RESEARCH ARTICLE

JOELL
Veda Publications

ENHANCING LANGUAGE USE THROUGH COLLOCATION

Sanjay K. Jha

(Professor (Linguistics) and Director (Liberal Arts) Amity University Haryana, India.)

ABSTRACT

This study hypothesizes that learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) can learn the language faster and better by learning words in collocational or group forms rather than in isolation. From the utilitarian perspective, the study identifies six major types of collocation and prescribes class-room based techniques of teaching collocations.

keywords: *Collocation, English, Context, Head word, Cohesive nature*

A word without co-text and context is merely a *pretext* as a word does not have its meaning in isolation; rather, a word acquires its meaning in relation to its co-text and context (Jha, 2019). This study advocates the use of collocation as an effective and fast way of teaching and learning English language in ESL classrooms. Given the fact that collocation is a dynamic unit of English language learning, it would not be an exaggeration to say that *almost all the content words including prepositions are cohesive by nature or are prone to be cohesive.* It is the cohesive nature of a word that determines collocation or grouping of a word with another word(s). While postulating the above hypothesis, we are pertinently reminded of a granny's age-old cliché maxim:

> *"Words like eggs should be handled with care as words once spoken and eggs once broken, are hard to repair."*

The above maxim percolates its concern to right usage of right words in right contexts. Subsequent to the comprehension of syntactic structure of a language in terms of descriptive and explanatory adequacies of Chomsky (1965) and syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of Saussure (1916), a language learner further encounters the challenge of using right word(s) rightly. In this regard, the present study holds two intertwined concerns responsible for learners' failure in using English words and phrases proficiently. As a part of the statements of the problem, the study firstly hypothesizes that there are many learners who are blessed with a vast repository of lexical (word) knowledge, but they fail to construct and express cohesive ideas in English as they are unable to group appropriate words appropriately.

The second hypothesis is ELT, over the past three decades, has undergone unprecedented changes in terms of employing more than 25 effective methods, but none of the methods could produce expected learning outcomes in the learners because the use of collocation, as an effective method of learning English, received very little attention in the ELT curricula. Added to this, an ESL classroom hardly uses collocational activities to help learners learn the right usage of English phrases in right context. Given the pair of stated concerns, the study is aimed at responding three research questions as follows:

1. What is collocation and how it differs from other phenomena of grouping words?
2. What are the possible constituent structures of collocation?

3. How can collocations be taught effectively in ESL classrooms?

In response to the stated questions, we shall firstly see how the concept of collocation developed historically and how it differs from other collocation-like phenomena. Secondly, the study presents categorization of collocations on the basis of form in terms of their possible constituent structures. In response to the third research question, the study proposes a conceptual framework of six effective strategies to maximize the learning of collocation.

1. DEFINITION AND HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF COLLOCATION

Collocation, a vital unit of phraseology, is a natural association or grouping of words with each other at the phrase level. The concept of grouping words in right order dates back to 1916 when F. D. Saussure formulated two important relations, namely syntagmatic and paradigmatic to show how language works. According to Saussure (1916), a syntagmatic relation refers to linear grouping of words in a sentence in a proper order. For example, *We can come tomorrow* is a sentence because in this linear arrangement of words "we" is chained with 'can', 'can' with 'come', 'come' with 'tomorrow'. The relationship is that of [pronoun + auxiliary verb + main verb + temporal adverb]. This relationship is restricted to certain permissible orders. Therefore, 'can come tomorrow we' cannot be considered as a sentence. Thus, a syntagm acquires its value in opposition to everything that precedes or follows it, or to both. Therefore, in the above sentence, **we** is not what **can** is; **can** is not what **come** is; **come** is not what **tomorrow** is. On the other hand, paradigmatic relationship is contrastive or choice relationship. Words that have something in common are associated with one another. For example, in the syntagmatic relation above, **we** can be associated with **he**, **they**, etc. Similarly, **tomorrow** can be associated with **next**, **soon**, etc. Taking cue from the notion of Saussure's syntagmatic (linear) relation of syntactic constituents, this study restricts its concern to a phenomenon of linear choice relation of constituents at phrase level, often termed as collocation.

The term collocation was firstly coined in the form of collocational meaning by Firth (1957, p11). It is imperative to mention that the notion of collocation has been identically perceived by all the linguists. Sinclair (1970, p150) finds collocation between two items significant, such that they co-occur more often than their respective frequencies and the length of the text in which they appear

would predict. The year of 1986 saw a monumental work in the form of *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English* by (Benson et al. 1986) that discussed combinations of English words using different constituent structures at great length. In a similar vein, Nattinger and De Carrico (1982, p59), believe that lexical phrase (collocation) can be an effective unit of language when it comes to learn a language because speaking a language means conversing in, and comprehending a language means understanding phrases, not as isolated bits of grammatical structure, but as parts of the general ebb and flow of the surrounding discourse. Further, Robins (2000, p64) defines collocation as "the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences. Halliday and Hasan (2001, p317) define collocation as "the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another because they tend to occur in similar environments." Pertinently, Nation (2004, p32) regards collocation as "words that often occur together" or the company a word keeps. In corpus linguistics and computational linguistics, collocation is defined as a sequence of words that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance (Duan and Qin, 2012).

In recent works on collocation, Williams (2019) takes further the notion of significant word associations of both *base* and *collocate* to the theory of collocational network that adopts a statistical approach in which cohesive nature of collocation is exploited. For Williams, cohesive collocation is defined as the habitual and statistically significant relationship between word forms within a predefined window and for a defined discourse community. For the sake of bilingual lexicon (BL) in machine translation (MT), Jha (2019) hypothesizes that a word does not have its meaning in isolation. A word assumes its meaning only after occurring in a context. Therefore, it is remarkable that the storage of meaning in BL for MT purpose is slightly different from that of traditional paper dictionaries. A traditional English-Hindi dictionary in paper form, usually assigns different meanings without any clues for their usage, whereas a BL for MT provides the meanings based on their uses. Such a meaning

according to Firth (ibid) is called collocational meaning as it restricts the meaning to a particular context. For example, Hindi meaning of an English lexeme like **strong** will depend on its collocation with the adjoining word(s). The meaning of **strong** in the collocation of (a strong man) will be *majbūt* in Hindi. In the collocation of (strong personality), the strength does not refer to the physical strength rather moral for which Hindi meaning can be *prabhāvSālī* or *tejasvī*. In the collocation of (strong tea), Hindi has specific words like *tej* or *kaṛak* referring to the taste, flavour as well as the darker colour of the tea.

Based on my empirical observation, the term collocation can be comprehended from its root form that is *collocate*. Morphologically, if we split the word collocate into base forms, we find it consisting of two verbs- *collate* and *locate*. The word collate means 'to bring something together in correct order'; whereas, locate simply means 'to be in a particular place'. Thus, collocation can be defined as a process of grouping words in a proper order as it sounds more natural and correct to the native speakers.

It is imperative to mention here that collocation has its theoretical underpinning in the syntagmatic relation as both the terms deal with linear grouping of words. Collocation is different from syntagmatic relation in that collocation deals with linear grouping of words at phrase level; whereas, the latter deals with linear grouping of words at sentence level.

In what follows, firstly, we shall see briefly how the phenomenon of collocation intersects some other related phenomena in the sense that other phenomena like *colligation*, *clichés*, *fixed expression*, *idiomatic expressions*, *proverbial expressions* are also a kind of grouping of words but they differ from collocation in that collocation functions as a phrasal unit; whereas, others function as clausal or syntactic units. To have better understanding of differences among them, five attributes have been used to show their presence (+) and absence (-) in collocation, colligation, idioms, clichés, and proverbs in the following value matrix (see table 1). Let's elucidate each of the phenomena in turn.

Table 1.Value Matrix of Collocation and Associated Phenomea

	Collocation	Colligation	Fixed Expression	Idioms	Cliches	Proverbs
Choice relation	-	+	-	-	-	-
Linear relation	-	+	+	+/-	+	+
Literal Meaning	+	+/-	+	-	-	-
Figurative Meaning	+/-	+/-	-	+	+/-	+/-

COLLOCATION

Assessing the presence and absence of four attributes in the case of collocation, we see that the first attribute *choice relation* is absent which implies that a lexical item of collocation cannot be replaced by any other lexical item for a particular use. For example, in a collocation like *strong tea*, the modifier strong cannot be replaced by another choice of modifier like ~~powerful~~ *tea*. As for the attribute *linear relation*, it has (-) value which implies that a collocation cannot occur in sentence form but in phrasal form only. It is noteworthy that collocation is supposed to give literal meaning of a collocation as denoted by the value (+) ascribed to it. In table 2, 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th collocations carry literal meaning. However, some collocations connote figurative meanings. For example, in 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th collocations: *head start*, *burning question*, *eagle eye*, *face value*, *grey area*, etc. the meanings are figurative rather than literal. They mean '*additional advantage*', '*crucial issue*', '*ability of noticing small details*', '*apparent worth of something*', and '*unclear situation*' respectively.

Table2. List of Literal and Figurative Collocations

1.	A matter of pride	It's a matter of pride for the entire nation.
2.	Collateral damage	To minimize collateral damage, maximum precision in bombing is required.
3.	Vaguely remember	I vaguely remember his face as it has been more than 25 years when I saw him last.
4.	Come to total of	The total expenditure comes to a total of Rs. 25000/-
5.	Zero tolerance	Amity Univerisity observes a zero tolerance policy on ragging inside the campus.
6.	Head Start	Starting early will give us a head start on the holiday traffic.
7.	Burning question	A burning question lying ahead of us is how to implement citizen amendment act.
8.	Eagle eye	She has an eagle eye, she failed to notice two errors in the preface of the book.
9.	Face value	We need not take anyone's remarks at face value.
10.	Grey area	I think we need to rectify grey areas that emerged in the outcome of this project.

COLLIGATION

The phenomenon of colligation conforms to syntagmatic relation advocated by Saussure (1916) in which he lays emphasis on permissible linear patterning of words at sentence level. To be more precise, linear patterning of words occurs not only to show interrelations of three relational structures namely, *subject argument structure*, *nucleus structure*, and *complement argument structure* but also within these relational structures in terms of their pre-modifier(s) and post-modifier(s) of *subject head*, *nucleus (verb) head*, and *complement (object) head* (Jha, 2019). Since, the notion of linearity is more pertinent to sentence, colligation has been ascribed (+) value for the attribute, linear relation. On the other hand, collocation, which is a natural association of words in a particular context, occurs as 14 limited patterning of words at phrase level only (see section-3 below). Hence, the value (-) has been ascribed to the attribute *linear relation* in the case of collocation.

FIXED EXPRESSION

As the name suggests, a fixed expression is a syntactic unit which is not supposed to be expanded, shortened, or grammatically changed. Like collocation, fixed expression is also a group of words but collocation is formed at phrase level; whereas, fixed expression is often formed at sentence level.

1. How are you?
2. Have a nice time
3. Let's go.
4. Time is running out
5. Do your duty.
6. Have a safe journey.
7. Long time; no see
8. See you later.
9. Have a nice day.
10. Take your time.

IDIOMS

Like a collocation, an idiom is also a group of words but they are different in that meaning of a collocation is inferred from its constituent words; whereas,

meaning of an idiom cannot be inferred from its constituent words because it gives figurative meaning which is different from its literal meaning. Since, idioms do not have literal meaning, their metaphorical or figurative meanings are supposed to be learnt consciously. In doing so, one also needs to understand the dichotomy between two types of idioms: *opaque* and *transparent*. An idiom is considered to be opaque if its intended meaning is not at all conveyed from its constituent words. For example, none of the opaque idioms listed in the first column give literal meanings at all; whereas, idioms listed in the second column although give metaphorical or figurative meanings but they do have a tinge of literal meaning as well. Some collocations are close to transparent idioms in that their meanings can be inferred from their constituent words e.g. 6th to 10th in table 2 above.

Table3. Types of Idioms

Opaque Idioms	Transparent Idioms
1. Cake-walk (something easy to achieve)	1. Add insult to injury (to make someone feel worse)
2. Hit the sack (Go to bed)	2. Blessing in disguise (unexpected positive outcome)
3. Kick the bucket (Die)	3. Let sleeping dogs lie (to avoid fomenting a problem)
4. When pigs fly (Never)	4. Pull someone's leg (lie to someone jokingly)
5. Smell a rat (suspect something wrong)	5. Dance to someone's tune (appease one's demands)
6. Rain cats and dogs (Heavy rain)	6. It takes two to tango (Only one is not at fault).
7. Cry over spilt milk (repent over past)	7. Pass the buck (transfer a problem to others)

CLICHES

A cliché, often occurring in phrasal or sentential form, is an expression of idea or opinion. Such an idea or opinion because of its overuse in our daily activities gets outdated. Like collocations, idioms, and fixed expressions, clichés also have figurative implications. The following are some of the popular clichés:

- Let's touch base.
- The apple doesn't fall far from the tree.
- I'm like a kid in a candy store.
- I lost track of time.
- Time heals all wounds.

- We're not laughing at you, we're laughing with you.
- Play your cards right.
- Read between the lines.
- Beauty is only skin deep.
- A matter of time

PROVERBS

A collocation is similar to a proverb in that proverb too does not change its grammatical patterning. All the proverbs remain static for any communicative purpose. A proverb is a metaphorical and wise message based on experienced truth or common sense. Every culture has its own proverb developed through its cultural experience as shown in the following examples:

Table 4. Metaphorical Proverbs

	Proverbs	Meaning
1.	A bird in hand is worth two in the bush.	What we have is more valuable than what we wish to have.
2.	All that glitters is not gold.	Don't go by the outer appearance of sb. or sth.
3	An empty vessel makes much noise.	Less knowledgable speak too much and create fuss.
4.	Barking dogs seldom bite.	A person of threatening nature rarely harms.
5.	Don't judge a book by its cover.	Don't go by the outer appearance of sb. or sth.
6.	Don't put all your eggs in one basket.	Don't put all your efforts in one area because if it doesn't work out, you may lose everything.
7.	Empty bags cannot stand upright.	Don't expect much from an underprivileged.
8.	Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.	An inexperienced person moves without care.
9.	If wishes were horses, beggars would ride.	Things do not happen by having mere desire.
10.	Look before you leap.	Give a thought before taking any action.

It is noteworthy in the above examples that some proverbs have connotative meanings as in 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7; whereas, 1, 8, 9, and 10 have denotative meaning as they are more literal than metaphorical. This fact has been shown by the value (+/-) in table 1 above. The study of proverb is also important from the perspective of linguistic relativity. The conviction or hypothesis of linguistic relativity proposed by Sapir and Whorf in Whorf (1956) believes that people of different cultures think differently.

2. TYPES AND PATTERNS OF COLLOCATION

Since, English words are cohesive in nature, collocation can be viewed as a natural tendency of using a word with another word(s). More often than not, a collocation carries literal meaning, a meaning that is most basic. However, some collocations have figurative meanings as they have connotative resemblance to the figurative word used in the collocation. Given the cohesive nature of words, this study delves into identifying possible configurations (constituent structures) of collocations. The study comes up with seven types of collocation based on function and 14 on the basis of form. It is imperative to mention that positioning of collocations is not rigid in terms of their occurrence. Unlike traditional belief as to positioning of collocation in which a collocation consists of base or headword+collocate, this study refutes the structure of base+collocate for a collocation because *base* and *collocate* are not static in terms of their positions. For example, in a

collocational expression like *love song*, *love* is base (functioning as a modifier) and *song* is collocate; whereas, in *true love*, *love* is not the modifier because it is being modified by the modifier *true* by coming before 'love'. So, we cannot predict the positioning of a collocation in terms of whether a base will be preceded by a collocate or followed by a collocate. However, we can predict possible structures of collocations in terms of the sequence of their constituents that they are made up of.

Here, we shall see ten specimen examples of seven types of collocational expressions normally used in our day-today life. All the seven types of collocations have been named after the word class of the headword. For example, if a collocation starts with a headword that is *noun*, the collocation has been tagged as nominal collocation. Similarly, if the headword of a collocation is verb, it has been tagged as verbal collocation, and so on. The phenomenon of collocation is slightly nebulous in terms of formalizing it with a hard and fast definition. This study classifies collocation on the basis of form and function. On the basis of function, the study lists seven types of collocation: *nominal*, *verbal*, *adjectival*, *adverbial*, *phrasal verb*, *prepositional*, and *transitional* and 14 on the basis of form (constituent structure) as follows:

2.1 NOMINAL COLLOCATION

Table 5. Constituent Structure of Nominal Collocation

Structure-1: N+P+N	Structure-2: N+N
Pack of cards	Public opinion
Matter of pride	Speed limit
Surge of anger	Gender equality
Centre of attraction	Zero tolerance
Volley of questions	Identity crisis
Interest in game	Catchment area
Point of view	Contact details
Piece of advice/information/paper	Departure time
Member of parliament	Detention centre
Quality of life	Freedom fighter

2.2 VERBAL COLLOCATION

Table 6. Constituent Structure of Verbal Collocation

Structure-1: V + NP	Structure-2: V + Adv	Structure-3: V + P
Meet a deadline	Shout loudly	Apply for (a job)
Make a mistake	Behave properly	Complain about (sb or sth)
Accept a challenge	Divide equally	Agree to (sb) with (sth)
Take action	Drive safely	Bump into (sb or sth)
Place an order	Exercise regularly	Hint at
Miss an opportunity	Listen carefully	Comply with (rules)
Leave a message	Need badly	Consist of (sth)
Do a good job	Rain heavily	Differ from (sth)
Express concern	Solve easily	Revolt against
Meet an accident	Speak clearly	Confide in (sb)

2.3 ADJECTIVAL COLLOCATION

Table 7. Constituent Structure of Adjectival Collocation

Structure-1: Adj + N	Structure-2: Adj + P
Alternative medicine	Optimistic about
Annual turnover	Loyal to
Balanced diet	Proficient in
Blind faith	Disturbed by
Economic growth	Shocked at
Ethnic tensions	Ready for
Foreign policy	Capable of
Fundamental rights	Content with
Heavy traffic	Different from
Racial discrimination	Fond of

2.4 ADVERBIAL COLLOCATION

Table 8. Constituent Structure of Adverbial Collocation

Structure-1: Adv + Adj	Structure-2: Adv + V
Highly controversial	Vaguely remember
Fully satisfied	Flatly refuse
Perfectly normal	Outrightly reject
Blissfully ignorant/unaware	Strongly recommend/condemn
Deeply affected	Badly damage
Reasonably priced	Bitterly criticize
Painfully slow	Sincerely appreciate
Happily married	Totally agree
Strongly recommended	Thoroughly enjoy
Completely abnormal	Closely examine

2.5 PHRASAL VERB COLLOCATION

Phrasal verb collocation is different from verbal collocation in that the former gives a new meaning; whereas, the latter gives a literal meaning as listed under section-2 above. Since, phrasal verb consists of a verb plus preposition or adverb, we shall see some examples of two types of constituent structure for phrasal verb collocation.

VEDA'S
JOURNAL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE (JOELL)
An International Peer Reviewed (Refereed) Journal
Impact Factor (SJIF) 4.092   http://www.joell.in

Vol.7 Issue 1
2020

Table 9. Constituent Structure of Phrasal Verb Collocation

Structure 1: (V+P/Adv)	Meaning	Structure 2 : (V+P/Adv+P)	Meaning
Come across	Meet by chance	Look forward to	Await eagerly
Give up	Quit	Put up with	Tolerate
Turn up	Appear	Catch up with	Go fast to catch sb
Turn down	Reject	Look down upon	Despise
Call off	Cancel	Do away with	Get rid of sth
Give in	Surrender	Cash in on	Exploit a situation
Put on	Wear	Come up with	Produce
Hang out	Spend time with sb	Check up on	Take stock of
Break down	Stop functioning	Get along with	Mix up well with sb
Figure out	Understand	Live up to	Fulfill expectations

It is noteworthy in the above phrasal collocations that a new meaning is derived (see the meaning column) because of collocating prepositions or adverbs to the verb. Hence, phrasal verb collocation is subject to be learnt consciously.

2.6 PREPOSITIONAL COLLOCATION

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that begins with a preposition. The following are some examples of prepositional collocations beginning with frequently used prepositions like *to, out, by, on, beyond, under, at, in, for, etc.*

Table 10. Structure of Prepositional Collocations

TO	
To the satisfaction of	The charge must be proved to the satisfaction of the court.
To the best of my knowledge	To the best of my knowledge, he has done a pioneering research.
To the fullest	I want to enjoy my life to the fullest.
To one's surprise	To my surprise, my song appealed to many young people.
To one's credit	There are ten books to his credit.
OUT	
Out of context	Quotes can be manipulated and used out of context.
Out of curiosity	Many came out of curiosity to have a glimpse of Mr. Modi.
Out of order	My mobile was out of order, but it is functional now.
Out of control	The plane got out of control and crashed.
Out of danger	He was admitted to a nearby hospital and is stated to be out of danger.
BY	
By mistake	I took his bag by mistake.
By force	The leader made laws and imposed them by force.
By nature	The great characters of literature are by nature a rebellious lot.
By profession	I am a network engineer by profession, but I like teaching physics.
By law	By law, all restaurants must display their prices outside.
ON	
On paper	On paper, their country is a multi-party democracy.
On leave	Our professor is on leave this semester.
On an average	On an average, I sleep only three to four hours.
On a regular basis	The hospital bed is changed on a regular basis.
On a large/small scale	They are preparing for war on a large scale.

BEYOND	
Beyond recognition	I saw him last 25 years ago, now his face is beyond recognition.
Beyond one's reach	With a strong will power, nothing is beyond one's reach.
Beyond my understanding	The rules of this game are beyond my understanding.
Beyond compare	These precious jewels are beyond compare.
Beyond one's control	The situation was just beyond my control.
UNDER	
Under construction	Yesterday, we went past a temple under construction.
Under review	The matter of these kinds of games is still under review.
Under stress	I have been under stress at work lately.
Under repair	Traffic will be diverted while the road is under repair.
Under consideration	Several proposals are under consideration by the state assembly.
Under the influence of	He was under the influence of alcohol when he made the accident.
Under the impression that	I was under the impression that he has a Ph.D degree.
AT	
At full speed	A gendarme, urging his horse to a gallop, arrived at full speed.
At the outset	He made it clear at the outset that he is not going to quit his job.
At a glance	I could see at a glance that the situation was serious.
At fault	It was later found that the ferry captain was at fault.
At the same time	He looked hurt and angry at the same time.
At a distance	I could not understand what he said as I was at a distance.
IN	
In detail	The results must be analysed in detail.
In advance	You must pay for the ticket in advance.
In a hurry	I'm in a hurry, so come to the point.
In full swing	When we arrived the party was already in full swing.
In debt	He is a very successful man, but now he is in debt of Rs. 12 crore.
FOR	
For example/instance	Many factors are important, for example, class, gender, ages, etc.
For a moment	Wait for a moment outside the room.
For a change	Let's take a walk for a change.
For a good cause	They are protesting for a good cause.
For sale	She has put her house up for sale.
FROM	
From dawn till dusk	There is traffic in the streets from dawn till dusk.
From the very beginning	He knew they'd be friends from the beginning.
From the bottom of my heart	I am sorry, and I mean that from the bottom of my heart.
From work	I have just returned from work.
From home	I work from home twice a week.
WITH	
With all/full respect	With all respect, I hold him in high esteem as my Godfather.
With the help of	I read English magazines with the help of a dictionary.
With regard/respect to	I have nothing to say with regard to your complaints.
With regret	News of her death was received with regret by her friends.
With reference to	I am writing with reference to your article published in the TOI.
WITHIN	
Within reach	The ball was almost within his reach.
Within walking distance	Her job is within walking distance of her school.
Within one's budget	This necklace is within my budget?
Within one's grasp	The rope was within his grasp, but he was too weak to reach for it.
Within an hour	I will be back within an hour.

VEDA'S

JOURNAL OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE (JOELL)

An International Peer Reviewed (Refereed) Journal

Impact Factor (SJIF) 4.092   http://www.joell.in

Vol.7 Issue 1
2020

WITHOUT	
Without a break	They worked through the night without a break.
Without any warning	As the plane neared the airport, without any warning, it began shaking.
Without a good foundation	We cannot erect a good building without a good foundation.
Without a plan	Works like constructing buildings can not be done without a plan.
Without any doubt	He is without any doubt the cleverest student, I have ever taught.
DURING	
During prayer/meeting	We should maintain silence during prayer.
During the day/night	He must have changed clothes during the night.
During the holidays	During the holidays my sister and I went to Switzerland for a change.
During war	There was too much bloodshed during war.
During weekends	I will finish my pending work during weekends.
AGAINST	
Against the law	It is against the law to park here overnight.
Against all the odds	Against all the odds, he managed to get pass marks in all the papers.

2.7 TRANSITIONAL COLLOCATION

Transitional Collocations are the phrasal expressions which are used to move from one text to another for the purpose of summarizing, paraphrasing, comparing, and so on. The following are some of the popular transitional collocations used frequently in spoken and written discourse:

Table 11. Structure of Structure of Transitional Collocation

To sum up	To sum up, there are three main ways of tackling this problem.
Precisely speaking	Precisely speaking, there are five impeding factors in learning English spellings.
In a nutshell	In a nutshell, she deserved to be the winner of this game.
In addition to	In addition to a competitive salary, the company offers attractive perks.
By the time	By the time we arrived, they had left for the airport.

3. TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING COLLOCATION

Collocation, being one of the most dynamic activities in language learning, needs to be taught using under-mentioned techniques:

3.1 Verb Network

Create a verb network in a tabular form (as drawn below) of commonly used verbs like *do, give*, *make*, etc.) and ask the students to fill second and third columns with more collocations and examples respectively for the base or head words.

Table 12. Verb Network of Frequent Collocations with DO

Do	Do research	He is doing a research on the benefits of spirituality at workplace.
	Do one's best	One should do one's best for the revolution in innovation.
	Do a favor	Could you do a favor for me?
	Do the needful	Kindly do the needful to publish the draft in Wikipedia.
	Do exercise	They do exercise in the ground early morning.
	Do a good job	I have no doubt you will do a good job, but ignore gossip-mongers.

Table 13. Verb Network of Frequent Collocations with HAVE

Have	Have a chat	I had a chat with him yesterday about his family issues.
	Have fun	Some of us can just go out now and have fun.
	Have a temperature	She is having a temperature since Monday.
	Have a look	Now, let's have a look at our sample room.
	Have a quarrel	They had a quarrel, but they are friends again now.
	Have an idea	I had an idea, but I wasn't confident of executing it.

Table 14. Verb Network of Frequent Collocations with MAKE

Make	Make a request	The Society has made a request to begin the repair work immediately.
	Make a mistake	It is quite common to make a mistake when we are under stress.
	Make a choice	It was not easy for him to make a choice between his mother and his wife.
	Make a complaint	Make a complaint if you are not satisfied with the service.
	Make a phone call	You could make a phone call in case of any emergency.
	Make changes	He made changes in the script of his speech to appease the audience.

3.2 FIELD NETWORK

The notion of field network is based on the premise that a word opens up an avenue of linear associative fields which in turn will include specific words as a part of subcategorization. As illustrated in figure 1, the broader nomenclatures like hospital, doctor, patient, disease, treatment, recovery form a generic network of associative fields which further subsume specific related words. For example, *hospital* is more prone to be closely associated with doctor, patient, disease, etc. On the other hand, collocation like *referral case* is more prone to be subcategorized under generic field *patient* rather than the other generic fields. Thus, field network proves worthwhile in the formation of collocations for the learners.

HOSPITAL	DOCTOR	PATIENT	DISEASE	TREATMENT	RECOVERY
• ICU Ward	• ENT Specialist	• Referral case	• High fever	• Plastic surgery	• Fast recovery
• General ward	• Family doctor	• Blood test	• Heart attack	• Bi-pass surgery	• Fast relief
• OPD	• Clinical psychologist	• Mental patient	• Sore throat	• Yoga therapy	• Proper diagnosis
• X-ray room	• Senior doctor	• Heart beat	• Kidney failure	• Naturopathy	• Get well soon
• Operation Theatre	• Speech therapist	• Pulse rate	• Back ache	• Balanced diet	• Good medical care
• Medical treatment	• Male nurse	• Blood group	• High BP	• Diet chart	• Out of danger
• Emergency ward	• Doctor's prescription	• Critical condition	• Chronic disease	• Expensive treatment	
• Delivery room	• Intern doctor	• Deep coma	• Weight loss	• Wrong treatment	
		• Death certificate	• Appetite loss		
			• Multi organ failure		

Figure 1. Field Network and Subcategorized Collocations

3.3 WRITING DIARY OF COLLOCATIONS

While reading any book, keep your pen and collocational diary handy and jot down all the collocational phrases that you come across in your diary for further remembrance.

3.4 GAMES OF TURN TAKING FOR COLLOCATIONAL PAIR

The starting point of this game is any content word given by the teacher. In the following example, the given head word is 'back' with which a series of collocational pairs can be formed.


```
foot
 •back foot
    work
     •foot work
        place
         •work place
            of worship
             •place of worship
                deity
                 •worship deity
```
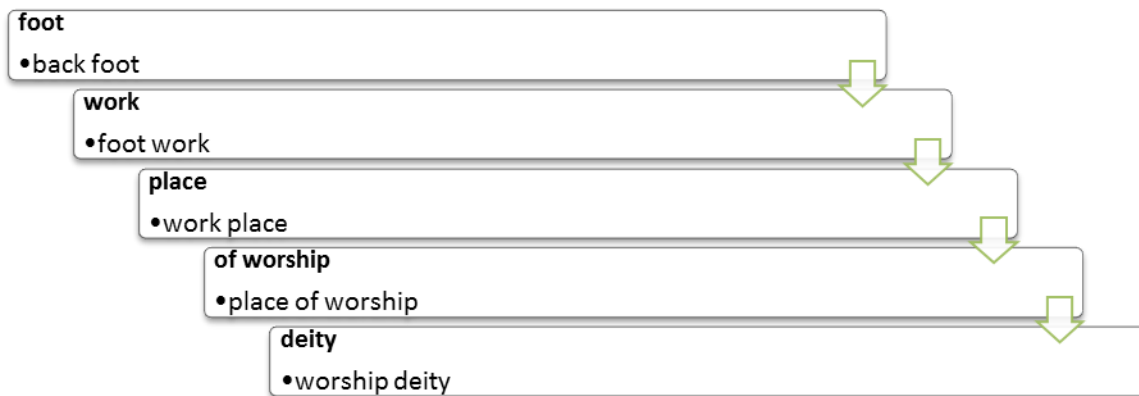
Figure 2. Turn Taking for Collocation Formation

Once the participants come to a halt, the teacher may give some clues; or else, write another content word with which students will further make collocational pairs. On the above pattern, an ELT practitioner may engage learners in the drill of collocation formation.

3.5 FILL-IN DRILLS

An ELT practitioner should prepare a formative assessment using fill-in drills of nominal, verbal, adjectival, adverbial, and of other types as follows:

a. After one hour of discussion, he could agree [   ] the terms and conditions of the holiday package. {to/with}
b. Given the current scenario, I cannot agree [   ] him. {to/with}

3.6 RADIAL NETWORK

The purpose of a radial network is to show the relationship of collocates (adjoining words) to the central idea or head word in the centre. In figure 3, GREAT is the head word which has created 14 collocations as *great admiration*, *great detail*, *great disappointment*, and so on.

Figure 3. Radial Network of Collocations for GREAT

The drills of the radial network can be given for any of the seven types of collocation as categorized above. However, verb has been found to be the most collocative. An example of radial drill for a verb like *get* can be seen below.
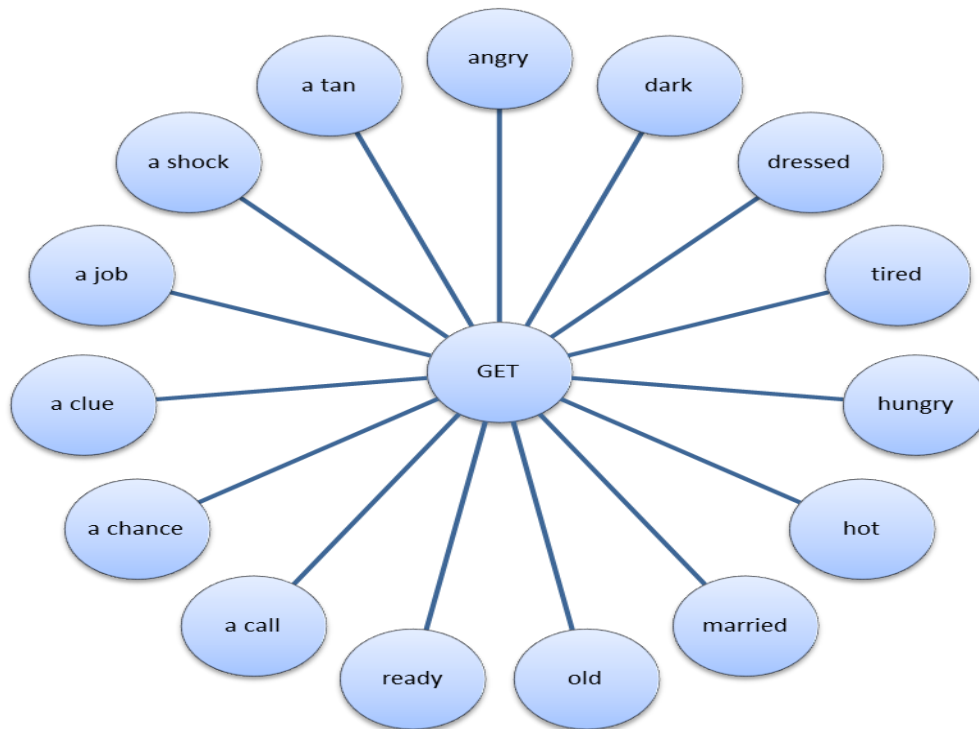

Figure 4. Radial Network of Collocations for GET

It is noteworthy in the above radial network of collocations for *get* that collocates can be either a single word like get <u>angry</u>, <u>ready</u>, etc. or collocates can be a group of words like get <u>a call</u>, get <u>a chance</u>, get <u>a job</u>, etc.

CONCLUSION

One of the purposes of learning a language is not only to know merely the meaning of words; but also to use a word with other words meaningfully in actual communication. In this pursuit, this article has shed some light on elaborating the notion of collocation, patterns of collocations, and some techniques of learning collocations to be an effective user of English. Although, lexical item keeps increasing along with time but collocational phrases remains comparatively static for a longer period of time. Therefore, it is imperative to learn words in the form of collocations rather than in isolation.

REFERENCES

Benson, M., et al. 1986. The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Duan& Qin (2012).Collocation in English Teaching and Learning. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol. 2, No. 9, pp. 1890-1894.ACADEMY PUBLISHER, Finland. doi:10.4304/tpls.2.9.1890-1894

Firth, J. R. (1957).*A synopsis of linguistic theory 1930-1955* (1957), *Studies in Linguistic Analysis*, Special volume of the Philological Society, chapter 1, pages 1-32, Oxford: Blackwell.

Jha, S. K. & Jha, B. K. (2019).*A Linguistic Insight into English-Hindi Human and Machine Translation*, Veda Publications, India

Nattinger, J. & J. DeCarrico. 1992. *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Whorf, B. (1956), Carroll, John B. (ed.), Language, Thought, and Reality: Selected Writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf, MIT Press.

Sinclair, J. McH. *et al*. 1970. *English Lexical Studies: Report to OSTI on Project C/LP/08*. Department of English, University of Birmingham.

Williams, J. *Mediatingbetween lexis and texts: collocational networks in specialisedcorpora*. Retrieved on 29th December 2019.
    URL: http://journals.openedition.org/asp/1782

Abbreviations Used in This Article

Sb:	Somebody
Sth:	Something
N:	Noun
V:	Verb
Adv:	Adverb
Adj:	Adjective
P:	Preposition
NP:	Noun Phrase