Performance of EFL Students in English Grammatical Collocations with Focus on Adjectives of Quality and Prepositions:


Fatima Babikir Ahmed Babikir

B.A in English Language, Faculty of Education-University of Holy Quran and Islamic Sciences (2002)

A dissertation

Submitted to the University of Gezira in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements For the Award of the Degree of Master of Arts in English Language Teaching (ELT)

Department of English

Faculty of Education- Hantoub

October 2015
Performance of EFL Students in English Grammatical Collocations with Focus on Adjectives of Quality and Prepositions:


Fatima Babikir Ahmed Babikir

Supervision Committee:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Lubab Altayeb Al-Mikashfi</td>
<td>Main Supervisor</td>
<td>……………………..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Awatif Al-Amin Sati</td>
<td>Co-supervisor</td>
<td>……………………..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Date: October 2015
Performance of EFL Students in English Grammatical Collocations with Focus on Adjectives of Quality and Prepositions:


Fatima Babiker Ahmed Babikir

Examination Committee:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Signature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Lubab Altayeb Al-Mikashfi</td>
<td>Chairperson</td>
<td>……………………..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Salwa Altayeb Bakheet</td>
<td>External Examiner</td>
<td>……………………..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dr. Zahir Abu-Obeida Ahmed</td>
<td>Internal Examiner</td>
<td>……………………..</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Date of Examination: 29 / 10 / 2015
Dedication

I dedicate this study to the soul of my dear father, to my husband who has been the first one to encourage my interest in this kind of study, my mother, my daughters and son, my family, my teachers, my relatives, my neighbors, to my friends and to my colleagues.
Acknowledgements

I would like to express my thanks and gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Lubab Altayeb Al Mikashfi for her continuous guidance and encouragement throughout this study.

My gratitude is extended to Dr. Awatif Alamin Satti for her great help and valuable comments.

My thanks are also due to Dr. Zahir Abuobeida Ahmed for his guidance and help.

The researcher is also indebted to the staff members at the Department of English- University of Gezira.
Performance of EFL Students in English Grammatical Collocations with Focus on Adjectives of Quality and Prepositions:


Fatima Babikir Ahmed Babikir

Abstract

English grammatical collocations are one of the most important elements of English language especially the adjectives of quality that collocate with prepositions. They enable speakers to express themselves correctly and naturally, thus language learning can be accomplished successfully in terms of meaning and fluency. The study aimed at investigating the performance of secondary school students in dealing with English grammatical collocations especially those which collocate with prepositions. The study used the descriptive analytical method. A questionnaire and a diagnostic test were used as tools for data collection. A random sample of (50) secondary school students (90% of the study population) was chosen from the science third class, Wad Medani secondary school for girls and (20) experienced EFL teachers (58% of the study population) from the secondary schools in Greater Wad Medani Locality, Gezira State. The data were analyzed manually by using the simple percentages. The main results of the diagnostic test are: EFL learners at secondary level (69%) do not perform properly when using grammatical collocations and (84%) of the students face difficulties specially when selecting prepositions with adjectives of quality. In addition to that, (84%) have not chosen properly the adjectives of quality that collocate with prepositions. While (65%) of EFL learners consider the most problematic area with respect to adjectives of quality is participial adjectives. The major results of the questionnaire are: (65%) of the EFL teachers at secondary level agree that students at the secondary level perform poorly when using grammatical collocations. Besides, (60%) agree that intensive classroom activities help students improve their performance in using collocations with adjectives of quality plus prepositions. While (75%) agree that EFL secondary school students mix between Arabic and English collocations with respect to adjectives of quality plus prepositions. Based on the results, the study recommends the following: EFL teachers should familiarize the students with the importance of noticing adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocations, EFL teachers should provide intensive and extensive practice in adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations and EFL teachers should encourage students to have notebooks specifically organized for recording adjectives of quality plus prepositions. In addition to that, systematic errors must be collected by the teachers, their causes should be explained and a lot of meaningful drilling should be conducted until the students overcome the problem in hand and the syllabus designers should include a considerable number of exercises in students' text books.
أداء دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية في المتلازمات النحوية خاصة

صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر


فاطمة بابكر أحمد بابكر

ملخص الدراسة

تعد المتلازمات النحوية وبصفة خاصة صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر من أهم عناصر اللغة الإنجليزية حيث يمكن المتصور من خلال التعبير بها التحدث بصورة صحيحة وطبيعية وبهذا تتم عملية التعلم بنجاح من حيث المعنى والطلاقة. هدفت الدراسة إلى معرفة أداء طالبات المرحلة الثانوية عند استخدام المتلازمات النحوية وبصفة خاصة صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر تلازمياً. أتبطأت الدراسة منهجياً وتصفي الصورية التحليلية. استخدمت الدراسة الاستبانة والاختبار التشخيصي بوصفها أدوات لجمع البيانات، ثم اختيار عينة عشوائية بلغت (50) طالبة من الصف الثالث عملي بمدرسة ود مدني الثانوية بنات تمت (90%) من مجتمع الدراسة و(20) معلماً من معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية ذوي الخبرة بمدارس الثانوية بمحلية ود مدني الكبرى ولاية الجزيرة تمثل (58%) من مجتمع الدراسة، ثم تحليل البيانات باستخدام النسب المئوية السبيطة. توصلت الدراسة لعدد نتائج من الاختبار التشخيصي من أهمها: أن (69%) من دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية بالدروسا الثانية لا يؤمنون أداءً جيداً في المتلازمات النحوية بصورة عامة كما أوضح أن (84%) منهم لا يجدون احترام صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر تلازمياً كما أوضح أن (65%) من دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية كلمة أجنبيه من أكثر النقاط التي يواجهون صعوبة فيها مجال صفات اسم الفاعل واسم المفعول. أما الاستبانة فقد أوضحت تناجها أن (65%) من العينات المختارة من معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمقررة الثانوية يوافقون على أن معظم دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمقررة الثانوية لا يؤمنون أداءً جيداً حال تعاملهم مع المتلازمات النحوية (%75) منهم يوافقون على أن معظم دارسي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمقررة الثانوية يخلطون بين المتلازمات النحوية في اللغتين العربية والإنجليزية في مجالات صفات النوعية وحروف الجر، وصافة خاصة. من أهم توصيات الدراسة: أن على المعلمين أن يرفعوا من معي الطلاب ليبدروا أهمية تلازم صفات النوعية وحروف الجر مع إعمال اللاحقة، وعلى معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمقررة الثانوية تقديم تدريبات مكثفة في استخدام صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر تلازمياً، إحساس الأخطاء المتكررة ومعرفة أسبابها ومعالجتها بالتدريبات المكثفة حتى يغلب الطالب عليها، وعلى معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية بالمقررة الثانوية تشجيع الطلاب لامتقالي دفاتر تنص على تسجيل صفات النوعية مع حروف الجر تلازمياً وعلى مُعدي المناهج تضمن تدريباً أكثر لصفات النوعية وحروف الجر تلازمياً بالمناهج.

الدراسة
# Table of Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision Committee</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examination Committee</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedication</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (English)</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract (Arabic)</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table of Contents</td>
<td>VII</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-0</td>
<td>Background</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-1</td>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>Objectives of the Study</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>Questions of the Study</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>Hypotheses of the Study</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>Methodology of the Study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-7</td>
<td>Limits of the Study</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-0</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-1</td>
<td>Definition of English Collocation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-2</td>
<td>Significance of English Collocation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>Collocation Theory</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4</td>
<td>Collocations Classification</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5</td>
<td>Collocation and Culture</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-6</td>
<td>Grammatical Collocations</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-6-1</td>
<td>Types of Grammatical Collocations</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-7</td>
<td>Collocation as a Problematic Area for Secondary Level</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-8</td>
<td>Collocation and Idiomatic Expression</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9</td>
<td>Types of Combinations</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9-1</td>
<td>Compounds</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9-2</td>
<td>Idioms</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9-3</td>
<td>Transitional Combinations</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9-4</td>
<td>Collocations</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-9-5</td>
<td>Free Combinations</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10</td>
<td>Concept of English Adjectives</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1</td>
<td>Types of English Adjectives</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-1</td>
<td>Adjective of Quantity</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-2</td>
<td>Attributive Adjectives</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-3</td>
<td>Predictive Adjectives</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-19-1-4</td>
<td>Adjective of Degree</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-5</td>
<td>Personal Adjectives</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-6</td>
<td>Interrogative Adjectives</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-7</td>
<td>Demonstrative Adjectives</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-8</td>
<td>Nominal Adjectives</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-9</td>
<td>Indefinite Adjectives</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-10</td>
<td>Distributive Adjectives</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-1-11</td>
<td>Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-2</td>
<td>Characteristics of English Adjectives</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-3</td>
<td>Agreement of English Adjectives</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-4</td>
<td>Position of English Adjectives and the use of (an)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-5</td>
<td>Types of English Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-5-1</td>
<td>Simple English Adjectives</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-5-2</td>
<td>Compound English Adjectives</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-5-3</td>
<td>Proper English Adjectives</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-6</td>
<td>English Adjectives of Quality used as Nouns</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-7</td>
<td>Abstract Idea of English Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-8</td>
<td>Gradable and Un Gradable Adjectives</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-9</td>
<td>Order of Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-10</td>
<td>Formation of English Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed by Using Suffixes</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-1</td>
<td>Adjectives formed with suffix (able) -(ible)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-2</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (full) and (less)</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-3</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (-ish)</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-4</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (y)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-5</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (-ly)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-6</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (-ive)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-7</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (-ed)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-11-8</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed with (-ian)</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-12</td>
<td>Adjectives Formed by Using Prefixes</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Section Description</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-13</td>
<td>Formation of Comparative and Superlative English</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-13-1</td>
<td>The Comparative Formation</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-13-2</td>
<td>English Superlative Formation</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-10-14</td>
<td>Changes in Spelling in Using Adjectives of Quality</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11</td>
<td>English Prepositions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-1</td>
<td>Concept of Prepositions</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-2</td>
<td>English Prepositions Rule</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-3</td>
<td>Types of English Prepositions</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-3-1</td>
<td>Simple Prepositions</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-3-2</td>
<td>Complex Prepositions</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-11-3-3</td>
<td>Marginal (differed) Prepositions</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-12</td>
<td>Prepositions Versus Adjectives</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-13</td>
<td>Combination of Adjectives of Quality + Prepositions</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-14</td>
<td>Teaching Adjectives of Quality plus Prepositions</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-15</td>
<td>Role of Collocations in Second Language Teaching</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-16</td>
<td>Reasons for Learning Collocations</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-17</td>
<td>Teaching Collocations</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-18</td>
<td>Activities to Practice Adjectives of Quality plus Prepositions Collocationally</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-19</td>
<td>Prepositions as a problematic Area</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-20</td>
<td>Previous Studies</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER THREE  METHODOLOGY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page</th>
<th>Section Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3-0</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-1</td>
<td>The Study Design</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-2</td>
<td>Sampling</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3</td>
<td>Tools of Data Collection</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-1</td>
<td>The Diagnostic Test</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-1-1</td>
<td>Procedures of the Test</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-1-2-</td>
<td>Reliability of the Test</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-1-3</td>
<td>Validity of the Test</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-2</td>
<td>The Questionnaire</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-2-1</td>
<td>Content of the Questionnaire</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-2-2</td>
<td>The Procedures</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-3-2-3</td>
<td>Validity of the Questionnaire</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

| 4-0 | Introduction | 58 |
| 4-1 | The Results of the Test | 58 |
| 4-2 | The Results of the Questionnaire | 63 |
| 4-3 | Discussion of Hypotheses Study in Relation to the Results | 68 |
| 4-3-1 | Hypothesis One | 68 |
| 4-3-2 | Hypothesis Two | 69 |
| 4-3-3 | Hypothesis Three | 69 |
| 4-3-4 | Hypothesis Four | 69 |

**CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

| 5-0 | Introduction | 71 |
| 5-1 | Conclusion | 71 |
| 5-2 | Findings | 71 |
| 5-3 | Recommendations | 72 |
| 5-4 | Suggestions for Further Studies | 72 |
| | References | 73 |
| | Appendixes | 76 |
Chapter One

Introduction

1-0 Background

Collocation is defined as the tendency of lexical items to co-occur with one or more other words. Although the theoretical treatment of collocation has been inadequate, the teaching of collocation to second language learners has gained importance during the last decade. In addition, joining of words that are in principle semantically compatible does not always produce acceptable collocations. An adjective is a word that describes something, noun or pronoun. The EFL learners in secondary school cannot benefit from collocation without knowing the suitable preposition to make compatibility to each other. Prepositions are short words that usually stand in front of nouns or pronouns. Whereas adjectives are normally used with particular prepositions. This type of collocation is a problematic area for EFL students especially at secondary school level. Choosing the most appropriate prepositions with adjectives is very important in both academic life and even in everyday life, using correct adjectival preposition will lead to more accurate natural language. Hence, collocations in language play a significant role in the development of foreign language learners and make communications more orderly because they are regulatory in nature.

1-1 Statement of the Problem

It has been observed that EFL secondary school students perform unsatisfactorily in grammatical collocations in general and in English preposition that collocate with adjectives of quality in particular. This will eventually lead to poor performance in English in both written and spoken discourse. Using collocations properly enables students to master the language and express themselves naturally.
1-2 Objectives of the study

1- To explore EFL learners performance when using adjectives of quality plus prepositions when they co – occur.
2- To find out the most problematic English prepositions that collocate with adjectives of quality.
3- To suggest strategies to improve the performance of EFL learners at secondary level in adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocationally.

1-3 Questions of the study

1- To what extent do EFL secondary school students perform appropriately in adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocations.
2- What are the most problematic English prepositions that collocate with adjectives of quality?
3- What are the suitable techniques that enable EFL learners at secondary level to improve their performance of using adjective of quality plus preposition simultaneously?

1-4 Hypotheses of the study

1- Most students do not use English adjectives of quality plus preposition correctly.
2- A certain group of adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations are more problematic for secondary school students.
3- Intensive practice of adjectives of quality plus prepositions in context will improve EFL secondary school students performance in adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocations.
4- Certain suggested strategies can be effective in learning adjectives and prepositions collocationally.

1-5 Significance of the study

This study is expected to be very useful to teachers as well as students of English language. The study can be considered as an exploration of an area that may help novice teacher's map out their learning and teaching strategies to develop professionally. Moreover, it is hoped to be beneficial to syllabus designers for grading and focusing on the common adjectival preposition
collocationally in the syllabus. In addition, the investigations of the learners’ errors, help in suggesting effective techniques for dealing with adjectival preposition difficulties.

1-6 Methodology of the study

The descriptive analytical method will be followed to carry out the study. The study will comprise two samples. The first one will be (20) EFL teachers chosen purposively from Greater Wad-Madani Locality. The second will be (50) EFL secondary school students who will be chosen randomly from Wad-Madani Secondary School for girls. The tools for collecting data will be a questionnaire for EFL secondary school teachers and a diagnostic test for secondary school students. The data will be analyzed manually by using the simple percentages.

1-7 Limits of the study

This study is limited to the Performance of EFL Secondary School students in English collocations with main focus on adjectives of quality and Prepositions. The study will be limited to (20) EFL secondary school teachers from Wad-Madani Greater locality and (50) EFL students from Wad-Madani Secondary School for girls. The study will be conducted during the years (2014 – 2015).
CHAPTER TWO
Literature Review

2-0 Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the material regarding English collocations. It consists of two parts: the first part includes the definition, significance, concept and types of collocation, adjectives and prepositions whereas the second part will discuss the previous related studies which are conducted in the same field.

2-1 Definition of English Collocation

Collocation is the way words combine in a language to produce natural sounding speech and writing. And it runs through the whole of the English language.

According to Sinclair, (1991: 121) mentions that "the concept of words appear predictably next or within a certain number of words". Murica (1991: 80), also defines collocations as a co-occurrence of lexical items in combinations, which can differ in frequency or acceptability. Murica adds that items which collocate frequently with each other are called (habitual) e.g. ‘tell a story’ ‘catch the bus’ ‘have a lunch’ ‘do home work’ ‘make mistake’ etc. Whereas those which cannot co-occur are called unacceptable e.g. powerful tea instead of (strong tea). Nattinger et.al (1992:36) consider collocations as high frequency word combinations.

2-2 Significance of English Collocation

Firth (1957:290) says that it is important to learn collocations because they are important for naturalism of one's speech. Besides, they broaden one's scope for expression. It is also important and vital for the competent use of language. In addition, Newmark (1988: 213) stresses the significance of collocations by describing them as (nerves) of a text, "if grammar is the bones of a text, collocations are the nerves and specific in denoting meaning; and lexis is the flesh". According to www. English Grammar today © Cambridge University Press, the study of word collocation has remained an important field of language research. The notion of
Collocation has achieved importance because many linguists have surmised that there are fixed forms of expression in every language that are stored in the minds or memories of native speakers as whole chunks of language forms; and not as single words. These fixed expressions are used in both speech and writing. Among these fixed expressions are collocations. Moreover, the website grammar.about.com/od/c/g/collocation_term.htm, cf Faerch et al., (1984: 95) emphasize the importance of learning new words through common collocations. They propose that when new words are learned to learners, it may be very helpful to also introduce the most common collocates of those words. They also say that "having words in one’s vocabulary includes knowing the most frequent collocations of that word".

2-3 Collocation Theory

The notion of collocation has been familiar since the pioneering work of Palmer (1938: 90) who was the first to introduce the term collocation. Later, Firth (1957: 192) advances the word collocation as a technical term, so meaning by collocation is established as one of modes of meaning. The term collocation only becomes well known as part of the technical terminology of linguistics after the work of Firth. Moreover, Firth (1957: 194-190) suggests that meaning by collocation is a lexical meaning at the syntagmatic level not at paradigmatic level. The paradigmatic relationship of lexical items, on the one hand consists of sets of words that belong to the same class and can be substituted for one another in a specific grammatical and lexical items. On the other hand, the syntagmatic relationship of lexical items relates to the ability of a word to combine with other words. Therefore, the attempt made by Firth to explain the meaning of a word on the collocational level is unique because it is concerned with meaning relationships between lexical items from the level of syntagmatic relationships, not from the traditional view of paradigmatic relationship such as synonymy and antonymy.

Firth, (1968: 182) gives the example of dark night as an adjective + noun and asserts that one of the meaning of night is its collocation with dark, and one of the meanings of dark is its collocation with night. In other words, any complete
description of the meaning of a word would have to include the other word or words that collocate with. Firth considers a collocate of a word as an order of mutual expectancy.

It thus means that it is important to recognize the company that words keep. Lyons, (1966: 175) on the other hand, seemed critical of Firth's argument that a word's collocations are part of its meaning. Based on a distributional theory of meaning, an alternative view posits that the meaning of collocation cannot be understood from all the components of the expression within which the collocation appears, and the part of the meaning of one word in the collocation does not depend on its collocation with another word or other words. In addition, Lyon, (1977: 613) explains that there is frequently so high a degree of interdependence between lexemes which tend to occur in texts in collocation with one another that their potentiality for collocation is reasonably described as being part of the meaning. This means that Lyons later rejected his opposite view and knowledge that Firth's theory of meaning by collocation was based on solid ground.

It is worth mentioning that a number of linguists known as Neo-Firthians, adapted Firth's theory and expanded it. Halliday, (1966:153) for instance, considers lexis as complementary to, but not part of grammatical theory, Halliday introduces the notion of (set) as an extra dimension of the collocations of words. Halliday, (1966:158) mentions that collocation is a linear co-occurrence relationship among lexical items which co-occur together whereas the set is the grouping of members with likely privilege of occurrence in collocation for example bright, hot, shine, light and come out belong to the same lexical set since they all collocate with the word sun. Sinclair, (1966: 411- 415), on the other hand, views grammar and lexis from two different interpenetrating aspects, he states that language patterns are treated in grammar as if they could be described by a system of choices. For him, the key issue is the tendencies “ought to tell the facts, about language that cannot be got by grammatical analysis”. Then he shows that the contrast between lexical items is more flexible than that of grammatical classes because “there are virtually no impossible collocations”. Sinclair, (1966:416) elaborates on that saying, “The term node refers to an item whose collocations are studying the term span as the number of lexical items
on each side of a node that are relevant to that node, items in the environment set by the span will call collocates”.

2-4 Collocations Classification

The web side grammar.about.com/od/c/g collocation term, htm mentions that every lexeme has collocations, but some are much more predictable than others as *blond* collocates strongly with *hair* and *flock* with *sheep* to *neigh* with *horse*. Some collocations are totally predictable such as *spick* with *span* and *addled* with *brain*. Other collocations are less predictable e.g. *letter* collocates with a wide range of lexemes, such as alphabet and spelling and in (another sense) box, post.

Doubtless, many classifications of English collocations are provided. For instance, Sinclair, (1991: 92) divides collocations into two categories: firstly, *up word* which consists of words which habitually collocate with the words more frequently used in English than they are themselves e.g. *back* collocates with *at, down, from, into, on, all of* which are more frequent words than *back*. Secondly, *down word* which consists of words which habitually collocate with words that are less frequent than they are e.g. *arrive, bring* are less frequent occurring collocates of *back*. In addition, Sinclair makes a sharp distinction between those two categories, the elements of *up word* collocation are mostly prepositions, adverbs, conjunctions and pronouns which tend to form grammatical frames, while the elements of the *down word* collocation are mostly nouns and verbs. Sinclair, later on, slightly changes his attitude forming *integrated approach* and dismisses the previsions idea that lexis is rigidly separated form grammar. In this new approach, both the lexical and grammatical aspects of collocateion are taken into consideration whereas Kjellmer, (1990: 66) tries to establish to what extent individual word class is collocaotional or non collocaotional in character. The results of his research show that *articles, preposition singular* and *mass nouns* as well as the base form of verbs are collocaotional in their nature whereas adjectives, singular proper nouns and adverbs are not. Kjellmer claims that English words are scattered across a continuum which extends from those items whose contextual company is entirely predictable to those whose contextual company is entirely unpredictable. According to his result, most words tend to appear at the
beginning of the continuum which can also be described as scale of fitness of collocation. Then it extends from totally free, unrestricted combinations to totally fixed and invariable ones. Lewis, (2000:223) argues that most collocations are found in the middle of this continuum which means that there are very few strong collocations.

The other classification is provided by Lewis (2000:223) who makes a distinction between strong collocation e.g. avid reader, budding author and common collocation, which makes up memories word combinations e.g. fast car, have dinner, a bit tired then medium strong which refers to the largest part of the lexis a language learner needs; e.g. magnificent house, significantly different. Hill, (1991: 89) adds one more category, unique collocation, such as to foot the bill, shrug one shoulder, interims of the strength of collocation. It is worth noting that it is not reciprocal; which means that the strength between the words is not equal on both sides e.g. blond and hair Blonde' collocates only with a limited number of words describing hair colour whereas e.g. brown, long, short, curly, straight happen very often that the bond between the words is unilateral. Furthermore, Palmer, (1981:71) provides three divisions with respect to collocation.

1- Collocations whose denotations relate to things noticed in real life. For example white paint which every one can notice whereas green cow is not a collocation because there is no green cow in real life.

2- Collocations whose node (root) can collocate with all words which are semantically related; the node pretty, buxom, slim can collocate with words denoting females and also the node handsome, stout can collocate with words, denoting males.

3- Collocations not formed in relation to what is seen in neither real life nor their range (cluster) of the node includes words which have some similar semantic features. For example the collocations whose node addled collocates with brain and egg so that there are collocations which do not belong to a specific type. Palmer, (1981:79) also shows that rancid cannot collocate with all words which are semantically related: rancid can collocate with bacon and butter but not with milk and cheese. In addition, Crystal, (1985: 241) reveals that not all collocation are designed
according to what is noticed in real life for instance, although the colour of milk is white, white and milk are not collocates. Moreover, Crystal, (1995:102) adds that words may form a collocation, yet they denote something not noticed in real life. e.g. envy has no colour but it collocates with green in green with envy. Robins, (1969: 65) shows that red and revolution in red revolution are collocates.

2-5 Collocation and Culture

Stubbs, (2000:161) mentions that the notion of a cultural keyword was first introduced by Williams (1970:136) who investigated the history of over one hundred keywords in English culture. Traditionally, culture keywords are understood to have obvious political or ideological meanings and are particularly revealing the value of a culture. However, other scholars believe that even the most common words in the language, such as (little) specifically when used in frequent phrases, can have strong cultural connotations.

Collocation is a lexical relationship between words, it is a language – specific phenomenon which has certain characteristics that differ from language to another and from culture to another. Culture is defined by Farghal and Shunnag, (1999:122) as "a complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, arts, morals, law, customs, ecology and habits, among other things acquired by a member of society". They argue that word collocations in any language of the world usually associate with its culture. Al-Rawi, (1994: 3) argues that collocations are completely different and this difference is "due to the differences in the beliefs and religions culture and background" Baker, (1992: 49) gives an interesting example of English culture and its equivalent in Arabic culture.

1. To deliver a baby (English).

2. To deliver a woman (Arabic).

Baker mentions that English prefers to focus on the baby in the process of child birth whereas Arabic focuses on the woman. She goes on to explain that to speak of delivering a woman would be un acceptable in modern English. Baker argues that this example suggests that differences in collocational pattern among
languages are not just a matter of using a different verb that collocates with a given noun. The differences are rather involved in the different ways of describing an event and culture. This proves the effects of a culture with another across languages.

Baker, (1997: 41) says that differences in collocation patterning in different languages reflect the performance of specific language communications for certain modes of expression. Some collocations are a direct reflection of the material, social, or moral environment in which they occur. This explains why bread collocate with butter in English, but not in Arabic.

2-6 Grammatical Collocations

The web site English grammar today asserts that a grammatical collocation is a type of construction where for example: A verb/adjective must be followed by a particular preposition, or noun must be followed by a particular form of the verb as in:

1. Verb + preposition ——depend on / extend to
2. Adjective + preposition ——afraid of / good at
3. Noun + particular form of verbs ——strength to lift it

These examples are grammatical collocations which are lexicalized as single units whose meanings are formulaic and whose co-occurrence are highly likely. They are sometimes idiomatic, because their meanings do not reflect the meaning of the elements, such as run out of (to reach an end of stock supplies) or put up with (tolerate). Kennedy, (1990:224) mentions that there are similar grammatical combinations which do not have such sense of belonging together. For insistence: from the outside, inside the cupboard are considered prepositional phrases with free combinations.

2-6-1 Types of Grammatical Collocations

Benson et al, (1986 : 220) mention that grammatical collocations fall into the following combinations which will be discussed below under separate sub-headings.
**i- Noun + preposition combination**

Not all noun + preposition combination can be considered as collocation due to the highly predictable meaning of some preposition, such as *of* and *by*. So noun + *of* / *by* combinations are considered free combinations. The following phrases are examples of noun + preposition collocations:

- *Blocked against.*
- *Apathy towards.*

**ii- Noun + to + Infinitive**

There are five syntactic patterns in which noun + to + infinitive construction is most frequently encountered:

a- It was a pleasure (a problem, a struggle) to do it.
b- They had the foresight (instructions, an obligation, permission) to do it.
c- They felt a compulsion (an impulse, a need) to do it.
d- They made an attempt (an effort, a promise, a vow) to do it.
e- He was a fool (against, an idiot,) to do it.

**iii- Noun + that-clause**

The Noun + that – clause combinations that are considered collocational are those using subject pronouns as seen in the sentences below.

a. *We reached an agreement that she would represent us in court.*
b. *He took an oath that he would do his duty.*

However when the (that clause) can be replaced by (which clause) as that in relative clauses, such a noun + that – clause construction is not considered as collocation. For example, *we reached agreement (that – which) would go into effect in a month.*
iv- Preposition + Noun combinations

Any combinations of preposition can fall into this category, however the choice of preposition with certain noun is at random – for example.

By accident, in advance, in agony, on purpose.

v- Adjective + preposition + combination

Some adjectives are followed by a prepositional phrases. The adjective + preposition combination that is considered collocation is the one that occurs in the predicate (verb less clause). However past participle adjective followed by preposition (by) is not considered collocation because this construction is regular and predictable for example:

a. They are angry at the children .
b. They are hungry for news .

The ship was abandoned ( by its crew) is not considered collocation.

vi- Predicate adjective + to + infinitive

Theses adjectives occur in two basic constructions with infinitives.

a- Adjectives with dummy subject "it" such as it was necessary to work, also possible it was necessary for him to work, ( the insertion of prepositional phrase )

b- Adjectives with real and animate subject, such as; She is ready to go or with inanimate subject as The pump is designed to explode at certain temperature.

vii- Adjective + that clause

Some adjectives can be followed by that clause for example:

She was afraid that she would fail her examination.

Several adjectives followed by present subjunctive in formal English are collocation such as it was imperative that we be there.
viii) Collocation verb patterns

English verb patterns have (19) types. Each will be discussed and exemplified below.

a- Shift of an indirect object to a position before the direct object of transitive verbs is allowed. For example:

He sent the book to his brother.

He sent his brother the book.

He sent the book to him.

He sent him the book.

If both objects are pronouns the common pattern is:

He sent it to him.

b- It is not allowed to shift an indirect object to a position before the direct object by deleting to. Such as:

They described the book to her. But not they described her book.

Other common verbs that fit this category are; mention, return screams etc.

c- Transitive verb with preposition for allows the deletion of for and the, shift of the direct object to a position before the indirect object.

For example:

She bought a shirt for her husband. Also possible She bought her husband a shirt (or) she bought a shirt for him (or) she bought him a shirt.

d- The verb forms a collocation with a specific preposition and an object.

For instance:

They based their conclusions on the available facts.

We adhered to the plan.
However, the following similar constructions are not collocations but free combinations of verb + preposition denoting (location) or (means) or (instrument).

We walked in the park.

They came by train.

e- Verbs are followed by to + infinitive

For instance:

*They began to speak.*

*She continued to write.*

However, verbs + to infinitive meaning (purpose) are not included as collocational combination. As in;

*He was running (in order) to catch the bus.*

*She stopped (in order) to chat.*

f- Verbs are followed by infinitive without to

These verbs, except *dare, help need*, are called modals. The verbal phrases *had better* and *would rather* also fit this pattern as in:

*They must work.*

*We had better go now.*

g- Verbs are followed by second verb in –ing.

*They kept talking.*

*We enjoyed watching television.*

Some verbs in this category may have synonymous construction. *He began reading* or *He began to read*, are similar in meaning and some other verbs of this category may have different constructions and meaning. *For example:*

14
He remembered telling him the story (and). He remembered to tell him the story, are different in meaning.

h- Transitive verbs are followed by an object and to + infinitive.

For instance:

They asked the students to participate in discussion.

They permitted the children to watch television.

Many of the verbs in this pattern can be followed by infinitive (to be)

For example:

She asked me to be punctual.

Further more; most of the verbs in this construction can be passive.

i- Transitive verbs are followed by a direct object and an infinitive without to.

Most i- pattern verbs cannot be passive.

For example:

We let him use the car.

We saw them leave the house.

j- Verbs are followed by an object and a verb in – ing

For illustration:

I caught him smoking in his bedroom.

We found the children sleeping on the floor.

Some verbs in this category (especially verbs of perception, like see, hear, feel) may have similar constructions with that of construction in i- pattern. We saw him smoke the cigarette beside we saw him smoking.
(j- Pattern) verbs usually can be used in the passive.

**k- Verbs can be followed by a noun or a pronoun and a gerund, as in:**

- This fact justifies Bill's coming late.
- They love his paintings.
- I cannot imagine their stealing apples.

However possessive constructions are often considered awkward, more common expression for the same meaning will use the following alternative.

- This fact justifies Bill for coming late, they love his paintings, I cannot imagine those stealing apples.

**L- Verbs are followed by a noun clause beginning with the conjunction that,**

as in:

- They admitted that they were wrong.
- We hoped that the weather would be nice.

Some verbs always take object noun or pronoun before the that – clause, such as for example:

- She assured me that she would arrive on time.
- They convinced us that we should invest our money.

Some verbs in this category allow the insertion of the fact.

For Instance:

- He acknowledged (admitted / confirmed.. etc) the fact that he was guilty.

**m- A transitive verb can be followed by a direct object, an infinitive / to be / adjective/ past participle/ noun / pronoun.**

For Instance:
We considered her to be very capable / well trained / a competent engineer.

n- Transitive verbs are followed by a direct object and adjective / past participle or noun / pronoun.

For example:

She dyed her hair red.

He found them interesting.

Some verbs in this category may also be used with M- verb pattern

For example:

We considered her very capable.

o- Transitive verbs are followed by two objects

The teacher asks the students questions.

The police fined them fifty pounds.

P- Intransitive / reflexive / transitive verbs must be followed by (an adverb/ a prepositional phrase / a noun phrase / a clause)

For example:

He carried himself with dignity, but not He carried himself.

The meeting will last two hours, but not the meeting will last.

However some of these verbs may have senses that do not require an adverbial.

q- Verb can be followed by an interrogative word, such as how, what, when, etc.

For example:

He always wants what I want.

She knows when to keep quite.
However, some verbs in this construction need an object, such as

They told us what to do.

She asked me why she had come.

r- Dummy "it" is followed by transitive verbs (often expressing emotions) and by to + infinitive or by that + clause or by either.

For example:

It puzzled me that he never answered the telephone.

It surprised me to learn of her decision.

s- A small number of intransitive verbs are followed by a predicate noun / predictable adjective, including the verb make used intransitively, belongs to this group.

For instance:

She will make a good teacher.

She was enthusiastic.

However a larger group of transitive verbs can be followed only by a predicate adjective. For example:

The flower smells fragrant.

The food tastes awful.

2-7 Collocation as a Problematic area for Secondary Level Students

Crystal, (1992:105) states that "collocations provide a major difficulty in mastering foreign language ….the more fixed a collocation is, the more we think of it as an idiom". Pattern to be learned as whole, and not as the sum of its parts. In that case idioms do not mean what the individual words in them mean. In addition Palmer, (1979:76) also stresses that collocations and phrases are problematic for both native speakers and learners of English. In fact evidence shows that even native speakers face difficulties in using collocations. Therefore, common combinations of words should be taught, not just the individual words. McCarthy, (1990:13) points out that "even very advanced learners often make unacceptable collocations". In this respect, the role of the first language could be one of the major causes of errors in the production of the second language collocations. For Hill, (2000:203) some language
teachers themselves are not aware of the importance of collocations in learning and as a result they may not be drawing their students attention to collocation in their teaching. Moreover, Howorth, (1996:162) notes that;

"Learners are, understandably, generally unaware of the large number of clusters of partially overlapping collocational relationships. It is of course not only learners who are unaware of this category. It is an area unrecognized in language 'pedagogy and little and little understood in lexicography".

What makes EFL learners perform appropriately with regard to collocations is in their overall collocational competence. A near perfect knowledge of second language collocations is a basic requirement for what may call collocational performance in language learning. Collocational competence in second language is part and parcel of overall language competence. One way to judge language competence is through the learners collocational performance demands effective collocational competence.

Halliday, (1976:288) calls collocations "the most problematic part of lexical cohesion", collocations are very often language specific and therefore, will cause frequent language (production) mistakes and communication breakdown.

2-8 Collocation and Idiomatic Expression

As mentioned in (2-7) before, Crystal, ( 1992 : 105 ) points out that “collocations provide a major difficulty in mastering foreign languages the more fixed collocation is the more we think of it as an idiom, ……. a pattern to be learned as a whole, and not as the sum of its parts". In that case idioms do not mean what the individual words in them mean. Since collocation is not easily linguistically defined, there has been a kind of controversy over its definition. The main issue concerns the distinction between collocations and idioms. Some linguists consider idioms as part of collocations, others draw a line between the two. Sinclair et.al, (2005:21), among many other linguists categorize collocations as idioms and argue that no clear distinction can be made between collocation and idioms. Nevertheless, there are many other linguists who make a clear distinction between collocations and idioms
e.g. (Mitchell and Bolinger. Fontenelle (1991) cf Barachi, 2005:22) think that collocations are neither idiomatic expressions nor free combinations. Fontenelle gives the example of bad, addled, rotten + egg and rancid + butter, arguing that all these adjectives can be combined with nouns denoting food items. But they can never be interchanged. As a result, the collocation rancid egg, sour butter or addled milk cannot be accepted in English. Fontenelle also gives an example concerning the idiomatic expression to lick somebody’s boot and argues that idiomatic expressions make a single semantic entity and one cannot derive their meaning from the meanings of the words of which they are made up. Therefore, no actual licking is taking place in the above example neither it is about boots.

2-9 Types of Combinations

The website slideshare.net/edtechph88/grammatical collocation states that according to Benson et.al, (1989:21) there are five types of combination which are listed from the most fixed combination to the freest one. This types will be discussed in the sections that follow:

2-9-1 Compounds

The most fixed word combination is completely frozen and no variations at all are possible. The instance of nominal possible compounds are like (floppy disk) (aptitude test) and an illustration of compound verb (or phrasal verb is (break through).

2-9-2 Idioms

These refer to relatively frozen expressions, whose meaning did not reflect the meaning of their components parts. The illustrations are (to kill two birds with one stone), (kick the bucket) and (spill the beans).

2-9-3 Transitional Combinations

Transitional collocations whose meanings are close to their component parts are regarded as more frozen and less variable than collocations. Collocation
instances of such are (for old time sake), (the fact of life) and (to be in a tight spot).

2-9-4 Collocations

Collocations are loosely fixed, arbitrary recurrent word combinations and the meaning of the whole do reflect the meaning of the parts e.g. (pure chance), (commit murder), (close attention) and (keen competition).

2-9-5 Free Combinations

Free combination are taken as the least cohesive of all combinations. Their components are the freest in regard to being combined with other lexical items. The typical combinations of this sort are: (to recall an adventure / an event / an accident) and to analyze (report / investigate). Warren (1994:133) introduces (Kick the bucket) as an idiom. While Nattinger et.al (1992:178) introduce the same word – combination as a collocation.

2-10 Concept of English Adjectives

Crystal, (1995: 211) states that words which express some features or quality of noun or pronoun are traditionally known as adjectives. Whereas Parrot, (2000:18) asserts that adjectives are often called "describing words" because they provide information about the qualities of something described in a noun, a noun phrase, or clause. Richard et.al, (1989:5) also define adjectives as a word that describes the thing, quality, state or action which a noun refers to, for example (black) in black hat. Deen, (1995: 36) also defines an adjective as a word that describes the thing quality, state or action which a noun refers to. According to the above linguist's definitions an adjective is a word like small, ugly, happy, sad, wide which qualifies a noun or pronoun and denotes a quality associated with them. For example a beautiful girl is a girl who is distinguished from other girls by being beautiful. In this case, the adjective denotes a permanent quality associated with the noun girl. Similarly a sad woman is distinguished from other women by being sad. Sad also denotes a temporary quality a associated with the noun woman. But, some adjectives are different; they do not denote a quality of the noun, for example the adjective heavy as used in heavy smoker does not denote a quality of the noun (smoker). It means in this context ‘great in amount’ or ‘degree’. When more than one
descriptive adjective in a sentence are used, the order of adjectives must be respected and a comma is also needed to separate them. The order of adjective deals with putting the adjectives in a series of adjectives that modify one noun.

2-10-1 Types of English Adjectives

Alexander, (1984: 13) states that there are many types of adjectives but the main ones can be summarized as follows:

2-10-1-1 Adjectives of Quantity

Adjectives of quantity indicate how much a thing is meant as in

i- Give me some flour.
ii- There was little milk in that bottle.
iii- Have they got any pens?

The words some, little and any indicate the quantity of things; they answer the questions how much? So, they are called adjective of quantity.

2-10-1-2 Attributive Adjectives

Quirk, (1973:121) points out that, adjectives that are restricted to attributive position or that occur predominantly in attributive position do not always characterize the referent of the noun directly as in an old friend (one who has been a friend for along period of time) does not necessary imply that the person is old, in fact old refers to the friendship and does not characterize the person. In that use, old is used attributively. On the other hand, in that old man, old is a central adjective (the opposite of young) and that man can be related to that man is old.

2-10-1-3 Predictive Adjectives

Actually, predictive Adjectives have their own feature which are recognized by grammarians. One of these is Quirk, (1973:115) who classifies these features in the following way:

a. Subject complement

Your daughter is pretty.

Your father is rich.
b. **Object complement**
   
   He made his wife happy.

c. **Complement to a subject which is a finite clause**
   
   He will resign is uncertain.

d. **Complement to a subject which is a non-finite clause**
   
   driving a bus in not easy.

### 2-10-1-4 Adjectives of Degree

Adjectives of degree deal with a comparison between things or persons, comparison has an inflection not possessed by nouns and pronouns; it belongs only to adjectives and adverbs. Comparison means the changes happen to the words to express in quality. Crystal, (1995:211) shows that inflections provide the ways in which the quality expressed by an adjective, can be compared and has three degrees. Quirk et.al (1985:45) also express the view that with gradable adjectives, three types of comparison are possible. These types are higher degree, same degree and lower degree.

#### a-Higher degree

Higher degree show that a higher degree is expressed by the inflected forms (er – and est ) or with (more and most) as in:

i. Amell is thinner than Mona.
ii. Ahmed is the tallest one in the class.
iii. Lions are more dangerous than elephants.
iv. A plane is the most expensive of all means of transport.

According to this degree, there are two forms: the comparative which expresses the degree of quality by adding (-er or using more) and the superlative, which expresses the greatest degree of quality by adding (-est or using most). The second is generally referred to as superlative.

#### b- Same degree

Comparison in relation to the same degree is expressed by *as —— as*, as in.

Ali is *as tall as* Omer.
Mona is not as tall as Amna.

This same degree of comparison is referred to as *comparison of quality*, this means there are no inflectional ways to express the same degree, but syntactically it is expressed by using *as — as*. This uninflected form is usually called positive, absolute or comparison of quality.

**j- Lower degree**

This refers to the comparison in relation to a lower degree expressed by (less) and (least) as in:

i- This issue is *less difficult* than the previous one.

ii- This is the *least interesting* book that I have ever read.

### 2-10-1-5 Personal Adjectives

Personal adjectives describe things or people according to the person's own impression. Thomson and Martinet (1985:35) state that "adjectives of *personality* or *emotion* come after adjectives of physical description, including *dark*, *pale*, *fair*, but before *colours* e.g. a - *kindly black doctor*. b- *Friendly white girl*. c- *pale white man*.

### 2-10-1-6 Interrogative Adjectives

An interrogative adjective asks a question with (which) (whose) (whom) and other wh- questions as in:

i- *Which* colour do you prefer? ii- *Why* are you sad? iii- *When* do you get up? iv- To *whom* do you want to go? v- *Whose* pen is this?

Which, why, when, whom and whose are interrogative adjectives.

### 2-10-1-7 Demonstrative Adjectives

Demonstrative adjectives indicate which person or thing is meant as in:

i- I know *these* boys.

ii- Bring me *that* chair.

iii- *Those* apples were very sweet.
This, these, that and those are adjectives; also point out things or persons. They are demonstrative adjectives. It is worth noting that such, same and all are also used as demonstrative adjectives as in:

1- I do not like such dresses. 2- I do not like the same dress.
3- All students in my classroom are my friends.

2-10-1-8 Nominal Adjectives

Nominal adjectives are primarily pronouns and nouns; but when they modify words instead referring to them as antecedents, they are changed to adjectives as in:

1- The school bus comes early daily. 2- That is a university lecturer.

2-10-1-9 Indefinite Adjectives

Huddleston, (1988:28) states that indefinite adjectives are those that may serve as limiting adjectives and formed from an indefinite pronoun. Some common indefinite adjective include all, any thing, any, any one, each, every thing, every body, every one, few, many, nobody, one, none, some, several, somebody and someone.

For example:

1- We are having some cake for dessert. 2- I notice somebody over there. 3- I brought a few books. 4- Ahmed has many friends. 5- Ali has several novels. 6- None can imitate me. 7- Mona invites everyone in our class. 8- I want to buy all new books. 9- Someone has stolen my watch.

2-10-1-10 Distributive Adjectives

Distributive adjectives show the thing or person when they are taken separately e.g.

i- Each man was given a present. ii- I can’t give anyone my phone.
iii- Everybody brought his book. iv- Everyone likes chocolate.
2-10-1 11 Adjectives of Quality

The adjectives of quality denote the kind, quality or characteristic of a noun

i. He is a brave man.

ii. It was a beautiful sight.

iii. A tiger is a wild animal.

The adjective answers the question of what kind? What kind of man, sight and animal? , brave , beautiful and wild are adjectives and they are called adjective of quality.

2-10-2 Characteristics of English Adjectives

Crystal, (1995:199) states that adjectives can occur immediately before a noun e.g. A big town which is called an attributive function it can also occur after linking (copula) verbs. ‘Verb to be’, grow, become, seem, look, appear such adjective are referred to as predictive adjective illustrated below:

i. She looks happy.

ii. He grew healthy.

iii. The house is small.

An adjective can be immediately preceded by (very) and other intensifying words such as very, too, etc.

i. The children are very hungry.

ii. That boy is very sad.

In addition, to a gradable adjective can be compared e.g. rich and richer or by using more and most as in.

i. My father is richer than yours.

ii. Omer is the fattest boy in the town.

iii. French is more interesting than Chinese.

iv. This is the most exciting story I have ever read .In addition to that, many adjectives end in – ly

i. He prefers to be lonely.

ii. Mona talks in a friendly way to customer.
iii. Ahmed goes to school daily

Actually, Quirk et al. (1985:405) provide a number of features of adjectives:

a- Can freely occur in attributive function i.e. they can pre-modify a noun appearing between the determiner (including zero articles) and the head of the noun phrase e.g.
   i. An ugly painting.
   ii. The round table.

b- Can freely occur in predicative functions i.e. they can function as a subject complement as in The painting is ugly. Or as object complement as in He thought the painting is ugly.

c- Can be pre-modified by the intensifier (very) e.g. The children are very hungry.

d- They can take comparative and superlative forms (er-est) such as:
   i. The children are happier now. I know.
   ii. They are the happiest people now.

Or by addition of the pre-modifiers (more) and (most) as in:
   i. These students are more intelligent.
   ii. They are the most beautiful paintings I have never seen.

Quirk et al. (1985:403) state that “not all words that are traditionally regarded as adjectives posses all these four features”. This means there are exceptional cases for example: afraid can occur attributively (feature (a)) and utter can occur predicatively (feature (b)) as in:
   i- People are afraid, not afraid people.
   ii- Utter nonsense, not that nonsense is utter.

2-10-3 Agreement of English Adjectives

English adjectives have only one form, which is used with both singular and plural, masculine and feminine nouns. In other words, adjectives are invariable i.e. they do not change their form whether the noun they modify is singular or plural e.g. good boy, good boys, clever man, clever men ….etc. However, the only exceptions are the demonstrative adjectives this, that which change to these and those before plural nouns.
2-10-4 Position of English Adjectives and the use of (an)

Thomson et al. (1985:15) state that English adjectives usually come before their nouns as in:

i- A big town.
ii- A blue car
iii- An interesting film

They explain that when there are two or more adjectives before a noun they are not usually separated by "and" except when the last two are adjectives of colour.

i- I hate black and white films. ii- I see a red, white and blue flag.

Moreover, adjectives of quality can be placed after copula verbs as be, seen, appear etc. Example for the verbs are 1-He is brave. 2-He seems tired. 3- It appears easy.

2-10-5 Types of English Adjectives of Quality

Adjectives of quality indicate the quality of person or thing. This class of adjectives has many types which will be discussed in detail since they are the focus of this study.

2-10-5-1 Simple English Adjectives

Simple adjectives are expressing quality such as safe, happy, sad, deep, full …..etc
i- She is sad.
ii- The weather was cold.
iii- You look happy today.

2-10-5-2 Compound English Adjectives

Compound adjectives are made of different words together to make descriptive epithets
i- Half – dead traveler.
ii- Absent- minded boy.

Alexander, (1990:81) also shows that numbers are combined with a singular noun to form adjectives with hyphens as in:

A twenty – year old man. Not A twenty years old man. Compound adjectives of this kind can refer to many different things such as: age, volume, price, area…

i. A three – year old building.
ii. A two – liter bottle .
iii. A fifty – dollar skirt .
iv. A sixty – acre farm .

2-10-5-3 Proper English Adjectives

Proper English adjectives can be derived from proper nouns as illustrated in the following examples :

i- An old English book .
ii- This is a Japanese car.
iii- Shakespearian novel .
iv- I prefer Sudanese food .

Hewings, (1999:170) illustrates that some present participles ending in (ing) as in interesting and some past participles ending in (ed) as in excited are used as adjectives . Examples of present participle ending in (ing) are amazing, boring , exciting, frightening , pleasing , surprising , tiring , worrying. Examples of past participles ending in (ed) are alarmed , amazed , bored , tired , worried , frightened , pleased , surprised , worried , amused.

Hewings further explains that the differences between these adjectives are when these adjectives used to describe how some one feels about something, the (ing) adjectives must be used e.g a surprising decision, and the (ed) adjectives describes that someone e.g. I was surprised.

2-10 -6 English Adjectives of Quality used as Nouns

A characteristic feature of English adjectives is that they can function as nouns. Alexander et.al (1990:86) mention that an adjective of quality can be
preceded by (the) and used as nouns. These nouns represent a class of persons. This means a few adjectives are used after (the) to refer to the group as a whole as in:

i) This government does not care about the poor.

ii) The blind should be helped.

Thomson et.al (1985:18) express the view that if the above expressions are used to describe a particular group, it is necessary to add a noun or use one or ones for singular and plural. This form is mainly used when there is some ideas of selection or comparison as in:

iii) He is a young man, not he is a young.

iv) Small bags are often better than big ones.

2-10 -7 Abstract Idea of English Adjectives of Quality

Swan, (2005:14) states that adjectives are sometimes used after (the) to refer to general abstract idea especially in philosophical writing. e.g. The beautiful, the supernatural, the unreal, these expressions are singular as in:

She is interested in the supernatural.

According to Eastwood, (2005:256) the + adjectives can be used to refer to some group of people in the society as in:

i) In those days the poor had a miserable time, (i.e., poor people in general).

ii) There are more churchgoers among the old than among the young (i.e., old/young people in general).

Eastwood also provides the point that if the expression is used to describe specific person or group, it is better to add a noun as in:

i) A young man has been arrested not a young has been arrested.

ii) The old people have gone on a coach trip not the old have gone on a coach trip.

Eastwood, (2005:256) elaborates on this point in (a) and (b) below:
a- The + adjective takes a plural verb as the *in the old are more frequently ill than rest of the population*. But without adding (s) to the adjective not the olds. Other examples are *hungry, homeless, elderly, old, rich, sick, strong, week, young, un employed privilege, handicapped, dead, deaf and blind.*

b- The participle can mean a specific group of people rather than people in general as shown in the example below:

i) The injured were taken to hospital.

It can also mean one person as in: *The accused* was found not guilty.

Eastwood, (2005:257) draws the attentions that few words can be used as nouns, such as *colour words*, they can form a plural with (s) as in:

i) A black (a black person) or the blacks (plural).

ii) The greens (supporters of the green movement).

Further some group of nationalities can be used with (the) to mean a whole people e.g. *the French, the Swiss, the Arab.* Whereas, participle forms can be used after (the) to refer to things in general, which have a particular quality as in:

i) Lots of people believe in the supernatural.

ii) It was a journey into the unknown.

Here the + adjective / participle takes a singular verb.

i) The new takes over from the old.

Examples of some words used in this way are *absurd, mysterious, new, old, ordinary, supernatural, unknown ......etc*

Eastwood goes on saying that a few words can be used after (the) with a more specific meaning as in:

i) The *unexpected* happened (something that was unexpected).

ii) Have you heard the *latest news*? (the latest + news).

iii) I’m sorry but you are asking about *the impossible*.

The + adjective / participle + thing can be used to talk about a particular aspect of a situation. (this pattern is rather informal) as in:
i) The good thing about friends is that you choose them.

ii) The annoying thing was that there were empty seats in the cinema, but they still wouldn’t let us in.

iii) The sad thing is that there is no food for dinner.

iv) The great thing is that the president will meet me tomorrow.

Other words that are used in this way are, amazing, awful, best funny, interesting, nice, odd, remarkable, strange, worst, …….etc.

2-10 -8 Gradable and Ungradable Adjectives

It is agreed by grammarians that most adjectives are gradable, they express qualities which can exist in different grades or degrees. One can use them to talk about different degrees of warmth, difficulty or tiredness.

i) It is very / extremely warm to day.

ii) I thought the questions were fairly difficult.

iii) I feel a bit tired now.

Some adjectives are upgradable. Many of them express qualities such as magnificence or perfection, which cannot exist in different degrees. There are words which are not normally used like very, extremely, fairly or a bit with an upgradable adjective but absolutely can be used:

i) It’s absolutely boiling today.

ii) I feel absolutely exhausted now.

Another usage of upgradable adjectives of complexity or totality can be used:

i) You are asking about something that is completely impossible.

ii) It is a totally incredible story.

Whereas, really and so can be used with both gradable and upgradable adjectives such as:

i) The food was really good / so good.

ii) The food was really delicious / so delicious.

2-10-9 Order of Adjectives of Quality

Swan (2005:11) states that "the order of descriptive words is not completely fixed. Words for origin and material usually come last whereas
size, age, shape, colour come in that order". The following table demonstrates the order of words.

Table (2-1): Order of Adjectives of Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>shape</th>
<th>colour</th>
<th>origin</th>
<th>material</th>
<th>noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a fat</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>white</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a big</td>
<td>grey</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Woolen</td>
<td>Shirt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>new</td>
<td></td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>boots</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a small</td>
<td>round</td>
<td>black</td>
<td></td>
<td>Leather</td>
<td>handbag</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an enormous</td>
<td></td>
<td>brown</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>glass</td>
<td>mug</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Swan(2005:11)

2-10-10 Formation of English Adjectives of Quality

Suffixation and prefixation are characteristics of word formation in English. For instance: Alexander, (1988:80) states that many adjectives related to verbs or nouns have a characteristic ending (suffix). On the other hand, Richard et-al (1989:281) define suffix as a letter or sound or group of letters or sounds which are added to the end of a word and which change the meaning or the function of the word. Adjectives can be formed by using prefixes or suffixes.

2-10-11 Adjectives Formed by Using Suffixes

According to Redman, (1997:18) some English adjectives are formed with various kinds of suffixes as in.

2-10-11-1 Adjectives formed with suffix( able) -( ible)

These suffixes form adjectives with the meaning which is able to do this or have this quality. There are no rules to tell whether the ending will be (able) or (ible) , here are some common examples:

i) An enjoyable evening.
ii) A comfortable chair.
iii) Jeans are still fashionable.
iv) Suitable dress for wedding.
Sometimes (able) means (can be done), reliable (can be trusted). Washable (can be washed) e.g. *Is this Jacket washable?*, unsuitable (not right /correct for a situation) e.g. *Jeans are unsuitable for wedding*. Unbreakable (cannot be broken) e.g. *the glass in the shop window is unbreakable*. My parents are *fixable*, the elder brother is *responsible*. This map is very *comprehensible*. The house is *invisible* from the road.

2-10-11-2 Adjectives Formed with (full) and (less)

These suffixes form adjectives with different meanings as in:

**a-Full:** with the meaning of quality or full of e.g.:
- *Careful* (doing something with care and attention) *careful boy*,
- *Useful* (has a lot of use) e.g. *I found it a useful book*
- *Painful* (giving pain) e.g. *It was painful when I hit my hand*

**b. Less:** with the meaning of without such as:
- *Careless* (without care, and causing mistakes) such as:
  - *His work is full of careless mistakes.*
- *Useless* (without use and often terrible) e.g.:
  *This knife is useless – it won't cut anything.*
- *Homeless* (with nowhere to live) e.g.
  *Many families are homeless because of the war.*

2-10-11-3 Adjectives Formed with (-ish)

Redman, (1997:194) states that this suffix is added to nouns denoting some kinds of people to form adjectives with the meaning looking as in:

**a-ish** with the meaning of looking e.g.:

- She had a *roundish* face.
ii- He wore a *greenish* tie.

iii- He is a *foolish* boy.

**b-ish** is added to the nouns of nationalities to describe the people or their languages as British – Swedish – Danish – Spanish.

**c-ish** is added to the adjectives, especially describing colours.

To form other adjectives with the meaning (having this quality more or less) as in: *reddish dress, yellowish leaf and babyish face.*

### 2-10-11-4 Adjectives Formed with *(y)*

The suffix (y) means having (the look) as in:
- It is *sunny* day.
- It is very *dirty* dress.
- It is *foggy*, so I can't see any thing.
- The children were very *hungry*.

### 2-10-11-5 Adjectives Formed with *(ly)*

This suffix is added to the adjectives to form adverbs with the meaning (having the qualities of) such as:
- The play ended *sadly*.
- He song in *avidly* way.

Therefore, after be – *look, smell, taste, feel, seem and sound* the adjectives are used as in *That egg tasted bad.* (bad is an adjective describing the noun egg) whereas after other verbs the adverbs are used such as: *Ahmed behaved badly* (badly is an adverb it adds to the meaning of the verb behave). *Ahmed behaves well or Ahmed looks good.*

### 2-10-11-6 Adjectives Formed with *(ive)*

This suffix is used to make adjective from verbs such as *attractive – creative – possessive.*

**Examples:**
- He is so *possessive about his new bike.*
- He has a very *attractive car.*

### 2-10-11-7 Adjectives Formed with *(ed)*

This suffix is added to some nouns to form adjectives with the meaning (having or possessing) many of these are compound adjectives which describe people or things.
Examples:
- He is wearing a short-sleeved shirt and brand-new hat (completely new).
- The beggar is bare-footed.

2-10-11-8 Adjectives Formed with (-ian)

This suffix is added to the names of countries to form adjectives which describe nationalities or their language.

*Things Fall Apart* is one of the best African novels; it is also used to form adjectives from the names of kings and queens, and to describe religious and political movements. Some examples are: *Georgian, Italian, Shakespearian, Victorian, And Republican.*

- I like *Shakespearian* plays.
- My father prefers *Italian* pizza.

2-10-12 Adjectives Formed by Using Prefixes

Prefixation in English is the addition of a prefix to a word. As Richard et.al, (1989:226) point out "prefix is a letter or sound or group of letters or sounds which are added to the beginning of a word and which change the meaning or function of the word ". For example (-im) added to an adjective generally has a negative effect as in:

- I think it is *possible* to solve the problem. I think it is *impossible* to solve the problem.

In fact the most common English prefixes are:

**Un**- gives the meaning of (not/ opposite) e.g.

*Unfriendly* girl, the old man *unable* to walk, my room is *untidy*, it is *unnecessary* to *spend* money, the boy is **unkind** with the bird.

A number of prefixes are used in English to provide different meanings. These prefixes include:

**In**- which is used with words of Latin origin as in *invisible – informal – inadequate – incorrect – invalid*. 
- informal little - incorrect answer.

**Im**- is used before some words beginning with (m) or (p) as in impolite – impossible
- impatient – immoral.

- Immoral film - impolite boy.

**I/** – can be used before (/) as in: illegible document.

**Ir** – is only used before a few words beginning with (r) as in: irresponsible boy –
irregular verb – irrelevant issue.

**Dis** – gives the meaning of (reverse or opposite) is used before some adjectives as:

dishonest child, I dislike banana, I disagree with this point, a discomfort sofa.

Another group of prefixes which give adjectives specific meanings are re-, over-, miss-, anti-, by-, and fore. The examples below show their meaning

re- means (again) e.g. please rewrite this passage.

over – means (too much) e.g. my boss is overdoing it at the moment.

miss- means (badly or incorrectly) I’m afraid I misunderstood what he said.

anti – means (against) antisocial person.

bi – means (two) I have bilingual book (using two languages)

fore - means (before) in advance as in foreword (at the beginning of book)
foreground (the front part of a picture) forehead or forearm.

### 2-10-13 Formation of Comparative and Superlative English

Comparative adjective in English is a form of an adjective which is used to show comparison between two things.

#### 2-10-13-1 The Comparative Formation

The comparative is formed by:

- Adding the suffix (er) e.g. it is cheaper to go by car than train.
- By using (more) with the base form when the adjective has more than two syllables e.g. This car is more expensive than that car.
Based on the above examples, (cheaper) and (more expensive) are comparative forms. After comparatives (than) can be used as in you are taller than me, going by train is more expensive than going by car; (er) can be used for short words (one syllable) such as cheap – cheaper, fast – faster, large – larger, thin – thinner, and also can be used for two syllable words that end in (y) (-y-ier) such as lucky – luckier, early – earlier, easy – easier, pretty – prettier.

A few adjectives have irregular comparative forms, the most irregular forms of adjectives of quality are demonstrated in table (2-2) below.

**Table (2-2) Irregular English Comparative and Superlative Forms.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADJECTIVE</th>
<th>COMPARATIVE</th>
<th>SUPERLATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>further</td>
<td>furthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Hewings (2005:144)*

### 2-10-13-2 English Superlatives Formation

The superlative in English is formed by adding (-est) for short words as in long – longest, hot – hottest, easy – easiest, hard – hardest, and by adding most for longer words such as most famous, most boring, most difficult, most expensive.

The definite article (the) must be added before any superlative. The examples below explain the point:

Shakespeare is the most famous dramatist.

Yesterday was the hottest day of the year.

It was the most boring film I've ever seen.

He is one of the nicest people I know.
It deserves noting that (in) is used with nouns, as in:

i- What is the longest river in the world?

ii- That room is one of the best rooms in the hotel.

(In) is used for organizations and groups of people as in (a class/ a company) who is the youngest student in the class?

The present perfect is sometimes used after a superlative as in:

- What's the most important decision you've had to make?
- What was the best holiday I've had for a long time?

Quirk et. al (1985:458) state that “a small group of highly frequent adjectives that have comparative and superlative and forms with stem which are different from the base”.

- Good → Better → Best.
- Bad → Worse → Worst.
- Far → Further → Furthest.

2-10-14 Changes in Spelling in using Adjectives of Quality

It is noticed that certain changes in spelling or pronunciation may happen in the base of English adjectives when the suffixes are added. The following are the most common ones.

a- By doubling the consonant and adding (er) and (est) when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter such as thinner, fatter, hottest, ... etc

b- By changing (y) into (I) and adding (-er) and (-est) when the base is ending in a consonant followed by (y) as in earlier, angriest.

When the base end in a (mute) (unpronounced -e) this (e) is dropped before the inflection as in pure-purest, brave – bravest – etc, and the same rule applies if the base ends in (-ee) e.g. free – freer – freest.
2-11 English Prepositions

Preposition is one of the parts of speech since it plays an important role in oral and written speech.

2-11-1 Concept of Preposition

Nesfield, (1990:8) defines prepositions as "a word used for showing in what relation one thing to another thing". In other words a preposition is a word which indicates a link between different parts of speech in sentence constructions. *A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush*, the preposition (in) expresses the relationship between the thing denoted by the noun (bird) and the thing denoting the noun (bush). Huddleston, (1984:91) on the other hand defines preposition, as "a word that indicates a relation between the noun or a word that indicates a relation between the noun or pronoun it governs and another word, which may be a verb, an adjective, another pronoun or noun". For example:

- *I live in a house.*

In the above example, the preposition (in) classifies the relation between the verb (live) and the noun (house) on the one hand and the relation between the pronoun (I) and the noun (house) on the other hand. Quirk et.al (1973:143) state that "a preposition expresses a relation between two entities, one being represented by the prepositional phrase that consists of a preposition of time and place, and the other recognizable relationships are that of tool and cause e.g. *Ahmed had broken the glass with a stone*, in this example, the preposition (with) shows the meaning of tool, stone can be considered as a tool used in breaking the glass. In the case of preposition of cause, the preposition tends to express either the material or cause (i.e break in of the glass with the intention of getting something out of the room).

Thomson and Martinet, (1970:46) mention that "a preposition is a word often placed at the sentence in order to explain, and to indicate the relationship between two different notions".
Based on these definitions, a conclusion can be drawn that a preposition is the basic term which connects or joins different ideas, links them together, explains and specifies the relationship between each other.

2-11-2 English Preposition Rule

There is only one rule about prepositions, and varies from other most rules, this has no exception. The rule is that a preposition is followed by a noun, it is never followed by a verb. These nouns include, common nouns, proper nouns and abstract noun.

Table (2-3) Types of Nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common nouns</th>
<th>Proper nouns</th>
<th>Abstract nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>Love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dog</td>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>Goodness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>Ahmed</td>
<td>Hate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: gingersoftware.com

2-11-3 Types of English Prepositions

English prepositions can be classified into different ways which will be discussed in the following sections under separate headings.

2-11-3-1 Simple prepositions

Quirk et.al (1985:665) state that "most of English common prepositions simply consist of one word". while Eastwood ,(2005:290) points out that a preposition can be one word like in – on – at or it can be more than one word like out of, in front of. The tables below include the most common simple prepositions. They are divided into monosyllabic and polysyllabic, in view of different stress patterns, monosyllabic prepositions are normally unstressed ; polysyllabic prepositions are normally stressed.
Table (2-4) Monosyllabic prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vid</th>
<th>Through</th>
<th>Round</th>
<th>Off</th>
<th>In</th>
<th>Down</th>
<th>At</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>with</td>
<td>Til</td>
<td>Since</td>
<td>On</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>For</td>
<td>But</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>up</td>
<td>than</td>
<td>Out</td>
<td>Of</td>
<td>From</td>
<td>By</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Thewritersforhire.com

Table (2-5) Polysyllabic prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a¹bout</th>
<th>a¹above</th>
<th>a¹cross</th>
<th>a¹against</th>
<th>a¹long</th>
<th>a¹mid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a¹nti</td>
<td>a¹round</td>
<td>a¹top</td>
<td>be¹fore</td>
<td>be¹hind</td>
<td>be¹low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>be¹side</td>
<td>be¹sides</td>
<td>be¹tween</td>
<td>be¹yond</td>
<td>,despite</td>
<td>,during</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in¹side</td>
<td>¹into</td>
<td>o¹nto</td>
<td>¹opposite</td>
<td>¹outside</td>
<td>¹over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¹pending</td>
<td>through¹out</td>
<td>to¹wards</td>
<td>un¹der - under¹neat</td>
<td>un¹like – un¹till</td>
<td>up¹on – with¹in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a¹mong</td>
<td>be¹neath</td>
<td>ex¹cept</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¹pace</td>
<td>with¹out</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: thewritersforhire.com

2-11-3-2 Complex Prepositions

Another type of prepositions is complex preposition which Quirk and Greenbaum (1979:145) define as prepositions consisting of more than one word as complex prepositions. In other words, complex preposition can be divided into two or three – word sequences. In the case of two word sequences, the first word is to be stressed which may be an adverb, adjective, or conjunction and the second word is expected to be a simple preposition:
i- keep away from fire. (adverb preposition)
ii- Ahmed is afraid of lion. (adjective + preposition)
iii- Because of sickness I can’t meet him. (conjunction + preposition)

2-11-3-3 Marginal (differed) Prepositions

It is observed that in English some words function as prepositions.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1985:667) mention that there are some words which work in many ways like prepositions although they also have similarities with other word classes such as verb or adjectives. These include excepting, excluding, concerning, considering, regarding, respecting, failing, wanting, following, pending, including.

Considering the sentences below will explain the point

i) We had a pleasant time except for the weather.

ii) She had said nothing regarding your respect.

The following are some of the prepositions which are commonly used in spoken and written English.

a- Prepositions of place: between, among, by, beside, in, on, at, across, along, over, through, above, over, below, under, from ……… etc

b- Prepositions of time: in, over, for, during, until, throughout, since, for, at, on, till until ……… etc

c- Prepositions of movement: down, over, up, to, from ……… etc

2-12 Prepositions versus Adjectives

With respect to prepositions and adjective clauses, it is obvious that there are clear differences between adjectives and prepositions. Adjectives, unlike prepositions can be used attributively; take inflectional comparatives and modifiers like (very) and do not take noun phrase and can function as complement in clause structure – specifically as complement to a copulative verb like (be). The sentences below serve as typical examples

i) It was on the desk (prepositional phrase).
ii) She was in a bad temper. (prepositional phrase).

iii) He was very angry (adjective phrase).

2-13 Combination of Adjectives of Quality + Prepositions

Eastwood (2005:318) among other grammarians points out that there are some adjectives that can be followed by a preposition such as:

The place was crowded with tourists. The town is famous for its hugs market.

The boy was happy with the gift. You'll be late for work.

The man was found guilty of burglary. We're ready for action.

We're rather short of time. Ahmed is good at English.

That kind of remark is typical of a man. Mona is bad at French.

The job is similar to the one I did before. He is crazy about football.

In addition to the above, some other adjective express feeling:

Afraid of the dark, confident of victory, crazy about country music, eager for news, fed up with house work, interested in ballet, jealous of other people's success, keen on fishing, pleased with/about.

Some other adjectives can take different prepositions, depending on the meaning, such as:

1-We are angry with some one, but about something.

2-The tourists were angry about the mix – up over tickets.

3-Why are you angry with me? It is not my fault.

4-We are anxious about a problem.

5-Everybody was anxious about tourist attacks.

Anxious for means (wanting)

The whole family were anxious for news about the missing boy.
Concerned for means (wanting)

We are concerned for the child's welfare.

Concerned with means (about) or (involved in)

1- My research is concerned with social trends.

2- We are concerned about or concerned at the problem.

3- The government is concerned about / at the rise in crime

In addition to that, people can be sorry about something or sorry for doing something.

I've kept you waiting. Sorry about that.

I'm sorry for keeping / to keep you waiting.

Good and bad can be used to talk about ability.

Mike is good at skating (ie. he can skate well)

I was always bad at any kind of sport (couldn’t do sport) very well).

You're brilliant at math's, you know (brilliant = very good).

They say the English are hopeless at learning foreign language (hopeless = very bad).

The preposition (at) can be used with an activity, and (with) to talk about other things such as:

I'm no good at budgeting.

I'm no good with money.

Good for and bad for can be used if something benefits you or not e.g.

Eating too much fatty food is bad for any one.

Regular exercise is good for you.

Good to, rude to, can be used if it is wanted to say how people behave towards someone e.g. Thank you, you've been very good to me / kind to me.
I thought you were a bit rude to your teacher.

The waiter was barely polite to us.

2-14 Teaching Adjectives of Quality plus Preposition

In general, learners find preposition usage very difficult, because, preposition rules are either nonexistent or too complex to be useful. According to Monica, (2010:24) mastering preposition is not easy, practice helps learners to become more aware of how words and phrases are written and used in English. The most common prepositions are *at, in, on, by, for, from, of, to, with*. Some prepositions are regularly used in combination with a particular verb or adjective.

Students generally either, omit the preposition or use the incorrect one. The following table demonstrates some of the common Adjectives + prepositions:

**Table (2 – 6) Adjective + Preposition Combinations:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective + Preposition Combinations</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>accustomed to</td>
<td>He is accustomed to having his own office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>addicted to</td>
<td>She is addicted to watching TV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afraid of</td>
<td>She is afraid of speaking in public.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anxious about</td>
<td>Norma is anxious about making the presentation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bored of</td>
<td>I am bored of doing the same old job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capable of</td>
<td>He is capable of winning a gold medal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>committed to</td>
<td>She is committed to improving her English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concerned about</td>
<td>Nancy was concerned about being late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>content with</td>
<td>Tim is content with winning second place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phrase</td>
<td>sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dedicated to</td>
<td>The organization is dedicated to ending poverty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devoted to</td>
<td>The money will be devoted to protecting the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disappointed with</td>
<td>Fiona was disappointed with coming in third place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discouraged by</td>
<td>He was discouraged by not getting the job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excited about</td>
<td>The researcher was excited about going to Africa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>famous for</td>
<td>That actor is famous for being extremely weird.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fond of</td>
<td>She is fond of having picnics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frightened of</td>
<td>She is frightened of being alone at night.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>guilty of</td>
<td>The banker was guilty of stealing money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy about</td>
<td>He was happy about winning the lottery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interested in</td>
<td>She is interested in becoming a doctor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>involved in</td>
<td>He was involved in making the movie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>known for</td>
<td>She was known for causing problems.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opposed to</td>
<td>They are opposed to building a new road in the park.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proud of</td>
<td>He was proud of having completed the marathon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remembered for</td>
<td>She is remembered for protecting mountain gorillas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsible for</td>
<td>He is responsible for causing the damage.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2-15 Role of Collocations in Second Language Teaching

The role collocation plays in second language teaching is integrally related with a concept introduced in (1970s) by Firth according to which language is learned in a series of prefabricated blocks defined by Lewis, (1994:83) as unanalyzed wholes. Lewis, (1997: 96) points out that fluency in a foreign language is conditioned by the acquisition of a number of prefabricated chunks. He regards collocation as a central feature of a language production. Therefore, student’s attention should be fully directed to it. Lewis, (2000:105) also claims that the number of collocations understood as word combinations are greater than the number of all words because the same words can occur in various collocations. Hill, (1999: 123) suggests coining a term (collocation competence). Learner’s have considerable difficulty developing collocation competence unless they are able to collocate words successfully. If in their lexical corpus there are no ready – made chunks at their disposal, they have to generate them from scratch on the basis of grammar rules. This leads to numerous mistakes. A wide range of meaningful chunks and collocations in the learner’s mental lexicon makes it possible to quickly find the right word. Hill, (1999 : 123 ) mentions that collocations facilitate and accelerate the communication process. Nattinger, (1980: 93) , adds that language production is based on piecing together readymade units appropriate for a particular situation.
Carter, (1987:112) perceives collocations as crucial factors of lexical coherence and stresses the need for teaching collocation at all levels of language proficiency, whereas the authors of Oxford collocation Dictionary, (2002:7) also stresses the role of collocations in language that it runs through the whole of a language to such extent that no piece of natural spoken or written language is totally free of collocation. Every student choosing the right collocation makes his /her speech more natural and more native speaker–like. Nattinger et.al,(1992:176) mention that collocations are important to be considered by both teachers and learner's in their performance. They have underlined the importance and benefits of collocations stressing that collocations are essential for EFL learner's to boost their communicative competence, enhance their fluency, be native – like and maintain lexical cohesion. Besides, Lewis, ( 2000 : 82) points out that the use of collocations makes the addresser expressive enough in productive skills, then by expressiveness what is implied is the extent to which the speaker or writer is able to express an idea clearly with all detailed aspect.

2-16 Reasons for Learning Collocations

According to Englishclub.com/vocabularycollocations , collocation importance is presented in many points: the language will be more natural and more easily understood, alternative and richer ways will achieve and finally it is easier for brains to remember and use languages in chunks or blocks rather than as single words.

2-17 Teaching Collocations

Collocations must be treated as single blocks of language and must be thought of them as individual blocks or chunks, for example the words strongly and support must be thought as one unit (strongly support) not strongly + support individually. When a new word is written, the learner must write other words that collocate a new word, while words that collocate with it must be written. e.g. remember rightly, remember vaguely, remember vividly. Reading must be taken into consideration, because it is an excellent way to learn collocations in context and more naturally. Beside revising what is learned regularly and practice using
new collocations in context as soon as possible after learning them and checking the specialized dictionaries of collocations.

2-18 Activities to Practice Adjectives of Quality plus Preposition Collocationally

A considerable number of activities can be utilized to practice adjectives collocationally. Firstly, Learners can be given a text or some sentences that include adjectival preposition and asked to correct them. Secondly, Students can be given several adjectives that collocate with certain prepositions, but include adjectives that do not collocate with this preposition. Thirdly, Intermediate and higher-level students can try to find synonyms of adjective which can collocate with certain prepositions such as proud of, fond of, kind of or nice of. Fourthly, A brainstorming activity can be done to let students revise adjectives of quality plus preposition collocationally. Finally, Correct prepositions can not be guessed, so that a learner has to learn the expression as a whole.

2-19 Prepositions as a Problematic Area

Marianne et.al (1983:250) reveal that when ESL/EFL teachers are surveyed regarding their teaching problems, the problematic area which they discover are prepositions, they mentioned almost as frequently articles; i.e. the teachers as a group find that prepositions are one of the most difficult aspect of the English language for their students. Many reasons support these perceptions of difficulty. Among which are:

i) The number of prepositions in English language tends to be greater than other languages.

ii) The prepositions do not always translate, or has not exact equivalent in the other language

iii) Learners may make negative transfer from their mother tongue because of the above.

iv) Student may over generalize rules of prepositions.
2-20 Previous Studies

The researcher has surveyed some Sudanese Universities to find the previous studies carried out in *Performance Of EFL Secondary School In Grammatical Collocation With Focus On Adjectives Of Quality Plus Preposition*. The survey has provided that there are no previous studies in the area of using adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocationally in these universities. However the researcher has found some studies that are in some way related to the present study. The first one is an MA study which was conducted by Ishraga Hashim, *Errors Of Adjectives Of Quality Committed By EFL Learners*. University of Gezira, Faculty of education (2011) .The study aimed at finding out the problematic areas of using English adjectives of quality among secondary school students, discussing the reasons behind the occurrence of the problem, and helping teachers by providing guide lines to solve the problem of using English adjectives of quality at secondary schools. The main findings of the study are that mother tongue interference is the major cause of the EFL student errors, (45%), the majority of the students errors are due to the incomplete knowledge of English language (50%) and poor explanation of English language adjectives is a source of making errors of English adjective of quality (40%).On the other hand, four recommendations are based on the findings reached are : firstly, EFL teacher's should not use mother tongue in the classroom, unless it is used to compare between English and Arabic adjectives of quality in order to provide sufficient explanations on the differences and similarities between them, secondly EFL teacher's should always update their knowledge, techniques and materials to make the teaching effective and to minimize the students errors and finally, teachers should become fully aware of the difficulties i.e. they must identify and classify the errors into types to analyze them ,The second study was by Mona El sayed University of Gezira, Faculty of education (2007) an MA study entitled *English collocations as a problematic Area for the students At secondary level*. The objectives of the study were, to measure the student ability in producing English collocations formed according to the most common patterns, to find out whether EFL students at Wad Medani secondary schools notice collocations and to find solutions to the problems encountered by the students at Wad Medani Secondary Schools when producing English collocations. The findings of the study reached are: learning English
collocations is important to learn English however, most of the students cannot produce these collocations using the most common pattern, although noticing collocations is important to learn collocations, the majority of the students do not do that and the majority of the students memorize words in isolation which hinders learning collocations. The recommendations provided by the study are: teacher's should familiarize the students with the importance of noticing English collocations in learning English. The teachers should adopt the direct teaching of contextualized English collocations and their Arabic equivalents and lastly the exercises designed specifically for recycling collocations should be adequate considered in the Spine Series at the secondary level. The third study was by Fatima Ebdalmajeed University of Gezira, Faculty of Education (2005) an MA study in titled *Errors in the Use of English Prepositions in Written Work of Omani EFL Pupils*. Some of the purposes of the study were to identify the problems of English prepositions that face Omani EFL learners when writing in English, to find solutions to the problems that face Omani EFL learners when employing English prepositions, then improving and developing learners performance in writing English text as far as prepositions are concerned. The results of the study reached are: the subjects have made all types of prepositions errors in space, time and miscellaneous under the influence of two factors, L1 (Arabic) and other language learning problems (OLP), however, in both written text and multiple-choice test, the highest number of errors was made in miscellaneous prepositions, accounted for fifty-six errors (46.7%) in the written texts and twenty-five errors (50%) in the multiple-choice test. Although the pupils native language L1 native language (Arabic) is the main cause of the problems that the pupils confront when employing English prepositions errors. Errors made under L1 influence constitute (75%) in the written texts and (79%) in the multiple-choice test. Regarding the findings, the researcher recommendations were learners should have adequate explanations of both meaning and use of prepositions. Then problematic English prepositions can be related to their Arabic equivalence in order to draw pupils' attention to the fact that literal translation into Arabic may lead to errors occurrence. The fourth study was by Marzouq Nasser Alsulayyi, Anglia Ruskin University, England (2014) PhD study, *The Use of Grammatical Collocations by Advanced Saudi EFL Learners in the UK and KSA*. The study aimed at exploring the familiarity
Saudi EFL learners in the UK and the KSA with grammatical collocations and measuring the knowledge of Saudi EFL learners in UK and the KSA through analyzing their errors when using grammatical collocation patterns in writing essays. The finding of the study showed that the participants tend to do grammatical collocations errors mostly on the noun + preposition pattern collocation (45.8%) out of total percentage of errors followed by the adjective plus preposition (18.7%), the preposition plus noun (14.5%). Whereas the literally translation into Arabic lead to negative interference from L1 (58%). The recommendations of the researcher are: teachers need to choose carefully the activities that focus on the most problematic types of grammatical collocations, while the student can be asked to analyze text in order to draw their attention to grammatical collocations. The fifth study was by Siti Aisah, Gunadarma University (2009) an MA study entitled The English Adjective Lexical Collocation. The goals of the study were: to describe English adjective collocations and to describe the most frequent combination of adjective collocations. The result of this research is that the most frequent combination of adjective lexical collocations is adverb + derivational adjective. One of the recommendations of this study is to analyze other kinds of English lexical collocations such as English nominal lexical collocations and English verb lexical collocations which do not discuss in this research. Comparing the present study to the studies discussed above, the first study dealt with errors of Adjectives of quality committed by EFL learners. While the present study nearly goes in the same direction but when adjective of quality and preposition are used collocationally. The difference between them is that, Ishrag's study dealt with errors of adjectives of quality committed by EFL learners, whereas this study focuses on adjectives of quality + preposition collocationally. With reference to the second study, it dealt with English collocations as a problematic area, the study focused on English collocations as general whereas the present study focuses on grammatical collocations in the structure of adjectives of quality plus prepositions. The third study dealt with Errors in The Use of English Prepositions in Written Work Of Omani EFL Pupils, the study focused on prepositions in general while the present study focuses on prepositions when preceded by adjectives of quality collocationally. Regarding the fourth study, which dealt with The Use of Grammatical Collocations by Advanced Saudi EFL Learners, while the present study
deals with grammatical collocations in the area of adjectives of quality + prepositions combinations, the difference between them is that Marzouq's study focused on grammatical collocation in general while the present study focuses on grammatical collocations specially on adjectives of quality + prepositions. The last study focused on English adjectives lexical collocations while the present study concentrates on grammatical collocations.

In the next chapter, the methodology of the study will be treated.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is assigned for the discussion of the procedures followed in conducting the study. Sampling, tools of data collection and data analysis will be discussed in detail.

3.1 The Study Design

The researcher adopted the descriptive analytical method for conducting the study. The researcher selected a sample from the study population to reflect the facts as they stand at the present time.

3.2 Sampling

The data was collected from a sample consisting of two groups. The first group was chosen randomly from Wad Medani Secondary School for Girls, it consisted of (50) students from third science class at Wad Medani Secondary School for girls. The second group comprised (20) EFL experienced teachers from different secondary schools in Greater Wad Medani Locality.

3.3 Tools for Data Collection

The researcher used two tools for collecting data: a diagnostic English test for EFL learners and a questionnaire for EFL experienced teachers.

3.3.1 The Diagnostic Test

The test was made up of five main questions; Question one was a general question aiming to test the knowledge of the subjects about the use of certain adjectives, verbs and participial adjectives plus prepositions. Question two was intended to check the use of prepositions with adjectives. Question three was aimed at completing the questions with correct prepositions. The title of question four was
It was intended to examine students ability to use adjectives of quality and participial adjectives with correct prepositions. Question five was entitled *match a with b*, this question aimed to investigate the use of verb with preposition.

### 3.3.1.1 Procedures of the test

The researcher administrated the test with the assistance of the staff of the school who were very co-operative. The test lasted (45) minutes.

### 3.3.1-2 Reliability of the Test

To measure the test reliability, the researcher adopted the method of test and retest, the correlation process to the learners scores was carried out. So the diagnostic test was administrated to the learners of Wad Medani Secondary Schools for Girls and the same test was administrated after a time interval of two weeks to the same group.

### 3.3.1.3 Validity of the Test

The test was piloted by three members of the staff of University of Gezira Faculty of Education, Hantoub Department of English. It was modified and corrected according to their comments to achieve its required objectives.

### 3.3.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire aimed at investigating the sources of the problems faced by the secondary school learners in adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocationaly.

#### 3.3.2.1 Content of the questionnaire

The questionnaire contained (11) statements each was accompanied by the options (agree, agree to a large extent, agree to some extent and disagree). The objective of the first statement of the questionnaire was to discover students use of English grammatical collocations in general. The second statement aimed to explore
the students awareness of adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocationally. The third, fourth and the fifth statements were to detect the sources of the problem. The sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth statements were to suggest effective techniques to help the learners. Finally, the two last statements aimed to find out which organized strategies were to improve the knowledge of the students in this area.

3.3.2.2 The procedures

The questionnaire was distributed to (20) EFL experienced teachers at the secondary schools in order to find out the suitable effective techniques for teaching English adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocations.

3.3.2.3 Validity of the Questionnaire

Before distributing the questionnaire to EFL experienced teachers, it was judged by three members of the staff of university of Gezira, Faculty of Education, Hantoub, Department of English language

3.4 Data Analysis

The data collected by means of the diagnostic test and questionnaire, were analyzed by means of both frequency and percentage manually.

In the following chapter, the results of data analysis will be displayed and discussed in relation to the hypotheses of the study.
CHAPHTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is assigned for the analysis of the data collected from two tools: the diagnostic test and the questionnaire. The results will be presented in tables which display the performance of the students in English grammatical collocation.

4.1 Result of the test

Table (4.1.1): Choosing the suitable collocate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 1</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total of Students</th>
<th>percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of percentages</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>156 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>31 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (4.1.1) above, in section (a), (64%) of the students answered wrongly and (36%) of the students answered correctly, while in section (b), (50%) of the students answered wrongly and (50%) of the students answered correctly (64%) of the students in section (c) answered wrongly and (36%) of the
students answered it correctly. While in section(d), (76%) of the students answered wrongly and (24%) of the students answered it correctly. Regarding section (e), (90%) of the students answered wrongly while only (10%) answered it correctly. Concerning the average percentage, (69%) of the students answered the first question wrongly, while (31%) of the students answered it correctly. That means the majority of the students perform poorly in the first question.

**Table (4.1.2) choosing the suitable preposition.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 2</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total of Students</th>
<th>percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>22 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>26 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total of percentage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>114%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average percentage</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>23 %</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in table (4.1.2) above, (78%) of the subjects answered the first section incorrectly while (22%) of the subjects answered it correctly. Whereas, in the second section, (80%) of the subjects answered incorrectly while (20%) of the subjects answered it correctly. Concerning the third section, (92%) of the subjects answered incorrectly, (8%) of the subjects answered it correctly whereas, in the fourth section, (74%) of the subjects answered incorrectly while (26%) of the subjects answered it correctly. (62%) of the subjects in the fifth section answered incorrectly while (38%)
Of the subjects answered it correctly. Considering the average percentage, (77%) of the subjects do not perform well in question two, while only (23%) of the subjects perform well in this question. As it is clear, the minority of the subjects have good performance.

**Table (4.1.3) Providing the correct prepositions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total of Students</th>
<th>percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that in table (4.1.3), (76%) of the testees do not know the correct answer while only (24%) of the testees know the correct answer in section (a) whereas, (82%) of the testees do not know the correct answer, only (18%) of the testees know the correct answer in section (b). (84%) of the testees do not know the correct answer while, (16%) of the testees know the correct answer in section (c). Regarding section (d), (88%) of the testees do not know the correct answer whereas, only (12%) of the testees know the correct answer. As it is clear in the last section, (88%) of the testees do not know the correct answer while (12%) of the testees know the correct answer. The average percentage shows that (84%) of the testees have poor
performance in the third question, while only (16%) of the testees have good performance in this question.

**Table (4.1.4) Filling in gaps with suitable adjectives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question4</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total of students</th>
<th>percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>28 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>42 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.1.4) reveals that (68%) of the students answered section (a) wrongly, (32%) of the students answered it correctly whereas, in section (b), (68%) of the students answered wrongly while, (32%) of the students answered it correctly. Concerning section (c), (72%) of the students answered wrongly, while only (8%) of the students answered it correctly. Whereas, in section (d), (58%) of the students answered wrongly while (42%) of the students answered it correctly. (68%) of the students in the last section answered wrongly, while (32%) of the students answered it correctly. Considering the average percentage, (84%) of the students do not perform well in question four, while only (16%) of the students perform well in this question. As it is clear, the minority of the students have good performance.
Table (4.1.5) Matching activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 5</th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Incorrect</th>
<th>Total of Students</th>
<th>percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>26 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>162 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average percentage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table (4.1.5) above, in section (a), (64%) of the students answered wrongly while (36%) of the students answered correctly. While in section (b), (68%) of the students answered wrongly but (32%) of the students answered it correctly. (74%) of the students in section (c) answered wrongly, (26%) of the students answered it correctly. While in section (d), (62%) of the students answered wrongly whereas, (38%) of the students answered it correctly. Regarding section (e), (70%) of the students answered wrongly, while (30%) answered it correctly. Concerning the average percentage, (68%) of the students answered the first question wrongly, while (32%) of the students answered it correctly. That means the majority of the students perform poorly in the fifth question.
4.2 The Results of the Questionnaire

The following tables display the responses given by EFL experienced teachers at the secondary schools in Greater Wad Mednai Locality to the Performance of EFL Secondary School Students in English Grammatical Collocation with Focus on Adjectives of Quality plus Prepositions.

Table (4.2.1) Poor Performance of the majority of EFL secondary school students in English grammatical collocations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.1) shows that (12) respondents (60%) agree that most of EFL secondary school students do not perform well in English grammatical collocations whereas, (6) respondents (30%) agree to a large extent. And (2) respondents, (10%) agree to some extent whereas no respondent disagrees with this option.

Table (4.2.2) Using incorrect adjectives of quality plus prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table (4.2.2), (11) of the respondents (55%) agree that, most EFL secondary school students always collocate adjectives of quality plus preposition incorrectly whereas, (6) respondents, (30%) agree to a large extent, (3) respondents (15%) agree to some extent and no respondent disagrees with this option.
Table (4.2.3) Participial adjectives plus prepositions being most problematic area for students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.3) reveals that (13) of the respondents, (65%) agree that the most problematic area with respect to adjectives of quality is participial adjectives plus prepositions whereas (5) respondents, (25%) agree to a large extent, (1) respondent (5%) agrees to some extent and only one respondent disagrees with this option.

Table (4.2.4) Mixing between Arabic and English collocations with respect to adjectives of quality plus prepositions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen from table (4.2.4), (15) of the respondents (75%) agree that most EFL secondary school students mix between Arabic and English collocations with respect to adjectives of quality plus prepositions whereas (4) respondents, (20%) agree to a large extent, only one respondent (5%) agrees to some extent and no respondent disagrees with this option.
Table (4.2.5) Confusing of EFL secondary school students when adjectives of quality having more than a prepositional collocate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table (4.2.5), (15) of the respondents (75%) agree that most EFL secondary school students are confused when adjectives of quality has more than a prepositional collocate whereas, (4) respondents (20%) agree to a large extent and (1) respondent agrees to some extent and no respondent disagrees with this option.

Table (4.2.6) Improving of EFL secondary school students performance in English collocations through intensive exercises inside the classroom.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table (4.2.6), (12) of the respondents (60%) agree that intensive exercises inside the classroom help in improving EFL secondary school students performance in English collocations whereas (7) respondents, (35%) agree to a large extent, (1) respondent (5%) agrees to some extent while, no respondent disagrees with this option.
Table (4.2.7) Enhancing EFL secondary school students performance through Practicing of adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations in context

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree to extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering table (4.2.7), (13) of the respondents (65%) agree that practice of adjectives of quality and prepositions collocates in context enhance EFL secondary school students performance whereas (7) respondents (35%) agree to a large extent, but no respondent has chosen option (3) or option (4).

Table (4.2.8) Various types of adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocates for improving EFL Secondary school students performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding table (4.2.8), (9) of the respondents (45%) agree that including various and different type of adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocates will improve EFL secondary school students performance whereas (9) respondents (45%) agree to a large extent and two respondents (10%) agree to some extent and no respondent disagrees with this option.
Table (4.2.9) Significance role of effective teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noticed that in table (4.2.9), (12) of the respondents (60%) agree that effective teaching has a significant role in absorbing the concept of grammatical collocations with respect to adjectives of quality plus prepositions whereas (7) respondents (35%) agree to a large extent, one respondent (5%) agrees to some extent while no respondent disagrees.

Table (4.2.10) Memorization of adjectives of quality in isolation as a hindrance in learning English adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to a large extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree to some extent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.2.10) above indicates that (7) respondents (35%), agree that memorizing adjectives of quality in isolation hinders learning English adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations whereas (7) respondents (35%), agree to a large extent, (4) respondents, (20%) agree to some extent while (2) respondents (10%) disagree.
Table (4.2.11) Help of well - organized strategies in improving performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree To a large extent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree To some extent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to table (4.2.11), (11) respondents (55%) well organized strategies help learners to perform well when learning adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations, whereas (7) respondents (35%), agree to a large extent , (2) respondents (10%) agree to some extent, but there is no respondent disagrees with this option.

4.3 Discussion of hypotheses of the study in relation to the results

In this section, the hypotheses of the study are tested in relation to the results of the diagnostic test and the questionnaire.

4.3.1 Hypothesis one

The first hypothesis is Most students do not use English adjectives of quality plus preposition correctly.

Table (4.1.1) which shows that (69%) of the students failed to provide the suitable collocates, and table (4.1.2) which shows that (77%) of the students failed to answer correctly question two , both verify the first hypothesis .Beside this , table (4.2.1) of the questionnaire indicates that (60%) of the respondents agree that most EFL secondary school students do not perform well in English grammatical collocation .Table(4.2.2) of the questionnaire also reveals that (55%) of the respondents agree that most EFL secondary school students always collocate adjectives of quality plus prepositions incorrectly. Hence , these two results support the first hypothesis . Thus , both the results of the diagnostic tests and the questionnaire strongly support the first hypothesis .
4.3.2 Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis is *A certain group of adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocation are more problematic for secondary school students.*

This hypothesis is strongly validated by table (4.1.3) which reveals that (84%) of the students answer the third question wrongly (providing the missing preposition), table (4.1.4) which shows that (84%) of the students do not succeed in providing the correct answer in (filling the gaps with the suitable adjectives), and table (4.3.3) which assures that (13) of the respondents (65%) agree that *the most problematic area with respect to adjective of quality is participial adjective plus preposition.*

4.3.3 Hypothesis three

The third hypothesis is *Intensive practice of adjectives of quality plus prepositions in context will improve EFL secondary school students performance in adjectives quality plus prepositions collocations.*

Referring to table (4.3.6) which reveals that (12) of the respondents (60%) agree that *intensive exercises inside the classroom help in improving EFL secondary school students performance in English collocations* and Table (4.3.7) which states that (13) of the respondents (65%) agree that *practice of a adjectives of quality and preposition collocates in context enhance EFL secondary school students performance* verify the third hypothesis.

4.3.4 Hypothesis four

The fourth hypothesis is *Certain suggested strategies can be effective in learning adjective of quality plus preposition collocation.*

According to table (4.3.9) which shows that (12) of the respondents (60%) agree that *effective teaching has a significant role in absorbing the concept of grammatical collocation with respect to adjective of quality plus prepositions*, and table (4.3.11) which reveals that (11) of the respondents (55%) agree that *well
organized strategies help learners to perform well when learning adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations, the fourth hypothesis is supported.

The following chapter will include the conclusion and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATION

5-0 Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the conclusion, findings and the recommendations of the study.

5-1 Conclusion

The study aimed at finding out the performance of secondary school learners in English adjectives of quality plus prepositions. The researcher chose (50) students as a sample for the study, in addition to (20) experienced EFL teachers at secondary level. Two tools were employed to elicit data from the subjects: an English diagnostic test for secondary schools students and a questionnaire for EFL teachers. The findings reached are summarized in section 5-2 below.

5-2 Findings

1- Most EFL learners at secondary level do not perform properly when using grammatical collocations. (69%) Table (4-1-1) and (60%) Table (4-2-1).

2- Most students do not perform well in using adjectives of quality correctly with preposition. (84%) Table (4-1-3) and (55%) Table (4-2-2).

3- The majority of the students face difficulties specially when selecting prepositions with adjectives of quality. (84%) Table 4-1-4).

4- The most problematic area which faces EFL learners with respect to adjectives of quality is participial adjectives. (65%) Table (4-2-3).

4- Most secondary school students mix between Arabic and English collocations with respect to adjectives of quality plus prepositions (75%) Table (4-2-4).
5-3 Recommendations

It is quite clear from the findings of the study that adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations constitute a major area of problems for the learners at secondary level. Hence, based on the findings, the following recommendations are provided:

1- EFL teachers should familiarize the students with the importance of noticing adjectives of quality plus prepositions collocations.

2- EFL teachers should provide intensive and extensive practice in adjectives of quality and prepositions collocations.

3- EFL teachers have to expose students to this structure in context.

4- EFL teachers should encourage students to have notebooks specifically organized for recording adjectives of quality plus prepositions.

5- Systematic errors must be collected by the teachers, their causes should be explained and a lot of meaningful full drilling should be conducted until the students overcome the problem in hand.

6- The syllabus designers should include a considerable number of exercises in students’ text books.

7- EFL teachers have to encourage the students to listen to and watch authentic texts on radio and T.V respectively.

5-4 Suggestions for further studies

Based on the recommendations above, the researcher suggests the topics below for further studies.

1- Strategies for improving EFL secondary school students’ performance in English collocations with focus on English verbs plus prepositions.

2- The influence of Arabic language on the choice of proper English collocates.

3- A contrastive study of English and Arabic collocates.
References

- El sayed, M (2007). *English collocations as a problematic Area for the students At secondary level*. MA study, University of Gezira, Faculty of Education.

**Web sites:**
- Grammar.about.com/od/c/g/collocation term.htm.
- Slide share –net/edtechph88/grammatical collocation.
- Ginger soft ware.com.
- The writersforhire.com.