inconsistency in how participants apply their receptive collocational competence during speaking tasks. Table 4 demonstrates a moderate positive correlation ($r = 0.459$) between *Variable 1* and *Variable 2* and the correlation is statistically highly significant ($p = < 0.001$), as previously established for the RQ1. However, for the RQ2, the correlation between *Variable 1* and *Variable 3* was weak ($r = 0.156$), and statistically not significant, suggesting no clear relationship between recognizing more collocations and using more collocations in speech. The correlation between *Variable 2* and *Variable 3* was not targeted in the present study but the table offered some connection between the scores of the SPT and the NCP, although weak ($r = 0.263$)

and not conclusive evidence of a relationship ($p = < 0.1$) since there is a 10% chance that the observed relationship occurred randomly.

Building on the statistical correlations presented in Table 4, Figure 6 visually depicts the overall relationship between the participants' receptive collocation competence and how many collocations each participant used in their speaking performance. This line graph provides further insight into the patterns observed regarding how scores on a receptive test might relate to productive ability. The horizontal axis represents the CKT scores, and the vertical axis represents the NCP. The graph illustrates the pattern of collocational usage across different collocation score ranges, with the shaded area showing the variability in the data where individual data points may differ from the trend.

Figure 6

Correlations for the CKT scores and the NCP in a line graph

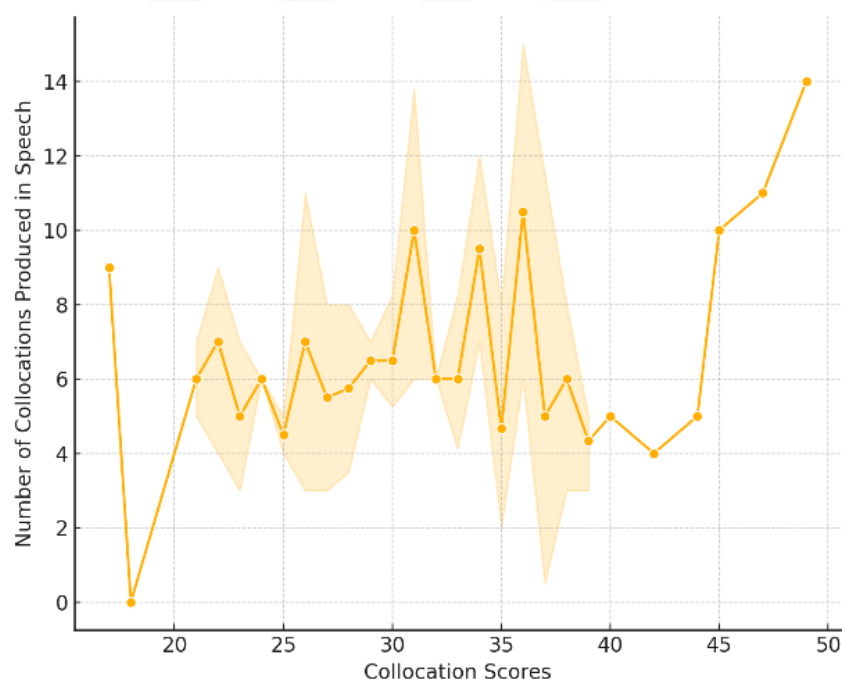
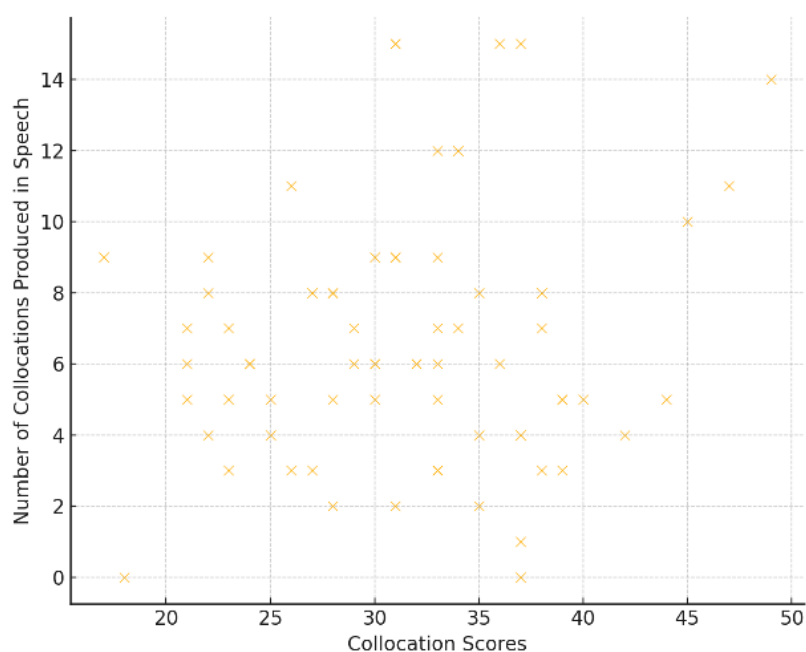


Figure 6 displays a high degree of fluctuations in the number of collocations used across different collocation score ranges, with no consistent upward or downward trend. Indeed, in both the *low* (22-26) and *high* (31-36) ranges, the NCP varies significantly with sharp peaks and troughs. Even at the *very high* end of the collocation scores (42-49), although there is a noticeable increase in collocation use, the pattern is still far from consistent. This indicates a lack of a stable relationship between knowing and using collocations, revealing that collocational knowledge does not reliably predict the density of collocations produced in L2 speech.

Figure 7 displays the spread of the data for easier observation of distribution, density, and potential outliers within the dataset. It offers a more detailed look at individual data points through a scatter plot, which allows for identifying specific trends and variability in the data. The scatter plot visualizes the individual data points in detail, highlighting any clusters to point out how different levels of collocational knowledge influence the use of collocations in speech. The horizontal axis represents the CKT scores while the vertical axis reflects the NCP. Each cross represents an individual participant, showing their performance in collocation usage across different levels of collocational competence.

Figure 7

Correlations for the CKT scores and the NCP in a scatter plot



The most notable aspect of the scatter plot is the absence of a linear pattern of relationship between the collocations recognized as opposed to the collocations produced. The crosses are widely scattered across the plot, suggesting that higher collocation scores do not necessarily correspond to a higher number of collocations used in speech. For example, participants with collocation recognition scores in the *medium-to-high* range (30–37) show significant variation in collocation use. One striking observation was made with two participants, both scoring 37 in the CKT, with one scoring the least NCP (0) and the other scoring the most (15). This observation is another demonstration of the factors beyond collocational knowledge that influence the dynamics of speaking performance regarding the application of that knowledge. Among the participants with the highest NCP (9-15), six fall within the *medium* and *high* collocation score ranges. This suggests that those who produce the most collocations in speech are not necessarily the top performers in the collocation recognition test. Another data point that stands out is observed at the right-center, where a participant,

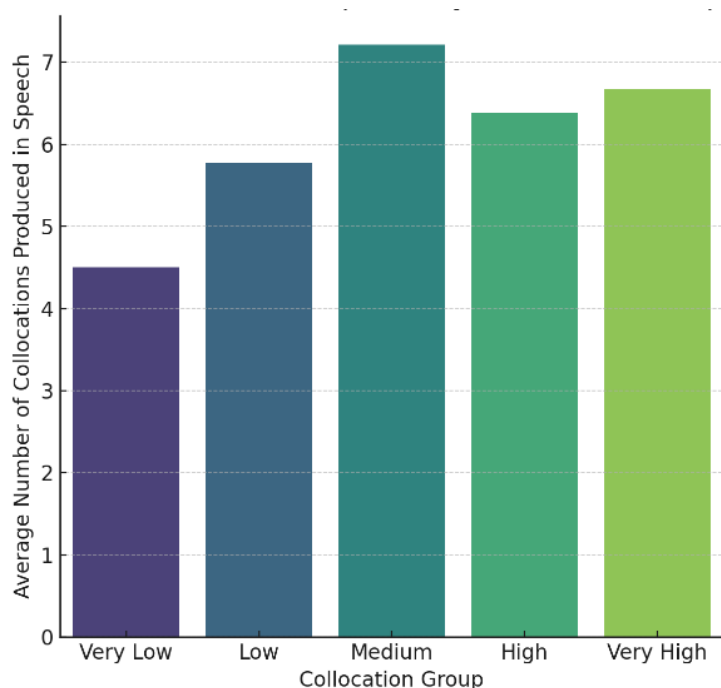
despite scoring *very low* (17) in the CKT, demonstrates a *high* level (9) of NCP in their speaking performance. Finally, at the upper extreme of the scatter plot, there is a noticeable, albeit brief, upward trend. The highest three CKT scores (45, 47, and 49) also correspond to higher NCP values (10, 11, and 14). This suggests that, at the very top end of collocation recognition scores, there is a clearer association with increased collocation production in speech. Overall, the scatter plot reinforces the conclusion that there is no strong or consistent relationship between collocational knowledge and collocation use during speech.

Following the examination of individual variations for the answer to RQ2, it would be also beneficial to shift the focus to a comparison of average collocation use across collocation score groups. This approach would provide a broader perspective on how different levels of collocational knowledge impact productive speech performance.

The bar chart in Figure 8 displays the average NCP across five collocation score groups: *very low*, *low*, *medium*, *high*, and *very high*. The horizontal axis represents the score groups based on the scores received in the CKT, while the vertical axis represents the average number of collocations each group produced during their speaking performance. Each bar represents the average NCP by participants within a different collocation group, enabling a clear comparison of how collocational competence is related to the frequency of collocation usage in spontaneous speech.

Figure 8

Average number of collocations produced in speech across collocation score groups



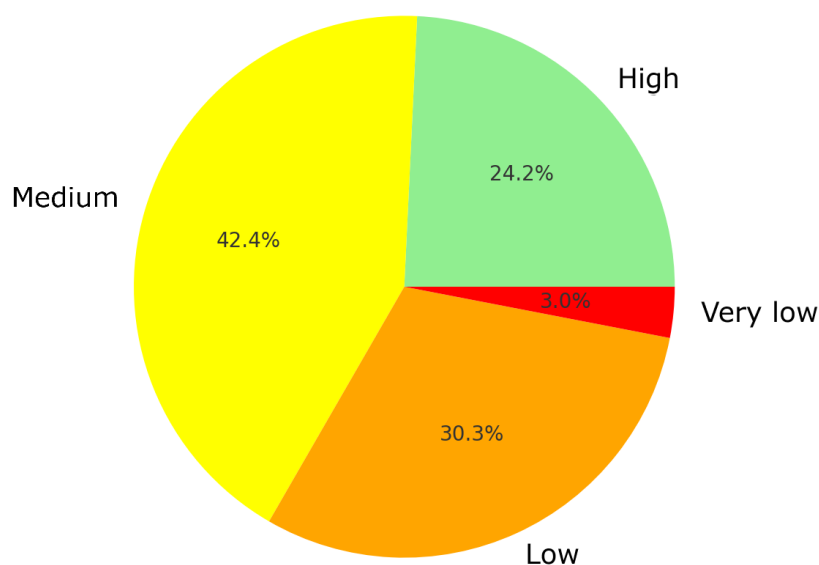
The most striking observation from the bar chart is that the *medium* collocation score group reached the highest average NCP, outperforming even the *very high* collocation score group. This is an unexpected result, as the remaining score groups follow a perfectly consistent upward trend. Participants in the *low* and *very low* collocation score groups produced fewer collocations on average, while participants in the *high* and *very high* groups produced relatively more. This trend is interrupted by the *medium* group, which suggests that possessing higher collocational knowledge does not always translate into a greater number of collocations produced in speaking performance. However, those with less receptive knowledge of collocations would still be less likely to produce many during speaking tasks. This distinction may be due to the difference between the skills that are necessary for recognizing collocations and for using them spontaneously in speech, as well as the influence of other linguistic and cognitive skills on speech production. Overall, Figure 8 reveals a sophisticated relationship between collocational knowledge and its application in speech.

The upcoming pie charts provide a closer examination of the distribution of the NCP by participants according to their achievement in the CKT. Participants who scored above the mean were classified as high achievers, while those scoring below the mean were classified as low achievers. These figures offer insight into how collocation production varies between the two groups in their spoken tasks. The charts also a detailed perspective on the proportional contributions of both groups, contributing to a deeper understanding of the relationship between collocational knowledge and its application in speech.

Figure 9 illustrates how the NCP is distributed among high achievers in the CKT. The pie chart categorizes the NCP into four groups: *very low*, *low*, *medium*, and *high*. The categories are based on how many collocations each participant used while speaking. The figure specifically focuses on participants in the *high* and *very high* collocation score groups, showing how many of them produced collocations with the numbers in each category. This approach offers a clear comparison of spontaneous collocation production among participants who successfully recognized verb + noun collocations.

Figure 9

Percentage distribution of the NCP by high achievers in the CKT

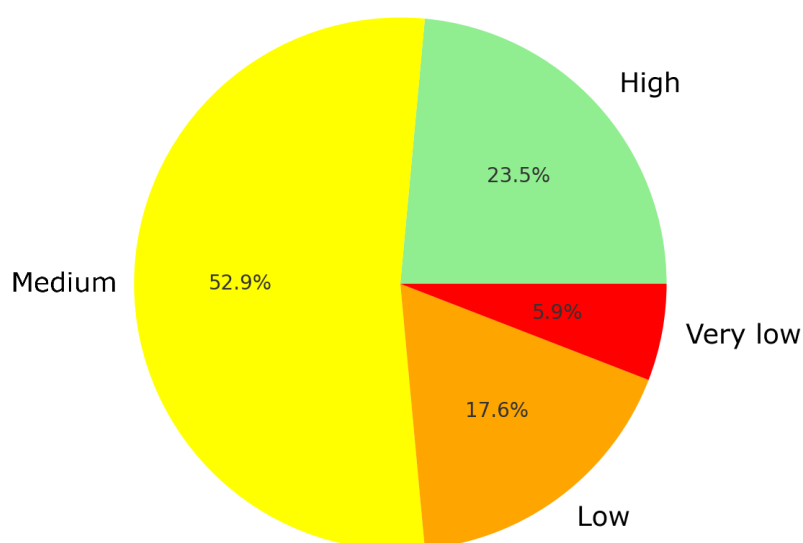


According to Figure 9, the largest proportion of participants (42.4%), though still less than half, produced a *medium* number of collocations during their speaking task. Meanwhile, 30.3% produced a *low* number, followed by 24.2% who fell into the *high* NCP category. Notably, one high achiever in the CKT produced no collocations, corresponding to the 3% in the *very low* category. However, the distribution indicates that most of these high achievers produced medium or lower numbers of collocations, with only 8 participants, roughly one-quarter, producing 9 or more collocations. This suggests that even with strong collocational knowledge, many high achievers did not fully utilize collocations during their speaking performance. Overall, Figure 9 demonstrates that high receptive knowledge of collocations does not always correlate with extensive production of collocations.

The next visualization complements the previous figure by specifically focusing on participants in the *low* and *very low* collocation score groups. Figure 10 displays how the NCP is distributed among these scores in the CKT. The bar chart depicts, in percentage, how many of these low achievers produced *very low*, *low*, *medium*, and *high* numbers of collocations in speech. This method enables a clear view of the spontaneous use of collocations among participants who demonstrated a weaker performance in identifying collocations in a test.

Figure 10

Percentage distribution of the NCP by low achievers in the CKT



According to Figure 10, more than half of the low achievers in the CKT (52.9%) produced a *medium* number of collocations during their speaking performance. This suggests that most participants whose scores were below the mean CKT score were able to produce a moderate number of collocations while speaking. The next largest group (23.5%) fell into the *high* NCP category, which indicates that nearly a quarter of the low achievers used a relatively large number (9-15) of collocations. In this regard, it is observed that lower performance in receptive collocational knowledge does not always predict limited collocation use in spontaneous speech. In contrast, 17.6% of participants produced a *low* number of collocations. The 5.9% in the *very low* category corresponds to the one low achiever in the CKT that produced no collocations. This distribution highlights that, even among low achievers, there is variability in collocation use.

Various analyses were conducted to address RQ2. After noting that the data did not meet assumptions required for a parametric test, such as a normal distribution, Spearman's correlation was chosen as an alternative to Pearson's. Table 5 presents the results of the non-

parametric correlation analysis. This test assesses the association between collocations recognized (CKT scores) and collocations produced (NCP scores). The rows display the variables analyzed, while the columns show the correlation coefficient and its associated significance level. This additional analysis was conducted to verify if the weak association observed with Pearson's correlation holds when tested non-parametrically, in other words, without assuming a linear relationship between the tested variables.

Table 5

Non-parametric correlations for the CKT and the NCP

Variable		1	2	n
1. Total collocation score	Spearman's rho	1.0	.026	67
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.836	67
2. Number of collocations produced	Spearman's rho	.026	1.0	67
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.836	.	67

The Spearman's rho value between the number of collocation recognition scores (CKT) and the number of collocations produced (NCP) is 0.026, indicating a very weak positive correlation. The p-value associated with this correlation is 0.836, which is well above the standard significance level. This means that the correlation is not statistically significant, and any observed relationship is likely due to chance rather than a true association. Consequently, it can be inferred that collocational knowledge does not predict collocation usage in speaking.

4.3 Additional observations

In order to address RQ1 and RQ2, all the data were thoroughly analyzed in terms of general trends, score group differences, individual data points, and performance differences between high and low achievers. The results raised more questions about certain outliers and patterns that were observed during the analysis. Therefore, this section is introduced to address these additional observations, particularly in relation to the inconsistencies in RQ2 and the significant variations in individual student performance on the data collection tests. While these additional findings may not directly relate to the primary research questions, they aid in enhancing the overall interpretation of the data. This section encompasses an exploration of these unexpected trends, aiming for an explanation of the complex relationships uncovered in the present study. The term "observations" does not refer to data collected through observational methods. Instead, it refers to insights identified by the researcher through a careful examination of the data sheets and figures intended to answer RQ1 and RQ2.

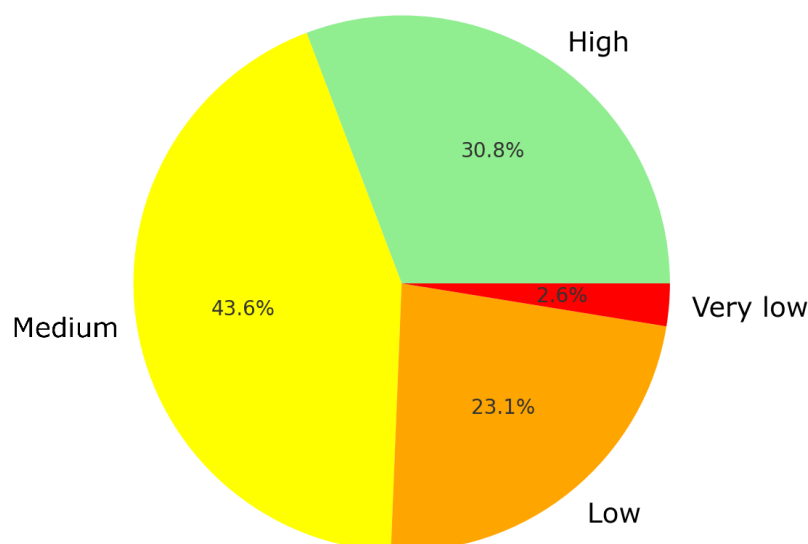
One question that emerged during the data analysis procedure was why students in the *high* and *very high* scoring groups for collocational knowledge struggled to convert this knowledge into language production during the speaking tasks. One of the potential explanations, which are further discussed in the next chapter, may be found within the datasets collected in the present study. Specifically, focusing on complex forms, whether in grammar or vocabulary, may have led these students to neglect the use of simpler, more frequent, and contextually appropriate collocations. The purpose of this section is to examine whether high achievers produced fewer collocations due to an overemphasis on complexity by observing the NCP by high achievers in the two dimensions of complexity; grammar and vocabulary, as well as overall speaking proficiency.

Figure 11 displays the percentage distribution of the NCP by participants who scored above the mean (3.9 out of 5) in the component titled *vocabulary range and accuracy* during

their SPT. Each section of the pie chart represents the proportion of collocations produced by high achievers in vocabulary proficiency according to how many of these participants produced a *very low*, *low*, *medium*, or *high* number of collocations. The figure serves to better understand the range of collocation use among participants who applied more complex vocabulary structures in their speaking performance.

Figure 11

Percentage distribution of the NCP by high achievers of vocabulary complexity in speaking



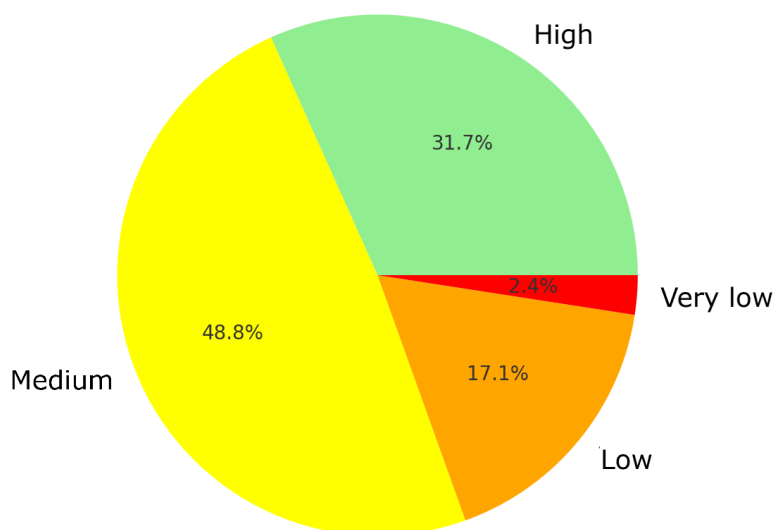
Out of the 39 participants who received higher vocabulary scores while speaking, 12 produced a *high* number of collocations, corresponding to the 30.8% green slice. However, nearly half of the collocations produced (43.6%) fell within the *medium* category, with 17 participants producing 5-8 collocations. Additionally, 9 participants (23.1%) produced collocations in the *low* range, suggesting minimal use. One participant (2.6%) produced no collocations during their speaking performance despite receiving full marks from both scorers in the vocabulary component of the SPT. According to this distribution, while participants with high vocabulary proficiency can utilize their collocation knowledge, some may lean towards fewer collocations. This pattern may indicate a focus on producing more complex words,

though many participants still demonstrated variation in collocation use. The observation that slightly more participants scored high NCP than in the lower categories suggests that learners have different focus points in their language production, emphasizing the impact of individual differences.

Figure 12 presents the percentage distribution of the NCP by participants who scored above the mean (3.9 out of 5) in the component titled *grammar range and accuracy* during their SPT. Each slice of the chart represents the proportion of collocations produced by high achievers in grammatical proficiency, providing a breakdown of how grammatical complexity correlates with collocation production in *very low*, *low*, *medium*, and *high* categories. The figure serves to better understand the range of collocation use among participants who used more complex sentence structures in their speaking performance.

Figure 12

Percentage distribution of the NCP by high achievers of grammar complexity in speaking



The pie chart reveals the collocation production patterns of 41 participants with higher grammar complexity. The results indicate that 13 participants (31.7%) produced collocations in the 9-15 range, signaling *high* collocation usage. A notable 20 participants (48.8%) produced

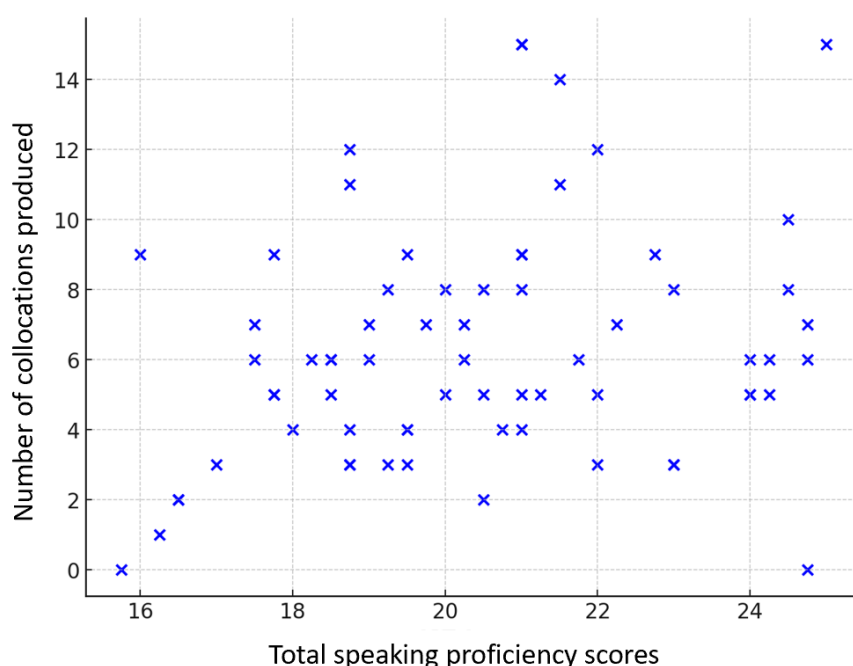
collocations in the *medium* category, suggesting that even with high grammar complexity, there is a significant reliance on fewer collocations. The *low* category, with 7 participants (17.1%), represents those who produced 1-4 collocations, and one student (2.4%) produced no collocations. These findings imply that students with high grammar complexity, while capable of employing complex grammatical structures, may not consistently transfer this complexity into their collocation production. This could be influenced by factors such as cognitive load or individual differences in their approach to focus on the speaking task.

The data from Figure 11 and Figure 12 leads to a conclusion that while the structural complexity of vocabulary and grammar may influence collocation production, this pattern is not consistently observed across all participants. As the pie charts display general trends, they do not provide sufficient evidence to account for every participant. Instead, the results imply the need to explore other factors, such as individual differences, that may impact collocation use in speech.

Figure 13 is a scatter plot that is designed to point out the individual variability for further analysis of how the production of collocations while speaking correlates with overall speaking proficiency. It illustrates the relationship between the SPT scores and the NCP by all 67 participants. Individual data points are presented in the horizontal axis for the SPT scores and in the vertical axis for the NCP. Each cross represents a participant, focusing on the individual performance to explain how collocation use varies across different levels of speaking proficiency. This figure provides further insight into whether students with higher speaking proficiency scores tend to produce more collocations.

Figure 13

Correlations for the SPT scores and the NCP in scatter plot



The scatter plot displays significant variation in collocation production across different levels of speaking proficiency. A key observation is the clear upward trend in the lower extreme of the data, where participants with lower SPT scores tend to produce progressively more collocations. This suggests that collocational competence may play a crucial role in supporting speaking performance at lower proficiency levels. However, beyond this initial trend, the data exhibits no consistent pattern. Instead, the data points spread across a wide range. Interestingly, the only two participants with an NCP of 0 are positioned at opposite ends of the plot, one in the lowest SPT score range and the other in the highest. This indicates that a lack of collocation production can occur regardless of speaking proficiency. Furthermore, five participants with an NCP of 9 or more, despite being classified as *high* collocation producers, have SPT scores below the mean, demonstrating that high collocation output does not always correspond with higher speaking proficiency. Another outlier stands out with a *low* SPT score of 15 and a *high* NCP of 9, further emphasizing the complexity of this relationship, as this student produced a

relatively large number of collocations, despite lower speaking proficiency. Overall, the scatter plot shows that while some patterns emerge at lower proficiency levels, the relationship between speaking proficiency and collocation production is not straightforward, and other factors, such as individual differences, are likely influencing collocation use. Further investigation is needed to understand the dynamics of collocation production in speech.

In summary, the findings presented in this chapter revealed several key aspects of the relationships between collocational knowledge, speaking proficiency, and the use of collocations in spontaneous speech. RQ1 yielded a moderate positive correlation between receptive collocational competence and overall speaking proficiency, with some individual variability. For RQ2, the relationship between receptive collocational competence and collocation use in speaking was not as clear, with no strong patterns emerging. Lastly, the additional observations provided no consistent trends, further emphasizing the complexity and variability of collocational knowledge and its practical application in speech. These observations lay the foundation for further discussion on how collocational competence interacts with other linguistic and cognitive factors.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents and interprets the findings of the study, focusing on the relationships between pre-service English teachers' receptive collocational competence, their overall speaking proficiency, and their productive use of collocations while speaking. The present study reveals the complexities of using collocations during speaking assessments. It also reports on the challenges learners face while transferring receptive knowledge to actual speech production. Through detailed analysis, patterns and correlations were identified to expand the understanding of the role of collocational knowledge in language acquisition.

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 Comparison with previous research

The present study aligns with existing literature in that it emphasizes the importance of collocational competence in second language acquisition. A study that followed a comparable procedure to the current one is Yazdandoost et al. (2014). Both examined upper-intermediate EFL learners of similar age groups, using similar methods that included a collocation test and proficiency assessment. However, the differences in the test items and the complexity of the assessments may explain the difference in correlation strengths, which was strong in their study ($r = 0.88$) and moderate in the present one ($r = 0.46$). While Yazdandoost et al. assessed all four language skills, the present study focused only on speaking proficiency. Additionally, their study covered 30 items in the collocation test while the present study covered 50 items. Despite these differences, both studies affirm the significant influence of collocational knowledge on speaking performance.

Research by Szudarski (2017) supports the idea that collocations play a crucial role in producing native-like speech. In his review, he discusses how L2 learners often struggle with

the correct use of collocations, which can lead to less natural speech. Similarly, the data analysis of the present study revealed a noticeable increase in both SPT and NCP scores at the lower end of Figure 13, a clear pattern which is not observed across the rest of the same dataset. This mutual finding in both studies suggests that learners with weaker proficiency levels may, to a great extent, benefit from a focus on collocational competence. It also adds another puzzle piece to the overall picture observed across several figures, especially highlighted in Figure 3, regarding the additional factors beyond collocational knowledge at higher proficiency levels.

Since collocations are a part of formulaic sequences (FSs), the present study overlaps with a broader range of research. For example, Rafieyan (2018) examined the relationship between 42 Japanese participants' knowledge of FSs and oral proficiency across a range of proficiency levels, including low intermediate, intermediate, and high intermediate. The study focused on productive collocational competence during short speaking tasks and found a strong positive correlation ($r = .82$). Although this appears stronger than the moderate correlation ($r = 0.46$) found in the present study, which included 67 Turkish participants all above intermediate level, the difference may stem from the Rafieyan's use of explicit instruction while the present study assessed collocational knowledge and oral proficiency in a less controlled, more natural setting. Despite the varying results, both studies demonstrate the importance of FSs, and by extension, collocations, as a predictor of proficiency. While Rafieyan's findings emphasize the role of multiword units in structured language learning contexts, specifically in early language development, the present study suggests that more advanced learners may perform with greater variation, pointing to additional factors influencing speaking ability in relation to proficiency level. In this respect, the two studies complement each other.

In contrast, the findings of Abdullah et al. (2015) offer an opposing view. While the present study found a moderate and significant correlation between collocational competence and speaking proficiency ($r = .46, p < .001$), Abdullah et al. reported a weak and non-significant

correlation ($r = .19$, $p > .05$). A comparison of the scatter plots from both studies reveals a similar distribution of data points, but the present study's Figure 4 depicts a slightly more consistent upward trend. Although the visual patterns in both studies suggest a positive relationship, the strength and significance of the correlation in the present study points to a little more visible connection between collocational knowledge and speaking performance. The difference may be attributed to factors such as sample size (67 vs. 30 participants) or other contextual variables such as learning environments or participant characteristics.

5.1.2 Addressing unexpected results

After reviewing the related literature, the current study set out to explore whether similar patterns would be observed for RQ2. In particular, it was anticipated that some form of relationship between collocational knowledge and production would emerge. However, the data presented a different outcome. While Uchihara et al. (2021) found that recognizing more low-frequency collocations correlated with higher fluency, the present study revealed no clear relationship between the recognition and production of collocations. As shown in Table 4 and Figure 7, receptive knowledge of collocations did not align with their use during speaking performance. Although both studies assess collocation knowledge, the methods differ significantly, with only a slight overlap in the recognition aspect.

There are notable exceptions in the dataset that emphasize the complexity of the relationship between collocational competence and speaking performance. For example, one learner scored 37 (*high*) in the CKT, and 24.75 (*high*) in the SPT, yet produced no collocations while speaking (NCP = 0). In contrast, another participant with a CKT score of 17 (*very low*) and an SPT score of 15.75 (*low*) produced a *high* number of collocations (NCP = 9). Identifying these collocations could be beneficial to better understand this case: "listen to," "because of," "I think," "daily life," "what about you," "we are on the same page," "thanks to," "speak a

language," and "have a nice day." The first three of these can be classified as high-frequency collocations, as they appear frequently in the English Web Corpus accessed via a 52-billion-word web-based corpus analysis tool (Lexical Computing CZ, 2024) (see Appendix F for detailed frequency results). Considering that this participant displayed extroverted traits during the speaking assessment, it demonstrates that individual differences and communication strategies can influence collocation production. These contrasting examples point to other factors beyond collocational knowledge, as visualized in Figure 4. These factors could include individual learning styles, the context of speaking tasks, and the ability to spontaneously recall and use collocations. Foster (2020) classifies these factors under broader influences such as cognitive load, which affects the ease of language processing, and social or situational pressures, including speaking anxiety, highlighting the complexity of verbally producing collocations.

Figures 3, 6, 8, and 13 illustrate other irregularities, where learners with similar CKT scores performed differently in terms of speaking proficiency and collocation production. For example, Figure 6 captures learners who produced vastly different numbers of collocations in speech, despite having similar receptive collocational competence. Likewise, Figure 8 shows high achievers in the CKT did not produce the largest number of collocations in speaking, and Figure 3 displays even low achievers in the CKT were able to speak English moderately well. Perhaps one of the most striking observations was made in Figure 13, with two learners at the opposite ends of the speaking performance spectrum, produced no collocations at all. Additionally, five participants had an NCP of 9 or higher, yet their SPT scores were below the mean. These findings highlight the non-linear and unpredictable relationship between collocational knowledge and its practical application in speaking.

Several potential explanations can account for why learners with the highest SPT scores did not also score the highest in collocation production. First, they may have focused too

much on complex structures, thereby limiting their spontaneous use of collocations. Moreover, a lack of practice using collocations in real speaking scenarios might have hindered their ability to apply this knowledge during conversations. Performance pressure is another possible factor, as anxiety or high expectations might cause students to overthink and avoid using collocations. Lastly, learners may focus on accuracy to the extent that they excessively self-correct, preventing themselves from using collocations naturally in their speech. Consequently, their attempt to incorporate advanced vocabulary and accurate grammar may have slowed down their speech or reduced fluency, due to increased cognitive demands. However, it is important to note that Figures 11 and 12 do not necessarily confirm these explanations, as the data collected was not specifically designed to measure the impact of these factors. Therefore, while these suggestions are plausible, further research is needed to verify their influence on collocation production.

5.2 Conclusion

5.2.1 Summary of results

The findings from the current study support the significance of collocational competence in enhancing speaking proficiency among Turkish young adult EFL learners who are also first-year pre-service teachers. A moderate positive correlation between collocational knowledge and speaking proficiency was observed, suggesting that familiarity with collocations contributes to better speaking performance. The statistically high significance indicates a meaningful association between the two variables, yet the strength of this association does not imply a direct influence. However, the inconsistency between high collocation scores and the actual collocation use in speech suggests that familiarity with collocations does not always translate to practical application. Even with high receptive collocational knowledge,

learners may not consistently use more collocations in spontaneous speech, suggesting no clear association between the two variables.

Learners with medium collocation scores exhibited substantial variability in their speaking scores. This variability suggests that while collocational competence is important, other factors also play a crucial role in determining speaking proficiency, such as individual differences or the amount of exposure to the target language. Therefore, collocation competence alone cannot fully account for the differences in speaking performance among learners with similar levels of collocational knowledge.

The scores of high achievers and mid-achievers of collocational knowledge differed across the other variables assessed in this study. However, learners with low collocation scores consistently had lower speaking scores and produced fewer collocations in speech. In this respect, the study identifies a clearer relationship between low scores across the variables. This observation reinforces the importance of collocational knowledge for supporting language abilities at lower proficiency levels.

Conversely, no consistent correlation was discovered between the ability to recognize collocations correctly and using them while speaking. The findings imply that although some learners with higher collocation scores used more collocations in their speech, many others did not. The data supported significant variability in the number of collocations produced in speech across different collocation score ranges, indicating that collocational knowledge does not necessarily lead to its use in spontaneous speech.

Additional observations showed no clear pattern linking structural complexity to less frequent collocation use. Although some high-achieving learners produced fewer collocations in speech, there was no evidence to confirm that this was due to a focus on complex grammatical and vocabulary structures, indicating that producing complex structures did not directly correlate with producing collocations.

5.2.2 Limitations of the study

The present study has several methodological and practical limitations that may have influenced the results. First, the study assessed learners' base knowledge without intervention. Collocational instruction before the data collection could have impacted the observed relationship between the variables. Second, the study involved 67 participants, which is sufficient for statistical analysis. However, the findings may not be fully generalizable to a broader population without a larger sample size. Third, the design of the data collection instruments may have affected the findings. The Collocational Knowledge Test (CKT) primarily measures receptive knowledge, which may not directly reflect productive use in natural speaking contexts. Moreover, the testing environment could be another potential limitation. The Speaking Proficiency Test (SPT) captures various components of speaking proficiency, yet certain conditions during the test could have influenced participants' ability to perform. For example, the test did not consist of short, structured tasks, and instead required a spontaneous, sustained conversation due to its open-ended nature. This may have caused anxiety among participants. Lastly, the cross-sectional design of this study captures participants' performance at a single point in time, thus providing a limited view of how collocational competence and speaking proficiency develop over time.

5.2.3 Implications for the field

The present study has theoretical and practical implications for the field of EFL research and teaching. On a theoretical level, it addresses a gap in the body of literature exploring the relationship between collocational competence and speaking proficiency among EFL learners, specifically with Turkish participants whose overall language proficiency is at the intermediate level or higher. By demonstrating a moderate positive correlation between collocational knowledge and speaking skills, it adds empirical evidence supporting the role of formulaic sequences, particularly collocations, in enhancing oral proficiency. Additionally, this

study offers a novel perspective by distinguishing between receptive and productive collocational competence, which revealed that recognition does not consistently translate into use in speech.

Furthermore, the study emphasizes the influence of other elements in shaping speaking proficiency beyond collocations. The presence of outliers in the data suggests a necessity for personalized learning plans addressing individual differences. Developing tailored educational programs that cater to individual learning needs can optimize language learning outcomes. The integration of meaningful classroom activities and appropriate assessment methods can help bridge the gap between knowledge and application. Finally, EFL curricula and teacher training programs must pay more attention to the importance of collocations and their use in colloquial language. Therefore, such programs could offer course content with practical strategies for integrating collocations into all language skills.

Practically, the results point out several areas where language instruction can be improved. First, it is suggested that EFL teachers should incorporate more activities focusing on collocations in speaking classes to promote more natural speech. For learners to effectively use collocations in communication, teaching practices should go beyond recognition and support practical application through contextualized speaking tasks. Such tasks can provide opportunities for learners to practice using collocations in realistic communication scenarios, which may support better integration of these multiword units into their speech.

The present study's findings indicate that a comprehensive approach to teaching speaking skills is necessary, one that includes but is not limited to collocational competence. English language teachers should encourage learners to apply collocations in meaningful communication through contextualized, task-based activities. Although it was found that learners with lower-level proficiency need specific attention in practicing collocations, it is important that these are taught alongside other linguistic components such as coherence,

fluency, structural complexity, and pronunciation. Together, these elements can significantly contribute to effective communication and help develop well-rounded speaking skills. For learners with low or very low collocational competence, targeted interventions can be particularly effective in improving their speaking abilities. Developing tailored support and instructional strategies for these students can both enhance their ability to use collocations and improve their overall speaking proficiency.

Moreover, the findings also suggest that assessment designs are key factors in proficiency scores and may need to be revisited. Speaking assessments could explore the use of relatively shorter, structured tasks to prompt learners to elicit more collocations, and to help reduce anxiety that may be caused by uncontrolled settings. Given that the present study highlights the importance of collocations independent of other speaking assessment components, speaking assessment criteria may benefit from including a distinct category for formulaic expressions, as they encompass aspects of both vocabulary and grammar.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research

Building on the findings of this study, several directions for further research are recommended to deepen one's understanding of the relationships between collocational competence, speaking proficiency, and the use of collocations in speech. First, conducting longitudinal studies could help track the development of these skills over time. This approach would provide insights into how the variables influence each other as learners progress. Additionally, future research could examine different types of collocations at various frequency levels. This approach could broaden the scope of current findings to determine how the impact of collocations on speaking proficiency differs.

Incorporating qualitative methods such as interviews or think-aloud protocols could offer a deeper understanding of cognitive and affective factors influencing collocation use. Such methods would allow researchers to explore learners' experiences. Moreover, examining

contextual factors such as teaching methods and the classroom environment may uncover strategies that enhance the practical application of collocational knowledge. Therefore, future research could explore how explicit instruction or extensive exposure influences learners' ability to use collocations in both spoken and written tasks.

As discussed in the limitations, expanding research to a broader range of contexts would help generalize the findings. Replicating this study with larger populations, as well as conducting comparative analyses between different learner profiles, could reveal how collocational competence varies across diverse participants. Such comparisons may emphasize individual differences and offer a more detailed account of how these factors interact with collocational competence and speaking proficiency.

Another area for future research is investigating the role of technology in language learning. Technology-based tools such as apps could be studied to determine their effectiveness in supporting instruction. Integrating innovative approaches into learning environments may prove useful for bridging the gap between recognition and production since these tools offer real-time feedback and opportunities for self-correction.

Finally, a focus on implementing specifically designed instructional interventions could also be valuable for improving collocational competence. These suggested research directions aim to provide a deeper understanding of the complex nature of collocational knowledge and its impact on language acquisition. By exploring different teaching strategies and their impact on the active use of collocations while speaking, researchers can identify the most effective methods for integrating collocations into EFL instruction. Future studies should investigate how implementing various targeted classroom activities, or training teachers to focus on collocations can improve the quality of learners' performance.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Collocational Knowledge Test

Please choose the option that seems correct to you. Then write the Turkish translation in the box.

1	a. do damage	b. make damage	c. run damage	1
2	a. turn out a fire	b. put out a fire	c. set out a fire	2
3	a. hold discussions	b. do discussions	c. set discussions	3
4	a. receive a cold	b. fetch a cold	c. catch a cold	4
5	a. do a visit	b. lay a visit	c. pay a visit	5
6	a. strike a pose	b. beat a pose	c. hit a pose	6
7	a. fell tears	b. shed tears	c. raise tears	7
8	a. employ one's rights	b. exercise one's rights	c. conduct one's rights	8
9	a. pull an opportunity	b. seize an opportunity	c. catch an opportunity	9
10	a. press charges	b. run charges	c. push charges	10
11	a. lend a complaint	b. perform a complaint	c. lodge a complaint	11
12	a. make a conclusion	b. pull a conclusion	c. draw a conclusion	12
13	a. commit a crime	b. comply a crime	c. conduct a crime	13
14	a. tell a prayer	b. say a prayer	c. speak a prayer	14
15	a. give a speech	b. hold a speech	c. perform a speech	15
16	a. strike a deal	b. set a deal	c. step a deal	16
17	a. go on a journey	b. do a journey	c. pull a journey	17
17	a. keep one's breath	b. house one's breath	c. hold one's breath	18
19	a. direct an orchestra	b. conduct an orchestra	c. control an orchestra	19
20	a. lose count	b. drop count	c. pass count	20
21	a. take root	b. make root	c. stick root	21
22	a. hold a secret	b. keep a secret	c. last a secret	22
23	a. take one's revenge	b. make one's revenge	c. obtain one's revenge	23
24	a. keep a diary	b. run a diary	c. lead a diary	24
25	a. brush shoes	b. polish shoes	c. sweep shoes	25

(Continued)

26	a. make an apology	b. do an apology	c. lay an apology	26
27	a. tie one's fist	b. fix one's fist	c. clench one's fist	27
28	a. strike a fuse	b. knock a fuse	c. blow a fuse	28
29	a. show heed	b. pay heed	c. spread heed	29
30	a. make an escape	b. take an escape	c. draw an escape	30
31	a. lose faith	b. drop faith	c. cut faith	31
32	a. perform a survey	b. commit a survey	c. conduct a survey	32
33	a. push a bike	b. lead a bike	c. walk a bike	33
34	a. send judgement	b. pass judgement	c. set judgement	34
35	a. say one's mind	b. speak one's mind	c. talk one's mind	35
36	a. spoil the fun	b. break the fun	c. destroy the fun	36
37	a. earn a purpose	b. win a purpose	c. serve a purpose	37
38	a. make friends	b. create friends	c. gain friends	38
39	a. make measures	b. take measures	c. stick measures	39
40	a. speak shop	b. say shop	c. talk shop	40
41	a. defeat a purpose	b. break a purpose	c. refuse a purpose	41
42	a. reply to the door	b. respond to the door	c. answer the door	42
43	a. lay birth	b. give birth	c. bring birth	43
44	a. close a habit	b. break a habit	c. lay a habit	44
45	a. earn access	b. take access	c. gain access	45
46	a. run the streets	b. walk the streets	c. stroll the streets	46
47	a. take harm	b. do harm	c. make harm	47
48	a. make progress	b. take progress	c. gain progress	48
49	a. let bombs	b. drop bombs	c. fell bombs	49
50	a. do sacrifices	b. give sacrifices	c. make sacrifices	50

Adapted from Gyllstad, H. (2009). *Designing and evaluating tests of L2 collocation knowledge* [Doctoral dissertation, Lund University]. Lund University Publications.

Appendix B

Speaking Proficiency Test

How did you start learning English and how is this process going?	What is it like to be a university student? Talk about your experience.	Consider the times when you are required to speak English only. How do you feel?
Talk about a special day celebrated in your country.	What would you change in and around yourself if you could live more than 100 years?	Compare the pros & cons of being generation Z.
Talk about the impact of social media on our lives.	Discuss the benefits & dangers of artificial intelligence.	Describe a special day for you and explain why it's important.

(Continued)

If your friend visits Antalya for the first time, where will you take them, why? What will you do together?	How do you think weather affects people's moods?	What are your best and worst qualities?
Talk about a memory of a time when you felt proud.	In your opinion, what is the best and worst way to learn English?	Describe the ideal job & workplace for you.
Talk about a memory about travelling.	Compare a novel to its film adaptation.	What's more important: health or wealth?

Designed by the researcher in accordance with international language examinations.

Appendix C

Speaking Performance Assessment Rubric

Coherence	Fluency	Grammar range and accuracy	Vocabulary range and accuracy	Pronunciation
5- develops topics fully with appropriate cohesive devices	5- fluent speech with rare repetition	5- can use all structures with few mistakes	5- can use idiomatic language and precise words	5- effortlessly understood or no foreign accent
4- uses a range of discourse markers	4- speaks long with a little effort	4- can use complex structures with some mistakes	4- word choices don't cause comprehension problems	4- generally comprehensible with some mistakes
3- repeats certain connectives a lot	3- speaks slowly, fluent in simple structures	3- speaks with some complex structures, many errors	3- can talk about unfamiliar topics, many errors	3- attempts at pronunciation features, many errors
2- barely connects simple sentences	2- speaks with long pauses	2- speaks with simple structures, many errors	2- can give personal information	2- barely comprehensible
1- not enough communication for assessment	1- not enough communication for assessment	1- not enough communication for assessment	1- not enough communication for assessment	1- not enough communication for assessment

Grading: 21-25 pts proficient, 16-20 pts good, 11-15 pts average, 1-10 pts basic level

Adapted from: <https://ielts.idp.com/turkey/results/scores/speaking/en-gb>

Appendix D

Permission to Use Data Collection Tool

RE: Permission to use test

 Henrik Gyllstad
Kime: Siz



25.04.2024 Per 10:42

Yanıtı şununla başla:

Hi Merve,

Thanks for reaching out. You can use the Collex test with proper citation. I'd also appreciate a copy of your thesis when it's completed, as I'd love to see how the test contributed to your research.

Best,

Henrik Gyllstad
Associate Professor in English Linguistics
Lund University

Appendix E

Data Preparation Tables

#	COLLOCATI ON TOTAL	collexQ1	collexQ2	collexQ3	collexQ4	collexQ5	collexQ6	collexQ7	collexQ8	collexQ9	collexQ10	collexQ11	collexQ12	collexQ13	collexQ14	collexQ15	collexQ16	collexQ17	collexQ18	collexQ19
1	26	2	2	3	3	3	1	2	1	3	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
2	17	1	3	2	3	0	0	1	3	3	2	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	3	
3	45	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	3	1	2	1	1	1	3	
4	49	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	3	
5	30	1	2	2	3	1	1	2	3	3	1	0	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	
6	23	3	3	0	3	1	3	2	0	3	2	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	
7	29	2	3	1	3	3	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	
8	35	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	2	2	1	3	1	0	1	2	1	0	
9	47	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	1	3	
10	38	1	2	1	3	0	3	2	1	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
11	21	2	2	1	3	5	0	0	0	3	0	2	1	1	0	1	2	1	0	
12	33	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	2	3	1	
13	33	2	3	1	3	3	1	2	3	3	2	3	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	
14	36	2	2	1	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
15	24	0	3	1	3	3	1	2	0	3	0	2	3	1	1	2	0	1	3	
16	34	1	2	1	3	3	3	2	0	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	
17	23	3	3	0	3	1	0	2	3	3	2	3	3	1	0	1	2	1	3	
18	33	2	2	3	3	1	1	2	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
19	33	3	2	1	3	3	3	2	1	2	2	1	1	1	3	1	3	1	3	
20	28	2	2	1	3	2	0	2	3	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	1	3	
21	24	0	2	1	3	3	0	2	1	3	2	0	1	1	3	1	2	1	1	
22	42	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	1	3	1	1	2	2	1	1	3	
23	31	0	3	1	3	3	3	2	0	1	1	0	1	1	3	1	2	1	3	
24	33	2	3	1	3	3	1	2	3	3	1	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	
25	44	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	0	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	
26	22	2	2	3	3	1	0	2	0	3	0	2	1	1	1	2	0	1	3	
27	27	2	2	1	3	1	0	2	1	3	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	1	3	
28	26	2	2	3	3	1	3	0	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	1	0	1	3	
29	36	1	2	3	3	3	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	3	
30	39	1	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	
31	18	1	2	2	3	3	1	3	3	3	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	

Image from the data sheet of the CKT results per item

#	COLLOCATI ON	SPEAKING TOTAL	NUMBER OF COLLO. PRODUCED IN SPEECH
1	26	18,5	11
2	17	15	9
3	45	24,25	10
4	49	21,5	14
5	30	18,75	6
6	23	17	5
7	29	19	7
8	35	15,75	2
9	47	21,5	11
10	38	18,75	3
11	21	18,5	6
12	33	22	3
13	33	21	9
14	36	24	6
15	24	21,75	6
16	34	22	12
17	23	19,5	3
18	33	20,25	6
19	33	19,25	3
20	28	20	8
21	24	18,25	6
22	42	19,5	4
23	31	19	15

Image from the data sheet of all data combined and color-coded by score categories

Frequency Results of Selected Collocations



CONCORDANCE

English Web 2021 (enTenTen21)

simple **daily life** • 393,141
6.38 per million tokens • 0.00064%

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🔍 KWIC

+

🔍

☆

	Details	Left context	KWIC	Right context
1	www2007.org 3S, Weblog and Wiki have become well-known words in our		daily life .</s><s>On the other hand, computers have no understandi	
2	www2007.org s>First, there is the online dairy by which people share their		daily life publicly, express their feelings or thoughts or emotions throu	
3	www2007.org t" or "screen capture" instead of "film" or "moving picture" in		daily life ; the concept of "Brainstorming" in the programming area ar	
4	www2007.org ier type have little expert knowledge and use information for		daily life produced from a home sensor network.</s><s>We particula	
5	www10.org .These have become more and more important in reporters'		daily lives .</s><s>In Taiwan, the booming Internet urged traditional m	
6	www2003.org ible to perceive a small part of the "input" that regulates our		daily life , while the other consistent part is graphically represented in	
7	www2003.org ing when demographic and personality characteristics, and		daily life events that influence social involvement and psychological v	
8	2u.ie .ste of time in terms of tending to the pressures and tasks of		daily life and so we hesitate to go there' ~Ron Rolheiser</s><s>A rec	
9	2u.ie .red in the ordinary down to earth moments that made up his		daily life .</s><s>The disciples were most impressed.</s><s>They ki	
10	2u.ie and effort that we personally put into different aspects of our		daily lives .</s><s>There is no barometer in measuring the amount of I	
11	gg.ca e the light of knowledge--and friendship, I might add--on our		daily lives .</s><s>I am especially pleased by the timing of our meetin	
12	gg.ca js and the wider world, mastering techniques to improve our		daily lives , reinventing the past in terms of the present: all this means	
13	gg.ca ie, talent, altruism become an even more integral part of our		daily lives --a main stream part of being Canadian.</s><s>From Decen	
14	bl.uk as cast across film, art, music, fashion, architecture and our		daily lives .</s><s>Beginning with Horace Walpole's The Castle of Otr	
15	ul.ie physical activity for young people; incorporating it into their		daily life (i.e., school, after school, and at home).</s><s>The main gc	

CONCORDANCE

English Web 2021 (enTenTen21) 🔍 ⓘ

simple listen to • 3,500,766
56.84 per million tokens • 0.0057% ⚡ ⓘ

		Left context	KWIC	Right context
1	ⓘ	www2007.org 3anff Ave., phone (403) 762-2121: one of the best places to	listen to	live music.</s><s>Wild Bill's Saloon, 203 Banff Ave., phone
2	ⓘ	www2007.org other components subscribe to it (i.e. declares that they will	listen to	and handle this event).</s><s>In our national park example
3	ⓘ	www2007.org the image displayer and the map component (subscribers)	listen to	the park selection changed event from the park listing comp
4	ⓘ	www10.org ng TTS, but that would have given the user no option but to	listen to	the whole table being read or to hang up.</s><s>As it is, th
5	ⓘ	www10.org ras talking and gossiping; reading newspapers and books;	listening to	music and radio; watching movies and television; practicing
6	ⓘ	www10.org ke for example, the Hotmail compose screen.</s><s>If you	listen to	the page with a talking Web browser, such as IBM's Home f
7	ⓘ	www10.org screen to send my email.</s><s>To the user who was blind	listening to	the page, the option to send when she hadn't even written ti
8	ⓘ	www2003.org :/><s>Both algorithms require that the client be capable of	listening to	multiple channels at the same time.</s><s>Comparing with
9	ⓘ	www2003.org difies his calendar: The trip will take a day longer.</s><s>B	listens to	A's message and calls A back immediately</s><s>The Arch
10	ⓘ	www2003.org rough two modes: visual and acoustics.</s><s>Usually, by	listening to	music, melodies, messages, etc., is possible to perceive a s
11	ⓘ	www2003.org d data stream may be transmitted within a cluster.</s><s>N	listens to	the multicast control address assigned by the server for "all
12	ⓘ	www2003.org offered in a custom design.</s><s>Visitors of a portal may	listen to	programmes or they may listen to a continuous stream play
13	ⓘ	www2003.org :>Visitors of a portal may listen to programmes or they may	listen to	a continuous stream playing a list of selected programmes (
14	ⓘ	.net ing on the aforementioned documentary project, I basically	listening to	it on repeat while working on the write-up, and ended up us
15	ⓘ	ae.ca onderful daughters.</s><s>I enjoy playing the baritone and	listening to	music, renovating our house, yard work, and traveling</s><

(Continued)

CONCORDANCE English Web 2021 (enTenTen21)

simple **because of** • 8,073,752
131.1 per million tokens • 0.013%

Details Left context KWIC Right context

1	www2007.org	ict typically exist.	These copies may be inconsistent	because of	diversity of Web site qualities and the limited performance c
2	www2007.org	rged as a popular access control language on the Web, but	because of	its rich expressiveness, it has proved difficult to analyze in ε	
3	www2007.org	scussion, the reason that a user replies to a topic is usually	because of	an interest in the content of the topic rather than who starter	
4	www2007.org	i.	Users usually can get an answer relatively quickly	because of	the large number of participants.
5	www2007.org	fine granularity a time period may not be estimated reliably	because of	data sparseness.	In this work, we present another a
6	www2007.org	and movie are boycotted or even banned in some countries	because of	the confliction to their religious belief.	In Figure 6(c)
7	www2007.org	tors form a triplet for the set M1 which solves 3DM.	Because of	space constraints we are not giving the complete proof of N	
8	www2007.org	resulting in inconvenience, delay or even a transaction loss	because of	incorrect information.	At the same time, we would lik
9	www2007.org	viewing the documents or to overlook important documents	because of	an information overflow.	On the other hand if bound
10	www2007.org	istency check).	We note that there is little overhead	because of	the small amount non-determinism in LUBM (primarily due t
11	www2007.org	tween words or entities using Web search engines.	Because of	the vastly numerous documents and the high growth rate of	
12	www2007.org	a widely acknowledged drawback of using snippets is that,	because of	the huge scale of the web and the large number of documei	
13	www2007.org	and WebPMI (rank=, weight=) are not shown in Table 2	because of	space limitations.	It is noteworthy that the pattern fe
14	www2007.org	>Such RDF data-store specific adapters are necessary,	because of	the absence of a general standardised query language whic	
15	www2007.org	labeled as informative articles, while the others are filtered	because of	the encoding problem of their contents.	In order to b

CONCORDANCE English Web 2021 (enTenTen21)

simple **speak * language** • 111,062
1.8 per million tokens • 0.00018%

Details Left context KWIC Right context

1	2u.ie	>He may not be everyone's cup of tea but his music	speaks a language	of its own.	Many can relate to it particularly yo
2	2u.ie	order to meet people where they are, we first need to '	speak their language	' - to know them, listen to them, and recognise God's	
3	ul.ie	f graduate research opportunities.	speaking your language	?</s><s>You are here</s><s>The Physical Educator	
4	ul.ie	to the challenge of being on your own in a city and of	speaking the language	of the country.</s><s>I went au-pairing in Spain the s	
5	gg.ca	I wanted to be an astronaut.</s><s>But I didn't even	speak their language	.	That didn't matter; I wanted to do what they v
6	gg.ca	of life and from every country in the world.</s><s>We	speak different languages	and follow our own unique traditions, yet our country i	
7	gg.ca	o residential schools, where they were not allowed to	speak their languages	or honour their cultures, and were punished if they dic	
8	bl.uk	with being Nigerian, I'd meet my relatives and I didn't	speak the language	, I'd never been there, so 'You're a lost Nigerian' they'	
9	gg.ca	Jean-Daniel Lafond, and I firmly believe that cultures	speak a language	that transcends any barriers we may put up between	
10	mt7.ca	n your very first day at Union.</s><s>Myth: You must	speak one language	before learning another.</s><s>Fact: [...] In reality, yo	
11	ruk.ca	ause.</s><s>We can try and make computer people	speak our language	.	And, in the end, we can take steps to at leas
12	ru.org	ferent parts of the country.</s><s>Those people who	spoke that language	or followed those customs lived in a particular part of	
13	4j.com	hildren can't speak, the parents teach the children to	speak and language	.	Baby First Words is a game that helps childr
14	nst.ie	o on to use their enhanced abilities and confidence in	speaking the language	for the remainder of the visit.</s><s>These lessons a	
15	ehc.eu	's, Project Management Certification.</s><s>Charles	speaks several languages	including English (mother tongue), Norwegian, some	

Retrieved from: <https://www.sketchengine.eu/>

Appendix G

Research Ethics Committee Approval

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 30.05.2024-929766



T.C.
AKDENİZ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu
KURUL KARARI



TOPLANTI TARİHİ : 29.05.2024
TOPLANTI SAYISI : 11
KARAR SAYISI : 272

Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü **Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ersen VURAL**'ın danışmanlığını, **Fatma Merve AKTAŞ**'ın araştırmacılığını üstlendiği, *"İkinci Dilde Eşdizim Yeterliği ile Konuşma Yeterliliği Arasındaki İlişki"* konulu çalışmanın, fikri hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından metot ve ölçeğine ilişkin sorumluluğun başvurucuya ait olmak üzere, proje süresince uygulanmasının etik olarak **uygun olduğuna** oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Prof. Dr. Hilmi DEMİRKAYA
Kurul Başkanı

Başkan
Prof. Dr.
Hilmi DEMİRKAYA

Başkan Yrd.
Prof. Dr.
Sibel PAŞAOĞLU YÖNDEM

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Ebru İÇİGEN

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Nurşen ADAK

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Taner KORKUT

Üye
Prof. Dr.
Gökhan AKYÜZ

Üye
Prof.
Ceren HEPYÜCEL

ÖZGEÇMİŞ

Kişisel Bilgiler

Adı Soyadı: Fatma Merve AKTAŞ

Doğum Yeri ve Tarihi:

Eğitim Durumu

Lisans Öğrenimi: Marmara Üniversitesi Atatürk Eğitim Fakültesi
İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı

Anadolu Üniversitesi İktisat Fakültesi
Uluslararası İlişkiler Programı

Yüksek Lisans Öğrenimi: Akdeniz Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı

Bildiği Yabancı Diller: İngilizce

İş Deneyimi

Çalıştığı Kurumlar: Özel Antalya Maya Okulları (2022-devam ediyor)

Özel Antalya Yükseliş Koleji (2021-2022)

Özel Antalya Koleji (2019-2021)

Özel Beylikdüzü Amerikan Kültür Koleji (2017-2019)

İletişim

E-Posta Adresi:

Tarih:

BİLDİRİM

Hazırladığım tezin tamamen kendi çalışmam olduğunu ve her alıntıya kaynak gösterdiğimi taahhüt eder, tezimin kâğıt ve elektronik kopyalarının Akdeniz Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü arşivlerinde aşağıda belirttiğim koşullarda saklanmasına izin verdiğimi onaylarım:

- ☐ Tezimin tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.
- ☐ Tezim yalnızca Akdeniz Üniversitesi yerleşkelerinden erişime açılabilir.
- ☐ Tezimin 6 ay süreyle erişime açılmasını istemiyorum. Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir.

28/10/2024

Fatma Merve AKTAŞ

İNTİHAL RAPORU

FROM WORDS TO SPEECH: UNLOCKING THE ROLE OF COLLOCATIONS IN L2 SPEAKING

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