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Pedagogická fakulta
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Diplomová práce

Lexical Collocations Errors in English Produced by Czech Learners of English

Chyby při tvoření lexikálních kolokací
v pracích českých studentů anglického
jazyka

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České Budějovice 2015

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Here, I would like to thank to the supervisor of my diploma thesis, Mgr. Leona Rohrauer, for her professional guidance, useful suggestions, and time she dedicated to me and my thesis, and to all teachers and students who provided me with essays for the practical part. I would also like to thank to my family for their support during my studies.

ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis is focused on collocations, i.e. repeatedly occurring combinations of lexical items. Main emphasis is put on lexical collocations produced incorrectly by Czech learners of English. The theoretical part of the thesis deals with various definitions describing this lexical phenomenon and with classification of collocations. A brief mention of the attitude to teaching collocations at schools is made, too. In the practical part, 200 collocations gathered from essays written by L2 learners of Czech secondary grammar schools are analysed as for a type of a restriction, semantic transparency and a part of speech. With erroneously produced collocation, an attempt to explain the cause leading to error is made and the correct combination or its closest equivalent is adduced. The results are presented in tables.

ANOTACE

Tato diplomová práce je zaměřena na kolokace, tj. opakovaně se vyskytující kombinace slov. Hlavní důraz je položen na lexikálních kolokacích, které jsou vytvářeny českými studenty anglického jazyka chybně. Teoretická část se zakládá na popisu kolokací jako lexikálního jevu a klasifikací kolokací. V teoretické části je také stručně zmíněn přístup k problematice výuky kolokací ve školách. V praktické části je zkoumáno 200 kolokací nasbíraných z esejí studentů anglického jazyka. Vzorčky jsou analyzovány a popsány vzhledem k typu restrikce, semantické transparence a slovního druhu. U chybně utvořených kolokací je zmíněna možná příčina nesprávného vytvoření dané kolokace a je uvedena správná kombinace nebo nejpodobnější ekvivalent. Výsledky jsou prezentovány v tabulkách.

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INTRODUCTION

Collocations are an inherent part of both the English and Czech lexicon. Native speakers often even do not realise that a particular word, for instance a noun, co-occurs only with a certain range of verbs or adjectives, etc. They perceive and produce such combinations naturally without thinking at great length about it. Collocations represent an established part of vocabulary for native speakers which they acquire mainly when imitating their parents' (especially mother) speech and by contact with other people. It follows that collocations are an omnipresent phenomenon occurring in everyday language. However, when someone decides to learn a foreign language, they usually struggle not only when learning grammar or pronunciation, but also when learning vocabulary, especially idioms and collocations. L2 learners have to usually learn those combinations or phrases by heart since not all collocations correspond with their L1 equivalents, or even exist in their mother tongue. When learners of English try to produce collocations, they sometimes endeavour to produce such collocation whose semantic meaning corresponds with the collocation or a word existing in their mother tongues, for instance **conclude a bet* corresponding with the Czech collocation *uzavřít sázku*. Unfortunately, this rule cannot be applied in every case.

The presented diploma thesis deals with the concept of collocation. First, this lexical phenomenon is explained and clarified as for its place in the field of lexicology. The difference between a collocation and an idiom is adduced. Then, collocations produced by Czech L2 learners of secondary grammar schools are analysed. The main stress is put on erroneously produced collocations. There is an attempt to explain the cause leading to error.

The theoretical part is based on scientific studies. It focuses on various definitions of the concept of collocations. The second chapter deals with the position of this lexical phenomenon in the field of lexicology. There is an explanation of the difference between syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. The attitudes of Lipka, Cruse and Allerton to this issue are described. In the third chapter,

the scale ‘free combinations – collocations – fixed expressions/idioms’ is clarified. The concept of idioms is described in more details. In the following chapter, various types of classification of collocations are commented on. The difference between lexical and grammatical collocations is clarified. In this chapter, a brief mention of the concept of intensifiers appears, too. In the fifth chapter, three main approaches – *semantic*, *lexical* and *structural* – implying different attitudes to the study of collocations are explained as the approaches describes differently the concept of collocations and its dependence on grammar (structure). The following chapter considers the issue of collocation in teaching. Unlike the negligence of vocabulary teaching in the 60s and 80s, vocabulary teaching is coming to the foreground and is considering to be a valuable part of L2 learning and teaching. In the last chapter of a theoretical part, crucial notions, such as *semantic transparency*, *syntactic variability* and *collocational strength* are clarified as they are considered to be main features of a collocation.

The practical part is focused on collocations gathered from the essays produced by Czech learners of English. The collected samples are analysed and described as for a type of a restriction, semantic transparency and a part of speech. Special attention is paid to erroneously produced collocations. Those collocations are commented on in terms of a cause leading to the mistake when producing a collocation. Correct versions of incorrectly produced combinations (‘collocations’) are provided, too. When examining the collocations gathered from L2 learners’ essays, following dictionaries are used - *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations*, *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* and *British National Corpus*.

All 200 collocations are presented in a table in the Appendix 1 with information about their type of a restriction, semantic transparency and part of speech, and correct version if needed. In Appendix 2, the collocations are described in more detail.

In the conclusion, findings are summarized and suggestions of possible answers to the following questions are discussed:

What are collocations?

What is the relationship between a collocation and an idiom?

Which attitudes to the concept of collocations exist/existed?

What errors L2 learners make when producing English collocations?

What is the cause that leads to error making?

In Conclusion, findings of the analysis based upon the examination of the corpus of 200 collocations are presented. Furthermore, an overview of crucial findings from theoretical part is adduced. A chapter 'Further Research' provides readers with suggestions of research that would explore more the area of producing collocations by L2 learners.

1. DEFINING THE COLLOCATION

In this chapter, definitions of the concept of collocations are taken into account. In addition to the definitions, a notion ‘collocational affinity’ and a role of collocations in text linguistics are mentioned.

Firth (in Lipka 1990:166) defines the concept of collocation as “*we know a word by the company it keeps*”. As stated in Benson, Benson, Ilson (1986:253), meanings of the parts of a collocation create the meaning of the whole collocation. Klégr (2007:1) states that a collocation is “*a recurrent combination of words*”. Crystal (2003:162) focuses in his definition on arbitrariness and predictability of co-occurring lexemes. The author states that there is mutual expectancy between collocants. Cruse (1986:40) called this relationship “*semantic cohesion*”, i.e. mutual selectiveness of constituents in a collocation.

According to Lipka (1990:166), the notion of collocation is neutral in various features. Collocations are neutral in their word class or syntactic structure. The author gives two examples: *window* and *open* where the word *open* can be used as both a verb and an adjective, cf. *His argument was strong.* (N + Adj) *He argued strongly.* (V + Adv). There is neutrality as for primacy and dominance of components of a collocation. Elements of collocations do not have to follow one another, as in “*They collect many things, but chiefly stamps.*” (Lipka 1990:166). Lipka concludes that collocations play their role in both syntax and word formation.

Cruse (2000:76) distinguishes two features of collocations – a feature of preferences and a feature of dispreferences, for instance: *heavy rain* (**great rain*, **high rain*, **utter rain*, **extreme rain*, **deep rain*, **severe rain*). Crystal (2003:162) adds two more features – “*disregard for the observable situation to which they relate*”, for instance “*green with envy, purple passage*” and no possible predictability of collocations with regard to one’s knowledge

of the world, for instance “*white coffee*” (the colour of it is beige, bronze, copper, hazel, etc.)

According to Crystal (2003:162), there are no rules how to create a collocation; it is triggered in a mind of a native speaker. Lipka (1990:167) states that learners have difficulties to choose a correct collocation when using language, especially when words are semantically close, e.g. *large, big, great*, or similar in form, e.g. *electric, electrical*.

In addition to the concept of collocations, Cruse (2000:232) deals with a term ‘collocational affinity’, i.e. “*Why does A have a greater affinity for X than for Y?*” According to the author, extralinguistic factors play their role, for instance “*Jane fried the eggs.*” vs. “*Jane fried the lettuce*”; the former one is likely to be correct as people usually fry eggs rather than lettuce. Next factor, stereotypic combinations, stands in contrast to clichés. Stereotypic combinations are somehow standardized; however, they may alter in their combinations. Cruse introduces examples of a stereotypic combination – “*beautiful flower, dear friend*. Clichés, such as “*intense pressure*” or “*barefaced lie*” are collocations with a higher degree of markedness. Last group is called idiomatic (non-compositional) combinations, for instance “*pull someone’s leg*” (Cruse 2000:234).

Lipka (1990:169f.) highlights the contribution of collocations in text linguistics, especially in lexical cohesion and coherence. As stated by Halliday and Hassan (1976, in Zohrabi, Sabouri and Faal 2014:13) coherence of a written text can be created by lexical ties, i.e. by reiteration and collocation. This means of coherence is able to connect parts of a text semantically together. The choice of collocations often depends on the type of a text – for instance, there are collocations such as “*devoted mother*”, “*doctors battle to save lives*” or “*constant companion*” (Gill 1987, in Lipka 1990:169) which typically occur in journalistic style. Sometimes, they are considered to be clichés. As for lexical cohesion, the definition of collocations is explained in a more general way. Collocations are used in “*various types of oppositeness of meaning and other kinds of sense-*

relation” (Lipka 1990:170), for instance: “*boy – girl*” (complementarity), “*ill – doctor*” (proximity), “*order – obey*” (converse), etc.

2. CONCEPT OF COLLOCATIONS IN LEXICOLOGY

In this chapter, the concept of ‘collocations’ is explained from the lexicological point of view. To place the concept of collocation within the complex field of lexicological phenomena it is necessary to refer to various types of lexeme classification.

Crystal’s (2003:160) way of classification is based on the two-dimensional model introduced by the linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, i.e. model of syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. The paradigmatic level is viewed as a vertical slot where it is possible to substitute one lexical item for another. For instance, in the sentence “*My auntie has bought a red automobile.*” the word *bought* could be replaced with the word *purchased* (synonymous term) or *sold* (antonymous term), the word *automobile* could be substituted for the term *Ford* (a hyponym) or *vehicle* (a hyperonym). Crystal sets a term sense relations for this type or relations between lexemes. On the syntagmatic, or a horizontal level words or lexemes are seen as in a row, in a sequence. There are mutual relationships between them. Crystal gives an example in the sentence “*It writhed on the ground in excruciating pain.*” He states that the word *excruciating* does not co-occur with words such as *joy* or *ignorance*; the word *writhe* could be found in a sentence together with words *agony* or *ground*. Crystal defines those syntagmatic relations as collocations, or selectional restrictions.

Lipka (1990:166) considers collocations being parallel to the ‘lexical sets’ found in the paradigmatic dimension – “*collocations are thus syntagmatic lexical relations, but not necessarily semantic relations. They are therefore parallel to the ‘lexical sets’ on the paradigmatic axis which are not necessarily sense-relations.*” Another similarity could be seen in association which connects both lexical sets (paradigmatically) and collocations (syntagmatically). The author mentions two approaches to the concept of syntagmatic relations – generative and non-generative. In the generative grammar, the term ‘selectional restrictions’ is considered as crucial. The restrictions are based on a lexical “*presupposition*

about the intended referents” (Cawley 1968, in Lipka 1990:160). Non-generative (structuralist) approach contrasts selection restriction and ‘lexical solidarities’ (Kastovsky 1980, in Lipka 1990:160). The latter are “*positive semantic implications*” and they are complementary to the selection restrictions (called constraints).¹

Cruse (1989:88, in Collinge 1989:88) defines the notions ‘collocations’ and ‘selectional restrictions’ as co-occurrence restrictions, but in his later work (2000:221) he renames the term to co-occurrence preferences. In his view, co-occurrence restrictions comprise more lexemes where a ‘selector’ and a ‘selectee’ could be established, as in “*John drank the potion.*” where *drank* is the selector requiring a particular subject and *John* is the selectee. The same applies to *potion* which is required by the verb *drank*. Lexemes in this type of restriction depend semantically on another. Cruse distinguishes between selectional restrictions and collocational restrictions. In the former type, one lexeme cannot be avoided of another one, for instance “‘*kill*’ must be capable of referring to something that is animate and alive at the time the action is carried out.” According to this explanation the sentence “*John killed the chair*” does not make any sense. In this case, Cruse (2000:221) introduces a term ‘semantic clash’. On the contrary, collocational restrictions are based on “*replacing one or more items by their synonyms (or near synonyms)*”. Cruse gives an example of violation in the restriction: “*The Vice-chancellor’s wages are hardly enough to make ends meet*” vs. “*The Vice-chancellor’s salary...*” In this case the word ‘wage’ is used inappropriately as it cannot be used in a combination with Vice-chancellor (Cruse 1989:88, in Collinge 1989:88).

As for co-occurrence restrictions, Allerton (1984:17f.) introduces another type of their classification. He distinguishes between syntactic and semantic co-occurrence restrictions, and furthermore ‘locutional’ co-occurrence restrictions. He states that there are different subtypes within each type. The combinations

¹ For more details about approaches to syntagmatic lexical structures see Lipka (1990) – Chapter 4.3.1

in each subtype are limited as for morphology (derivation, inflection), or even phonetics (tone sequence).

Syntactic co-occurrence restrictions (Allerton 1984:18ff) are directed by grammatical rules, thus the sentence “*The man which came, did not finish to sharpen this scissors so late than I expected.*” is unacceptable – *which* requires non-human predecessor a verb *finish* may be followed only by a gerund, *scissors* as pluralia tantum requires plural determiners, *so* plus adjective should be followed by *as*.

Semantic co-occurrence restrictions (Allerton 1984:20ff.) are grammatically entirely correct but they are limited by “*our experience and imagination*” (Allerton 1984:20). Sometimes the context could be helpful as in the sentence “*The illegible flower spoke too steeply*”. According to Allerton (1984:21), this sentence could be meaningful if “*someone [is] dressed up as a paper flower with illegible writing on the paper, speaking with too steep an intonation rise or fall.*” There are lexemes which cannot appear together due to semantic restrictions, such as “*married bachelor*”. Users of a language do not have to learn those word co-occurrence restrictions as they are automatically suppressed in their minds. Allerton (1983:26f.) distinguishes between ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ meaning of words, for instance the word “*blond*” has a primary meaning of ‘*light yellow-coloured*’, however, the secondary meaning of this word is ‘*as applied to hair*’. The ‘secondary’ meaning of a word is called collocational meaning and sometimes the word is limited to such an extent that only few collocates can co-occur with a word as in “*blithering (idiot)*” where the word *blithering* can co-occur with “*fool*” but not with “*madman*” or “*lunatic*”. Besides adjective-nouns combinations, there are other types: verb-object noun (“*purse lips*”), subject noun-verb (“*bell tinkles*”), intensifier-adjective (“*stark naked*”). Lexical items are considered as collocations when their meaning “*includes an inbuilt reference to their fellow collocant*” or when they are limited by our experience (Allerton 1984:28).

The third group, ‘locutional’ co-occurrence restrictions, are based on arbitrariness and could not be often explained by means of grammar or semantics. Allerton (1984:29f.) gives an example of this restriction: “*the right word in the right*

place". No one can explain why a preposition *in* is used there and not another one. The author illustrates this type of restrictions - "*I saw a picture postcard – the letter-box.*" where a variety of prepositions can be used (e.g. *above, behind, by, in, in front of, on, under*). However, the temporal prepositions are used completely arbitrarily (e.g. *at four o'clock, in the night, on (the) Friday, etc.*). Prepositions sometimes appear together with verbs – 'prepositional verbs' (Allerton 1984:31f.). There are five groups of those verbs: noun + 'controlling' preposition ("*at Christmas*"), noun + 'complementary' preposition ("*(the) fight for*"), verb + 'complementary' preposition ("*hope for*"), adjective + 'complementary' preposition ("*dependent on*"), deverbial object noun + 'general' transitive verb ("*make (a) suggestion*"). 'General verbs' – *do, get, give, have, make, put* and *take* – collocate with a non-verb word (usually a noun) which extent the meaning of the verb. There are medium frequency verbs occurring with nouns, for instance "*to create (cf. give) the/an impression, to offer an apology, to suffer a loss (= 'to lose'), etc.*" The choice of verbs is in both cases arbitrary (Allerton 1984: 33).

In addition to these three levels of co-occurrence restrictions, Allerton introduces a new, fourth level – pragmatic. According to his opinion, "*we find various cases where the linguistic community has a tradition for preferring one out of a number of (near) synonymous phrases or sentences*" (Allerton 1984:36). Cruse (1977, in Allerton 1984:37) gives an example of a pragmatic contrast: "*Have you seen my animal/dog/Alsatian anywhere?*" The speaker uses one word according to his or her pragmatic intention.

3. COLLOCATIONS ON A SCALE ‘FREE COMBINATIONS’ – ‘IDIOMS’

This chapter concerns the position of collocations on a scale ranging from ‘free combinations’ on one pole to ‘idioms’ on the other pole. A brief overview of the scale is followed by a detailed description of the relationship between ‘collocations’ and ‘idioms’. Descriptions of these concepts are compared to each other with the emphasis on differences between various theories.

3.1 A scale ‘Free combinations’ – ‘Idioms’



There are various degrees of fixedness between constituents of a word combination. Martelli (2007:26) regarded the mutual strength between elements of a word combination as “*a scale of fixedness which goes from totally fixed to totally free combinations.*” Fazly and Stevenson (2007:10) state that “*an expression is lexically fixed if the substitution of a semantically similar word for any of its constituents does not preserve its original meaning.*” Crystal (2003:162) describes a scale on which lexemes occur together. Their relationship is based on arbitrariness or predictability. On one hand, lexemes co-occur by chance. Crystal introduces an example *I like*; in this case, there is not one sole lexeme which comes next, contrarily, there is a wide range of words that can follow. There is no mutual expectancy between the verb *like* and a following word. Crystal terms this relationship a free combination. Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986:252) claim that “*most lexical combinations*” fall into this category. They can be freely combined; however, their cohesion is weak. The authors give an example of a word *murder* in combination with a variety of verbs – *to analyze, condemn, describe, discuss, examine, film, recall, report, etc.* All those verbs occur together with other nouns; i.e. they are not bound only to the noun *murder*. The authors add in their later work that free combinations are composed according

to syntactic rules of English and substitution is allowed (Benson and Benson 1990:ix).

On the other hand, some lexemes belong somehow together; there is a mutual relationship or predictability between items. Crystal (2003:162) mentions an example of a verb *commit* and its collocation *murder* (*commit a murder*). This phrase - ‘a fixed phrase’ (Benson, Benson and Ilson 1986:253) comes immediately to speaker’s mind and there is only one synonymous word for *commit*, and that is *to perpetrate*. However, some collocations are arbitrary, i.e. they are not “*predictable from general knowledge*”, for instance “*heavy rain*” vs. “*a high wind*” (Cruse 2000:233). According to Crystal (2003:162), predictability of lexemes could be weak, i.e. a word co-occurs with a variety of other lexemes. Nevertheless, some lexemes call up another quite naturally, i.e. the predictability is strong. There is one special group of highly predictable lexemes which is called fixed expressions or idioms. Items from this group co-occur together and any of the particular components cannot be changed, or only to little extent.

In connection with collocations and their position among lexical combinations, Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986:254) mention two more groups – ‘transitional combinations’ and ‘compounds’. The former one - ‘transitional combinations’ – is described as a transition between collocations and idioms. The meaning of transitional combinations could be guessed from its parts (unlike idioms), however the variability of particular components is lower (unlike collocations). The latter group – ‘Compounds’ – comprises completely frozen combinations (adjective-noun, noun-noun, verb-adverb/preposition or phrasal verbs) which are not variable at all, for instance “*definite article, White House, carry out, break through*”).

3.2 Collocations vs. Idioms

This chapter deals with a definition of the notion ‘idiom’. Idioms and collocations are neighbouring with each other on the scale of fixedness. Both concepts are

similar as for the fixedness. None of constituents of an idiom cannot be changed since meaning (or more precisely idiomacity) of an idiom would be lost. With collocations, there is a mutual call-up property between the constituents of a collocation (sometimes irregular as first constituent calls up the second one but the second one not always calls up the first one). The difference is seen in semantic transparency; since the meaning of a collocation can be guessed from meanings of its constituents, the meaning of the idiom is rather figurative. The more detailed description of the notion *'idiom'* follows.

There are many definitions of the notion 'Idioms'. Bahns (1993:57) defines idioms as "*relatively frozen expressions whose meanings do not reflect the meanings of their component parts*". The author gives an example: "*to scream blue murder*" which means to complain loudly. According to Crystal (2003:163), an idiom is an expression whose meaning is fixed and no grammar changes are possible, i.e. an idiom is "*fixed both grammatically and lexically*". Cruse (1986:37) states that idioms should be lexically complex – they should have more than one lexical component – and they should have "*a single minimal semantic constituent*", i.e. the part with an idiomatic meaning. The author illustrates this features on an example: "*This will cook Arthur's goose.*" where '*this*', '*will*' and '*Arthur*' are considered to be regular semantic constituents and '*cook –'s goose*' represents a minimal semantic constituent regarded as an idiom. According to Cruse, "*most idioms are homophonous with grammatically well-formed transparent expressions*". The author adduces the following features of idioms: constituents cannot be reordered (even due to semantic – highlighting – reasons), idioms tend to behave as phrases, i.e. inflection is allowed to some extent (Cruse 1986:38). Lipka (1990:168f.) claims that idioms are often regarded as diachronic relationship since there is no synchronic explanation for them. He defines idioms as "*fixed expressions of irregularity*". The irregularity is to be found between *langue* (language system) and *parole* (language realization). Collocations have this irregularity, too.

Allerton (1984:35) puts idioms into the category called ‘locutional co-occurrence restrictions’. He perceives the concept of idioms as “*a word group, the meaning of which cannot be understood simply as a regular combination of the meanings of its constituent words*”, i.e. the particular meaning of each word is not included in the meaning of the whole unit. The author introduces a special type of idioms that can be divided into single words (or morphemes) and they follow grammatical rules. However, meanings of their parts (i.e. words and morphemes) are not reflected in the meaning of the whole idioms. An illustrative example is given: “*red herring*”. Although this word combination has a literal meaning, the idiomatic meaning is totally different (“*a fact, idea, or subject that takes people’s attention away from the central point being considered*”²). Allerton (1984:36) contrasts idioms with metaphors, since there is no relationship between a meaning of an idiom and a literal meaning of its part (unlike with metaphors). Idioms are an interesting group as for word selection which is based on arbitrariness, i.e. there is no semantic selection. Collocations, as already mentioned in Chapter 1, fall into the category ‘semantic co-occurrence restrictions’ (Allerton 1984:26). A complementary word has to relate semantically to the head word as in ‘*blond hair*’ where the word ‘*hair*’ is completed with the word ‘*blond*’ which usually co-occur with lexical items such as ‘*hair, locks, or wig*’.

Cruse (2000:67) describes both collocations and idioms in the chapter ‘Compositionality’ as limits to the compositionality. The compositionality, i.e. “*the meaning of a grammatically complex form is a compositional function of the meanings of its grammatical constituents*” (Cruse 2000:67). The author distinguishes between compositionality from hearer’s point of view, i.e. “*how do we work out what the global meaning of the expression is?*”, and from speaker’s point of view, i.e. speaker wants to create a complex expression correctly (Cruse 2000:76).

² <<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/red-herring>>, 28.10.2014

Cruse (2000:73f.) explains a notion ‘phrasal idioms’, such as ‘*Jane pulled Martha’s leg about her boyfriend.*’ Some constituents of this idiom can undergo a change (as for grammar) without erasing the idiomatic meaning, i.e. “*Jane, -ed, Martha, about, her, boyfriend*”. However, particular words in the idiom cannot be changed as the change would destroy the idiomaticity, i.e. “*pull, -’s leg*”. Cruse states that constituents could not be separately changed and not to destroy the idiomaticity at the same time (e.g. “**She pulled her brother’s left leg.*” Furthermore, there is no possibility to add any co-ordinated element to any word in an idiom (e.g. “**She pulled and twisted her brother’s leg.*”). Constituents could not be mentioned in a sentence anaphorically (e.g. “**Mary pulled her brother’s leg; John pulled it, too.*”). No substitution of any element of an idiom is possible (e.g. “**She pulled his lower limb about it.*”). There is a limited choice of grammar (e.g. “*His leg was being pulled continually by other boys.*”, - here, active voice is not a part of an idiomaticity and does not destroy it, but cf. “**The bucket was kicked by him*”). Unlike Allerton, Cruse (2000:74) considers frozen metaphors being a type of idioms. They belong to idioms as they are syntactically unmodifiable. However, a synonym substitution is to some extent possible, for instance “*The ball’s in your court now/on your side of the net.*” (Cruse 2000:75). The substitution does not harm the non-literal meaning; it follows that the non-literal meaning is not a pure arbitrary one. Cruse admits that the border between literal and non-literal meanings of an expression creates a scale ‘idiomaticity – full compositionality’.

O’Dell and McCarthy (2008:6) consider idioms to be a type of a collocation. In their view, there are three major groups – strong collocations, fixed collocations and weak collocations. Idioms represent the former group as they are unchangeable in any way and “*completely fixed*”.

Gitsaki (1996:162f.) states that collocations and idioms are similar in “*syntagmatic bonds*”. In her view, there are more similarities between these two lexical groups – collocations and idioms consist of two or more words, they both are syntactically frozen to some extent and they both do not allow

substitution of any constituent. However, there is one difference between these two concepts, i.e. semantic transparency, which contributes to distinguishing between an idiom and a collocation. Still, it is necessary to mention that some linguists do not distinguish between idioms and collocations, they consider them to be in one group – idioms (cf. Gitsaki 1996:162).

According to Martelli (2007:27), the feature of literal, non-idiomatic nature of collocation is crucial for distinguishing collocations from other multiword expressions. However, she admits that in expressions such as “*white coffee, white lies* or *white nights*” the meaning of *white* is rather figurative. But, these expressions can be described as collocations since meanings of other constituents of these expressions are literal and the expressions are thus semantically transparent. In contrast to examples mentioned above, the author introduces the example “*white elephant*”. The meaning of this expression is absolutely non-literal and thus idiomatic.

4. TYPES OF COLLOCATIONS

This chapter focuses on various types of classification of collocations. Categorization is introduced as follows – strong, fixed and weak collocations; free, restricted and overlapping collocations; grammatical and lexical collocations and collocations divided according to part of speech of their constituents. Chapter 4.1 deals with intensifiers, i.e. collocations where one constituent intensifies the other constituent.

As already mentioned in Chapter 3.2, O'Dell and McCarthy (2008:6) divide collocations into three groups – strong collocations, fixed collocations and weak collocations. As for fixed collocations, the authors correspond with Crystal (2006:216). They describe this type of collocations as unchangeable in any way and as being “completely fixed”. They call these collocations idioms. The former group, strong collocations, comprises word combinations which are “very closely associated with each other” as in “*mitigating circumstances/factors*”. The word *mitigating* rarely co-occurs with any other word. Weak collocations appear “with a wide range of other words”, e.g. the word *broad* in “*broad agreement, a broad avenue, a broad smile, broad shoulders, a broad accent, a broad hint, etc.*” The authors describe another scale within a scale ‘free combinations’ – ‘idioms’, i.e. a scale formed by strong collocations on one pole and weak collocations on another pole. Between the two poles most collocations are found.

Cowie (1986; in Fontenelle 1994:3) introduces a similar scheme of classification. He differentiates between ‘free (open) collocations’, restricted collocations and overlapping collocations. Free collocations are described as collocations where a substitution of one component is possible without any change of semantic meaning of a collocation, as in “*eat rice, pudding, cake, or chocolate*”. Restricted collocations are defined as collocations where one constituent has a figurative or specialized meaning, for instance “*blow a fuse vs. blow a horn*”. The author introduces a sub-group of restricted collocations – “delexical collocations” (Cowie 1986; in Fontenelle 1994:4). Collocations of this sub-class are

combinations of a grammatical verb (such as “*have, make, do, take, get, give*”) and a direct object which expresses the core meaning, for instance “*to make a mistake, to have a drink, to take/have a bath*”³. The role of a verb is supportive. The third group, standing between the first one and the second one, is called Overlapping collocations. Cowie (1986; in Fontenelle 1994:3) illustrates this type of collocations by the example of the verb “*quench*” which occurs in a collocation with “*fire*” and “*thirst*”. The verb “*extinguish*” collocates with the word “*fire*”, but not with the word “*thirst*”.

Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986:253) regard collocations according to a part of speech. They identify the collocations combining an adjective and a noun as the most frequent type, e.g. “*pure chance*”, “*close attention*”, “*sincere condolences*”, “*serious charges*”, etc. Substitution of an adjective is usually not allowed, however, there is a possibility of adjective-substitution in few of them, for instance “*a just/good cause*”. O’Dell and McCarthy (2008:10) give examples of other possible combinations – verb-noun collocations (e.g. “*withstand pressure*”, “*pass up a chance/an opportunity*”), noun-verb collocations (e.g. “*opportunity-arise*”, “*standards-slip*”), noun-noun collocations (e.g. “*a barrage of questions/insults*” describing groups or sets, “*a stroke of luck, a snippet of information*” used with uncountable nouns), adverb-adjective collocations (“*intensely personal, stunningly attractive*”), verb-adverb or verb-prepositional phrase collocations (“*drive recklessly, burst into song*”) and more complex collocations (“*take it easy for a while*” or “*put the past behind you*”). The authors admit that phrasal verbs and compounds are sometimes considered collocations but they decide to exclude them with the exception when they form a part of a collocation, e.g. *run up a bill, play the stock market* (O’Dell, McCarthy 2008:6).

Bahns (1993:57) distinguishes between grammatical and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocation is a combination of a noun, an adjective, or a verb which

³ cf. General verbs (Allerton 1984: 33), Chapter 2.

is completed by a preposition or a grammatical structure (for instance an infinitive). Bahns introduces examples of grammatical collocations: “*account for, advantage over, by accident, to be afraid that, etc.*” Allerton (1984: 28ff.) introduces restricted combinations with prepositions (‘locutional co-occurrence restrictions’): noun + ‘controlling’ preposition (*at Christmas*), noun + ‘complementary’ preposition (“*attack on*”), verb + ‘complementary’ preposition (“*hope for*”), adjective + ‘complementary’ preposition (“*dependent on*”) and deverbal object noun + ‘general’ transitive verb “*make (a) suggestion*” (Allerton 1984:31). The second group, lexical collocations, represents combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, for instance “*blizzard rage*”, “*a pride of lions*”, “*appreciate sincerely*”, etc (Bahns 1993:57).

A significant description of collocation classification could be found in the introductory part of ‘The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English’ (Benson and Benson (1990:ix). The authors categorize collocations in the same way as Bahns; that is into two major groups of lexical and grammatical collocations. Grammatical collocations are defined as “*a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, or verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or a clause*”. Benson and Benson introduce eight groups of grammatical collocations. First group, G1, includes grammatical collocations which combine a noun with a preposition, for instance “*blockade against*”. G2 group consists of collocations where a noun is followed by *to* + infinitive, for instance “*It was a pleasure (a problem, a struggle) to do it*”. The authors include combinations of a noun followed by a verb in –ing form, for example “*it’s a pleasure working there*” into this group. Third group, G3, comprises collocations consisting of a noun followed by a *that* clause, for instance “*we reached an agreement that she would represent us in court*”. G4 collocations are combinations of a preposition and a noun, for example “*in advance*”, “*to somebody’s advantage*”, etc. Fifth group, G5, includes adjective-preposition collocations occurring in the predicate or as verbless clauses, for example “*they were angry at everyone*” or “*my friends, angry at everyone, stayed home*”. G6 group consists of collocations including a predicate adjective followed by

to+infinitive, such as “*it was necessary to work*” (empty subject) or “*she is ready to go*” (‘real’ subject). Next-to-last group, G7, includes collocations of an adjective followed by a *that* clause, for instance “*she was afraid that she would fail the examination*”. The last group, G8, comprises nineteen English verb patterns, such as transitive verbs with a preposition *for* (e.g. “*she bought a shirt for her husband*”), verbs followed by *to* + infinitive (e.g. “*they began to speak*”), verbs followed by an interrogative word (e.g. “*he asks how to do it*”) or verbs followed by a possessive (pronoun or noun) and a gerund (e.g. “*this fact justifies Bob’s coming late*”).⁴ Lexical collocations are contrasted to grammatical collocations. Benson and Benson (1990:ix) distinguish seven types of lexical collocations. First group, L1, includes combinations of a verb (usually transitive) and a noun/pronoun (eventually prepositional phrase). The authors introduce a term ‘CA collocations’. These collocations are based on arbitrariness and learners have to learn them by heart. Most verbs occurring in collocations mean ‘creation’ (C), such as “*make an impression*”, “*compose music*”, etc., and/or ‘activation’ (A), for instance “*fly a kite*”, “*set an alarm*”, etc. There are nouns which can be used with a verb for both creation and activation meanings, for example “*establish a principle*” (C) – “*apply a principle*” (A). Sometimes, verbs denote both activation and creation, for instance “*pose a question*” or “*commit a treason*”. Some nouns occur in a collocation with more verbs which usage differs according to the participant’s role, for instance “*a copyright office grants or registers a copyright*”, whereas “*an author or publisher holds or secures one*”. Moreover, this group includes collocations denoting no action or creation, such as “*do the laundry*”, “*take one’s seat*” or “*resist temptation*”. Second group, L2, comprises EN collocations where ‘E’ stands for a verb denoting ‘eradication’ and ‘N’ means ‘nullification’. In this type of a collocation, a verb is combined with a noun. The authors give examples: “*reject an appeal*”, “*break a code*”, “*demolish (raze, tear down) a house*” or “*reverse a decision*”. L3 group is formed by adjective-noun collocations, such as “*strong tea (not *mighty tea)*” and “*weak tea (not *feeble tea)*”. A noun can be usually combined

⁴ For more detailed description of grammatical collocations see an introductory part in the BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English (Benson and Benson 1990:ix)

with more than one adjective, for instance “*warm, warmest (not *hot), kind, kindest, best (not *good) regards*”. The authors state that many collocations found in the L3 group are claimed to be clichés. This group includes also noun-noun collocations where the first noun is used attributively, for instance “*house arrest*” or “*land reform*”. Fourth group, L4, includes noun-verb collocations where a verb denotes an action carried out by a noun occurring in a collocation, for instance “*adjectives modify*”, “*bees buzz (sting, swarm)*”, “*blood circulates (clots, congeals, flows, runs)*” or “*bombs explode (go off)*”, etc. In the L5 group, there are noun-of-noun collocations. These collocations express a “*larger unit to which a single member belongs*”, for instance “*a herd of buffalo*” or “*a bouquet of flowers*”, or a “*specific, concrete, small unit of something larger, more general*”, for example “*a bit (piece, word) of advice*” or “*an article of clothing*”. Next-to-last group, L6, consists of adverb-adjective collocations, such as “*hopelessly addicted*” or “*strictly accurate*”. Last group, L7, includes verb-adverb collocations, for instance “*amuse thoroughly*” or “*appreciate sincerely*”.

4.1 Intensifiers

Allerton (1984:27) counts collocations consisting of an intensifier and an adjective to semantic co-occurrence restrictions.⁵ According to Dell and McCarthy (2008:20), intensifying adverbs occurring before adjectives and verbs contribute to a change in their meaning, i.e. they intensify (strengthen) or soften (weaken) the meaning of adjectives and verbs. The authors introduce following examples: “*Her comments were deeply offensive*” (meaning very or extremely offensive) and “*Her comments were slightly offensive*” (meaning a little bit offensive). There are adverbs meaning ‘extremely’ or ‘completely’ occurring in both formal and informal language, such as “*spotlessly clean*”, “*downright rude*”, “*thoroughly ashamed*”, “*stinking rich*” or “*dead easy*”. Examples of softening adverbs are as follows: “*slightly different*”, “*mildly surprised*”, or “*faintly ridiculous*”. Dell and McCarthy mention alternative expressions of an adverb ‘very’ which often occurs in collocations with most

⁵ For further reading about semantic co-occurrence restrictions according to Allerton see Chapter 2.

adjectives. The adverb could be replaced with adverbs such as “*highly (recommended)*”, “*strongly (influence)*”, “*greatly (appreciate)*”, “*utterly (ridiculous)*”, “*completely/totally/entirely (different)*” or “*thoroughly (enjoy)*”. Along similar lines Quirk et al (1985:445) distinguishes two categories of intensifying adverbs – ‘amplifiers’ and ‘downtoners’. Amplifiers are defined as intensifiers moving a meaning of a modified word upward on a ‘scale’, for instance “*extremely dangerous*”, “*entirely free*”, “*totally anonymous*” or “*highly intelligent*”. Downtoners, on the other hand, are modifiers changing a meaning of a modified word to a lower one, for example “*nearly dark*”, “*relatively small*”, “*hardly noticeable*” or “*pretty rare*”. Quirk (1985:446) states that intensifying adverbs can co-occur with both adjectives and adverbs, for instance “*She is fairly/pretty/rather tall*” and “*She drives fairly/pretty/rather fast.*” Nevertheless, the meanings and uses of intensifiers can vary.

Similarly to adverbs, adjectives can work as both amplifiers, for instance “*a complete stranger*”, “*a close friend*” or “*the absolute limit*”, and downtoners, for instance “*a slight effort*” or “*a feeble joke*” (Quirk 1985:429f.) Furthermore, they can act as emphasizees, i.e. adjectives “*have a general heightening effect*”. Quirk introduces following examples: “*a real hero*” (= undoubted), “*the simple truth*” or “*an outright lie*”.⁶

⁶ Note that all examples of intensifying adjectives stand as examples of collocations, too. They were checked by Online Oxford Collocation Dictionary. Not all examples of intensifying adjectives introduced by Quirk could be included.

5. APPROACHES TO THE STUDY OF COLLOCATIONS

In this chapter, three fundamental approaches to the study of collocations are introduced. This classification is based on the studies carried out by Gitsaki (1996) and Martynska (2004). First, there is a description of a lexical approach emphasizing meanings of collocations. Then, a semantic approach follows which is based on semantic structure. Finally, a description of structural approach is mentioned, i.e. study of collocations should proceed also from grammar.

Martelli (2007:36) states that most of researches worked rather on “*elicitation and translation tasks*” than on “*natural production*”. According to her investigation, L2 learners have difficulties to create correct word combination, however, they understand collocations well; L1 significantly influences learners’ ability to product correct collocation. Learners’ collocation production was compared with native speakers’ production and the findings are as follows: L2 learners use and create a smaller amount of collocations than native speakers.

5.1 Lexical approach

Martynska (2004:2) considers lexical approach to be the most traditional one. Gitsaki (1996:136) agrees and considers Firth to be the first who described collocations. According to Martynska (2004:2), this approach concerns lexical items as grammatically independent units; the meaning of a word is influenced by co-occurring words – “*a part of the meaning of a word is the fact that it collocates with another word*”. The author mentions Halliday’s explanation why collocations are independent of grammar – combinations “*he argued strongly*” and “*the strength of his argument*” have the same basic collocation, i.e. “*strong argument*”. In connection to the lexical approach, Martynska (2004:2) and Gitsaki (1996:138) mention terms ‘node’ (lexical item) and ‘span’ (distance between a lexical item and its collocant on either side) which were first introduced by Neo-Firthians as relating to the study of collocations.⁷ Gitsaki summarises that

⁷ More detailed explanation of these terms is to be found in Chapter 8: Methodology

according to this approach, words are examined “*as a level of analysis of language*” without including grammar (1996:142).

5.2 Semantic approach

When examining collocations according to this approach, main attention is being paid to a specific shape of collocations, i.e. “*why words collocate with certain other words*” such as “*blonde hair*” vs. “**blonde car*” (Martynska 2004:3). According to this approach, Gitsaki (1996:142) understands meanings of collocations as influenced by co-occurring words. Analysis of collocations is based on semantics, i.e. grammar is not important when examining collocations. Gitsaki (1996:145) explains that meaning of a lexical item is seen as “*a combination of semantic properties*” which “*determines its collocates*”. There was a tendency to set up a semantic theory in parallel to grammar. Semanticists Katz and Fodor introduced a semantic theory based on content of dictionary entries where each entry should include information about a selectional restriction. Arbitrariness as a basis of collocational relationship is considered for a weak point of semantic approach to the study of collocations (Gitsaki 1996:147). This weakness leads to neglecting of description of this phenomenon (Gitsaki 1996:150). In connection with this approach, Gitsaki (1996:149) highlights the Explanatory Combinatorial Dictionary (ECD) that significantly contributed to the description of collocations. When describing a word entry, the authors of the dictionary mapped a semantic, a syntactic and a lexical scope of co-occurrence.

5.3 Structural approach

According to this approach, collocations are described as being “*influenced by structure*” and as occurring in patterns (Gitsaki 1996:150), i.e. this approach includes grammar since the structure and lexicon are interdependent. In connection to this approach, Martynska mentions classification of collocations according to Benson, Benson and Ilson, i.e. grammatical and lexical collocations.⁸

⁸ This classification is described in detail in Chapter 4.

The author (Martynska 2004:4) describes differences between strong (e.g. “*avid reader*”), common (e.g. “*have dinner*”), medium strong (e.g. “*significantly different*”) and unique (“*to foot the bill*”) collocations according to Lewis and Hill. Martynska states that the relationship between collocates is often one-sided, for instance “*vested interest*” where the word “*vested*” collocates only with the word “*interest*”, however the latter word could co-occur with many other words. Hoey (2000, in Martynska 2004:4) introduces the notion ‘colligation’ which defines “*the grammatical company and interaction of words as well as their preferable position in a sentence*” (Martynska 2004:4). Gitsaki (1996:151) also includes this notion to this approach; however, she cited Mitchell’s explanation: “*colligations are the generalised classes of associations and collocations are their particular members* (Mitchel 1971:337, in Gitsaki 1996:151). The author mentions Jones and Sinclair’s proposition that grammatical words are not able to reveal their collocants in advance; however, they are able to reveal a word class (Gitsaki 1996:155). Gitsaki (1996:161) concludes that this approach enables research focusing on collocational patterns and, in comparison to previously mentioned approaches; a study of collocations including grammar is more feasible.

6. ACQUIRING COLLOCATIONS IN ESL LEARNING

In this chapter, reflections on the way how learners acquire a second language, and especially collocations, are mentioned. First, the extent to which collocations are concern in lesson plans is described. Then, causes of error making when creating a collocations are discussed. At the end of this chapter, the process of acquiring L2 by learners is explained.

Bahns (1993:56) states that from the 60's to 80's teaching focused primarily on grammar and the field of vocabulary teaching was thus neglected. The teaching was reoriented to vocabulary, however, there are difficulties in word combinability teaching and learning. Klégr (2007:1) agrees with Bahns. In his view, the study of collocations was performed only in theory for a long time. Nevertheless, he states that this situation is changing as "*collocations are recognized as a source of naturalness in speech*", a skill which ESL teachers strive to pass on their students and pupils when teaching. Klégr is aware of neglecting of collocations in learner's coursebooks and even in learner's dictionaries. This negligence leads to error making by ESL learners. However, according to Bahns (1993:61), there is a tendency to publish more material for collocation learning and teaching purposes as the writers are aware of the importance of this phenomenon. Brown (1974:2) supports this statement and claims that many coursebook writers and teachers mediate vocabulary to students in phrases or sentences. Bahns (1993:61) draws his attention to differences in the choice of collocations between various L1 learners. The author states that the selection of collocations for coursebooks is influenced by the fact that L1 learners often translate from their mother tongue when creating a collocation. This process is seen as erroneous and leads to error making. Examples follow:

**right question* instead of *good question*

**say a command* instead of *give a command*

**study school instead of attend/go to school*⁹

Bahns concludes that coursebooks should distinguish between ‘known’ collocations (they exist in L1) and ‘new’ collocations that have different equivalents in L1. Brown (1974:3) differentiates between ‘unusual’ and ‘normal’ collocations which are an initial step before more difficult collocations. Brown (1974:3ff.) states that collocation exercises “*can be varied partly on how much freedom they allow and partly according to which parts of speech are being collocates*”, for instance to complete the right adjective to a particular noun or the right noun that collocates with a particular verb based on listening, reading or on free choice.¹⁰

McCarthy and O’Dell (2005:8) state that collocations are acquired in the same way as other vocabulary items. The authors give advice how to effectively learn this part of vocabulary. First recommendation states that it is necessary to revise vocabulary (collocations) learnt in a lesson. Secondly, a learner should use acquired collocations when speaking or writing, i.e. in a practical way; the items will be easily fixed. Authors’ third advice is to cluster collocations into groups according to the same/similar topic (i.e. semantic fields) or according to the same base of words (i.e. word families), for instance: “*I must find a way to help him. Can you find your way back to my house? I learnt the hard way that Jack can’t be trusted. Please tell me if I’m getting in your way. You must give way to traffic from the left. I’ve tried every possible way to get him to change his mind.*” Kathpalia and Koo (2008:8f.) describe various steps of classroom process when teaching collocations. First step, identifying, is described as “*to teach students to consciously look for collocations in speech or writing, making their pivotal search clues*”. Learners find nouns and then they look for other parts of speech which co-occur with those nouns. After this procedure, they make a list of collocations found in the text or speech. In the second step, L2 learners brainstorm and try to invent new collocations. Teacher should draw their attention

⁹ For further examples see Practical part.

¹⁰ For detailed overview of various types of exercise see Brown (1974)

to possible mistakes made by learners and give students feedback. In the third step, recording, L2 learners record all collocations they have learnt in a lesson, i.e. their meaning and usage. Furthermore, students could record their favourite collocations, similar collocations as for grammatical patterns, etc.

According to Dulay and Burt (1973, in Bailey, Madden and Krashen 1974:236), errors made by L2 learners are similar to errors made by children having English as L1, i.e. error are “*developmental’ rather than ‘interference’*”. They consider the process of L2 learning to be the same as L1 learning process. This statement is verified by the outcome of the research carried out by Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974:242). According to their study, errors made in L2 learning process support the hypothesis of “*intra- rather than inter-lingual*” origin. Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974:242) state that errors made by L2 learners are similar. In their research they discover that adults and children learning English as a second language process linguistic data similarly, although adult L2 learners “*need the isolation of linguistic structures and feedback provided by the classroom*”. Martynska (2004:10) agrees with this statement that “*children can’t have known grammatical patterns at this stage so the acquisition ... resulted from the previous process of imitation and reiteration*”. The author highlights contribution of the lexical approach that does not define vocabulary as isolated words with a given meaning but rather as word combinations. Lewis (1997, in Martynska 2004:10f.) claims that learners store and use word combinations they have acquired and grammar is not seen as helpful when producing those word combinations. He states that memorizing of word combinations enables achieving proficiency level in L2 syntax. This line of argumentation is followed by other linguists (Hill 1999, Sczulec 1984) claiming that language competence is developed and reached by acquired awareness of collocations.

7. CONCEPTS: COLLOCATIONAL STRENGTH, SEMANTIC TRANSPARENCY AND SYNTACTIC VARIABILITY

When describing a type of a collocation, it is necessary to look at three main properties of collocations, i.e. collocational strength, semantic transparency and syntactic variability.

7.1 Semantic transparency

Bartsch (2004:71f.) states that semantics of collocations includes the extent to which individual elements contribute to the whole meaning of a collocation, *“the impact of occurrence within a collocation on the meaning of the constituents”*, semantic transparency of the meaning of a collocation and mutual influence or relationship between a collocation and a context. The author distinguishes four options to choose from when determining semantic transparency of collocations. First possibility states that *“all constituents of the collocation contribute an aspect of their transparent meaning, the collocation remains semantically fully transparent”*, i.e. each constituent is used in one of its potential meaning. For instance *“to commit a crime”* vs. *“to commit oneself”* vs. *“to commit to memory”*. Bartsch terms this type of collocations transparent. In the second type, *“at least one of the constituents of the collocations does not contribute lexical meaning”*, i.e. one component is delexicalised and loses its independent meaning. For example *“give a talk”* vs. *“talk”* or *“give/make a speech”* vs. *“speak”*. Third type of collocations are combinations in which meanings of their elements are seen as transparent, however, elements carry additional meaning. Collocations can carry a meaning of cultural stereotypes, for instance *“consenting adult”* meaning *“a person who is considered old enough, and therefore responsible enough, to decide if they want sex and who they want to have sex with”*¹¹ The meaning of a collocation is understood by particular culture or society (in this case by British community). In the fourth type of collocations at least one component changes its meaning within the context

¹¹ <<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/consenting-adult>>, 8.11.2014

of a collocation, i.e. it is not used in its literal sense. For instance “*to surf the internet*” or “*to see someone through*”. The meaning of a collocation metaphorically transferred. Bartsch concludes that although there are certain degrees of semantic transparency, collocations are usually semantically transparent. However, individual elements of a collocation contribute in a different extent to meaning of a whole collocation.

According to Kathpalia and Koo (2008:2), semantic transparency moves on a similar scale as proposed by Bartsch. On this scale, there is a transparent meaning on one pole and an opaque meaning on the opposite pole. Opaque lexical phrases are defined as phrases with a meaning that “*cannot be derived from individual words*”, such as “*hook, line, and sinker*”. It follows, that usually pure idioms have opaque meaning. In combinations with less opaque meaning constituents are used in both non-literal and literal meanings, for instance “*in the dark*”. Figurative idioms possess this type of transparency. Third type of meaning is called fairly transparent, i.e. one constituent of a collocation has a non-literal meaning, and the other one is used in a literal meaning. For instance “*curry favour with*”. This type of meaning occurs with restricted collocations. A collocation has a transparent meaning if all constituents of a collocation are used in their normal meanings, for example “*awkward/critical/complicated/farcical situation*”. Free/open collocations have transparent meaning.

7.2 Syntactic variability

Collocations can be classified according to their syntactic variability. Martelli (2007:28) states that although collocations allow more variations of their constituents, this syntactic variation cannot be executed to the same extent in each case. The notion ‘syntactic variability’ is defined as “*pronominalisation, displacement and substitution*”. Kathpalia and Koo (2008:2) define syntactic variability of collocations as moving on a scale with fixed collocations as one pole and variable collocations as second one. They distinguish between four types of variability: fixed collocations (e.g. *hook, line, and sinker*) represented by pure idioms; fairly, but not fixed combinations (e.g. *in the dark*) such as figurative

idioms; restricted collocations belong to the combinations where some constituents can be substituted (e.g. *curry favour with*), collocations in the fourth group, i.e. free/open collocations, are completely variable and can be combined (e.g. *awkward/critical/complicated/farcical situation*).

Martelli (2007:29f.) considers substitution to be a representative of syntactic variability, i.e. one constituent is replaced by its synonym and no change in the meaning of a collocation is caused, e.g. “*meet conditions*” where the word *meet* can be replaced by verbs *fulfil* or *satisfy* without any change in the meaning of this collocation. Syntactic variability can be displayed on word order, too. For instance, the collocation “*meet demands*” can be modified to following forms: “*they met their demands, their demands have been met, it was their demands that they did not meet*”. Martelli (2007:30) describes displacement as being one of syntactic variation, too. One constituent of a collocation can be replaced by another one, e.g. by pronoun. For instance “*instead of criticising their demands, you should at least try to meet them*”.

7.3 Collocational strength

The term collocational strength is explained as “*different degrees in which the elements of a collocation are mutually dependent and can or cannot ... be free to combine with other words*” (Martelli 2007:25). Martelli works with the term ‘range’ when defining collocational strength. The notion ‘range’ is explained as a “*list of lexical items, or collocates, that can enter into combination with a certain word*”. The range varies according to the type of restriction of a collocation. As for collocational strength, Hill (2000, in Kathpalia and Koo 2008:3) distinguishes three groups of collocations – weak collocations, medium-strength collocations and strong collocations. Weak collocations consist of elements co-occurring with a large range of lexical items, for instance “*fast car*” or “*have dinner*”. Items occurring in medium strength collocations occur with a smaller range of collocants, for example “*magnificent house*” or “*significantly different*”. The third group, strong collocations, consists of items collocating with a highly limited range of items, for instance “*avid reader*” or “*budding author*” (Lewis and Hill 1998, in Martelli 2007:26). Lewis and Hill

introduce furthermore fourth group called 'unique collocations', comprising frozen collocations in which a lexical item occurs with only one collocant, for example "*foot the bill*" or "*shrug one's shoulders*".

Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English (2002:vii) distinguishes between three groups of collocations – 'weak collocations', for instance "*see a film*", 'medium strength collocations', for example "*see a doctor*", and 'strong collocations', such as "*see danger/reason/the point*".

As already mentioned in Chapter 4, O'Dell and McCarthy (2008:8) divide collocations into three groups - strong collocations, fixed collocations and weak collocations.¹²

¹² For more detailed overview see Chapter 4.

8. METHODOLOGY - DATA COLLECTING AND ANALYSIS

This study focuses on the concept of collocations and the mapping of error making by Czech learners when they try to produce them. For the purpose of this thesis, a method of analysis of language corpus is chosen. This method is based on data collecting (i.e. samples of both correctly and incorrectly produced collocations) needed for the research, i.e. practical part of this thesis. For the purposes of this research, the samples constituting the corpus are collected from essays of students of grammar school. The learners' level of English language competence ranges from A2 to B2 – it is a criterion that was set in advance to make sure the learners are able to produce collocations. The acquired data are evaluated as for types of a restriction, idiomacity and parts of speech. Correctness of the obtained collocations is verified in following dictionaries *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* and *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*.

8.1 Data collection

The data are collected from 73 essays written by students of eight secondary grammar schools. When looking for collocations in a text, or among a set of words, it is necessary to work with terms 'span' and 'node' (Berry-Roghe 1973:1). The notion 'node' stands for the central lexical item, a base with which other words tend to form a collocation. Nodes co-occur with collocates. The distance between a lexical item and its collocant is called 'span'. Berry-Roghe (1973:3f.) proved that most of collocates appear in proximity; they adopted the span of 4 lexical items. Crystal (2003:161) supports this terminology, however, he states that a span could be large, even "*10 or so words on either side*". According to his view, researchers of collocations often take into consideration only those lexemes which occur just next to a node, or they adopt the span of three or four words on either side. Crystal thinks that for studying collocations a larger span is needed. For the purposes of this research, a span of four lexical items (according to Berry-Roghe's point of view) is applied.

8.2 Data analysis

The collected data are analysed as follows. First, an acquired combination of words that seems to be a collocation is verified in *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (OCD). If the combination is mentioned in the dictionary, it is considered to be a collocation. Then, the collocation is checked in other dictionaries, i.e. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (OALD), *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDCE), and *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (CALD). This is due to the fact that collocations are recorded differently in each dictionary. Furthermore, the online versions of dictionaries are used as they are updated and reflect the latest changes in lexical items. Sometimes, the collocation is found only under one collocant. The acquired collocations are divided in seven categories (L1-L7) according to Benson, Benson and Ilson's suggestion.

Erroneously produced collocations are included in samples, too. As an incorrect collocation is considered such a combination whose meaning is transparent; however, according to the dictionaries, one collocant cannot be used in a combination with the other one/ones. The erroneous collocations are marked with an asterisk (*). The erroneously produced collocations are adduced together with a correct one whose meaning is same or the most similar. With each incorrectly produced collocation, there is an attempt to find a cause leading to mistake.

In appendices, there is a table of all collocations gathered from the learners' essays with a mention of a type a restriction, semantic transparency and a part of speech. Then, more detailed description of collected samples follows. When describing a sample, other possible collocants of its constituents are mentioned. The examples of possible collocants are taken from the dictionaries (i.e. COD, LDCE, OALD, CALD or BNC¹³).

¹³ British National Corpus

9 ANALYSIS OF COLLECTED COLLOCATIONS

9.1 L1 Verb-Noun Collocations (CA)

In this chapter, verb-noun collocations are described. This type of collocations comprises a verb and a noun. The CA collocations denote collocations meaning ‘creation’ or ‘activation’. The verbs occurring in CA collocations gathered from the learners’ essays are both lexical and delexical¹⁴ (cf. general verbs¹⁵).

First, the incorrectly produced collocations are described. With each erroneous collocation, a description of a type of restriction (restricted/unrestricted) and semantic transparency (transparent/metaphoric meaning) is provided. Furthermore, there is an attempt to explain the cause leading to errors when producing a collocation.

Then, correctly produced collocations are commented on. These collocations are described as for the type of restriction and semantic transparency. Some instances of them are mentioned, too.

A. Erroneous collocations

Table 1: L1 Collocation (erroneous)

Collocation	Correct version	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
132. *make exam	pass exam	V + N	U	T
133. *reach progress	make/achieve progress	V + N	U	T
134. *visit a choir	sing/be in a choir	V + N	R	T
135. *set off for journey	go /set out on a journey	V + N	U	T

¹⁴ Delexical verbs (Cowie 1986; in Fontenelle 1994:4), see Chapter 4

¹⁵ General verbs (Allerton 1984: 33), see Chapter 2.

136. *visit concert	go to a concert	V + N	U	T
137. *make points	get points	V + N	U	T
138. *have mood	be in a mood	V + N	U	T
139. *knock a ball	hit a ball	V + N	U	T
140. *enter school	start school	V+ N	U	T
141. *study school	attend school	V + N	U	T
142. *conclude a bet	take/make a bet	V + N	U	T
143. *say a command	give a command	V + N	U	T
144. *obtain power	come to power	V + N	U	T
145. *have a trip	make/take/go on a trip	V + N	U	T
146. *have a lucky	be lucky	V + N	U	T
147. *practise gymnastics	do gymnastics	V + N	R	T
148. *acknowledge guilt	admit guilt	V + N	R	T
149. *attend a course	take/do a course	V + N	U	T

From the Table 1 results, that most of erroneously produced collocations consist of a lexical verb and a noun, for instance - (144) **obtain power*, (142) **conclude a bet*, (140) **enter school* or (133) **reach progress*. However, there are some instances of verb-noun collocations consisting of a delexical/general verb and a noun. In such collocations, a noun carries the core meaning of the collocation, i.e. the main information is expressed by a noun. The verb has only a grammatical function. The instances of such verb-noun collocations are as follows: (145) **have a trip*, (137) **make points*, or (138) **have mood*. The core meaning lies in the introduced collocations on nouns *trip*, *points* and *mood*, i.e. they extend the meaning of the verbs *have* and *make*.

The collocations introduced in the Table 1 are semantically transparent. Both speaker/writer and hearer/reader are able to decode the meaning of a collocation without any difficulty. This fact supports the statement claimed by Bartsch – that is, most of collocations are usually semantically transparent.

Table 1 implies that most of erroneously produced collocations are unrestricted, i.e. each constituent of the collocation can collocate with other words. L2 learners have to choose a correct verb that matches with a particular noun. As follows from the samples produced incorrectly, students often decide to choose a general (delexical) verb such as *make*, *have*, *get*, *do*, etc. when they grope for a suitable verb. Unfortunately, even a particular delexical verb goes together only with certain nouns. The examples of incorrectly produced collocations where a learner used a general verb instead of a lexical verb are as follows: (132) **make exam*, or (138) **have mood*. There are instances of incorrectly created collocations when students chose an incorrect lexical verb - (139) **knock a ball*, (148) **acknowledge guilt* or (141) **study school*. Some collocations are regarded as restricted, i.e. their constituents collocate only with a few other collocants, for instance (134) **visit a choir*, (147) **practise gymnastics*, or (148) **acknowledge guilt*. The noun *gymnastics* co-occurs only with the verb *do*; the noun *guilt* collocates only with verbs *admit*, *establish* and *prove*, and the noun *choir* co-occurs with verbs *be in*, *sing in*, *conduct* and *accompany*.

132. *MAKE EXAM – ‘*They make the final exam, end their studies on secondary school and what then?*’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation PASS EXAM as the correct version with the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The mistake was made due to the transfer from the Czech collocation *udělat zkoušku* that was translated word by word into English.

133.*REACH PROGRESS – ‘...*he wants to reach a progress in agriculture.*’

The correct version is MAKE/ACHIEVE PROGRESS. The error was caused due to the transfer from the Czech language, i.e. Czech collocation *dosáhnout pokroku* that was translated literally into the English language.

134.*PRACTISE GYMNASTICS – ‘*We can play football, basketball or practise athletics there.*’

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation DO GYMNASTICS which has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The verb *practise* has the same meaning in Czech – *cvičit* (or *praktikovat*). The student used the verb in its meaning as he/she knows it; however, the verb *practise* could not be used with the noun *gymnastics*. Nevertheless, the literal translation of the correct collocation *do gymnastics* (which is *dělat gymnastiku*) is the same in Czech.

135.*ACKNOWLEDGED GUILT – ‘*Three of them had already acknowledged their guilt.*’

The collocation ADMIT GUILT is regarded as the correct one. In this case, the L2 learner exchanged two verbs with a close similarity in their meanings, that is “*to accept that something is true*”¹⁶ This exchange caused the mistake.

136.*VISIT A CHOIR – ‘...*, so I visit a school choir.*’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation SING IN A CHOIR or BE IN A CHOIR. The mistake was made due to the transfer from the Czech language. In Czech, there is a collocation *navštěvovat sbor* that was literally translated into the English language. Both correct versions, *sing in a choir* and *be in a choir* exist in the Czech language, too – *zpívat ve sboru, být ve sboru*.

137.*SET OFF FOR JOURNEYS – ‘...*people set off for journeys and take holidays.*’

The collocations GO ON A JOURNEY or SET OUT ON A JOURNEY are regarded as the closest collocations to the proposed one. In this case, the student exchanged two

¹⁶< <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/acknowledge>> 14.12.2014

phrasal verbs with very similar meanings. Both verbs *set off* and *set out* mean “to begin a journey”¹⁷. However, only the phrasal verb *set out* is regarded as the correct choice.

138.*VISITING CONCERTS – ‘*We need it for travelling, ..., for cultural reasons (watching films, visiting concerts...)*’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation GO TO A CONCERT. In this case, the mistake was caused due to the transfer from the Czech language. In Czech, there is a collocation *navštívit koncert* that was literally translated by the L2 learner into English.

139.*MADE POINTS – ‘*...and with incredible attack made two more points.*’

The collocation GET POINTS is regarded as the correct one with the most similar meaning. The mistake was motivated by the existence of a similar Czech collocation *udělat body*. The Czech collocation is colloquial and corresponds with the literal meaning of the proposed collocation **made points*. However, there is a Czech collocation *získat body* that corresponds perfectly with the English collocation *get points*.

140.*HAD MOOD – ‘*I know that I had really good mood this day.*’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation BE IN A MOOD. The error was caused due to the transfer from Czech – *mít náladu*. The equivalent corresponding with the collocation *be in a mood* exists in Czech, too; however, its meaning is slightly different – it is a euphemism meaning *slightly drunk*.

141.*KNOCKED THE BALL – ‘*...suddenly I saw that Anita, a really tall girl in team knocked the ball high into the air...*’

The collocation HIT A BALL is regarded as the correct one. In this case, the mistake was caused due to the exchange of two verbs with a similar meaning –

¹⁷ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/set_1#set_1__340> 14.12.2014

knock (one of the verb's meanings) and *hit*. The L2 learner chose incorrectly the verb *knock* which does not co-occur with the noun *ball*.

142.*ENTERED SCHOOL – ‘*When I entered basic school, ...*’

The dictionaries introduce the collocation START SCHOOL which has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The mistake was caused due to the transfer from Czech. In Czech, there is a collocation *vstup do školy* (‘enter to school’ meaning *school start*). The learner derived a collocation **enter school* from this combination.

143.*STUDY IN SCHOOL – ‘*I study in Anglo-Czech high school...*’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation ATTEND SCHOOL as the correct version. The mistake was made due to the transfer from the Czech language. In Czech, there is a collocation *studovat školu/na škole*. This collocation was incorrectly translated into the English language as a calque.

144.*CONCLUDES A BET – ‘*Professor Higgins concludes a bet with his friend Colonel Pickering.*’

The collocations PUT A BET, MAKE A BET or TAKE A BET are regarded as correct versions. The error was caused due to the transfer from Czech since there is the collocation *uzavřít sázku*. The Czech collocation was translated word by word in the English language.

145.*SAY A COMMAND – ‘*...you do not have to touch it you just say a command.*’

The dictionaries introduce the collocation GIVE A COMMAND. This collocation is equivalent to the Czech collocation *dát rozkaz*. However, the English collocation corresponds more often with the Czech verb *rozkázat*. There is no particular reason for creation of this collocation.

146.*OBTAIN POWER – ‘*...and new president will obtain full power.*’

The collocation COME TO POWER has the most similar meaning to the proposed collocation. The L2 learner chose between two verbs with similar meaning –

“reached a particular state”¹⁸ (come to) and “to get something”¹⁹ (obtain). The verb *obtain* cannot co-occur with the noun *power*.

147.*HAVE A TRIP – ‘*On Wednesday we had big trip across whole country.*’

The dictionaries introduce the collocations MAKE/GO ON/TAKE A TRIP as the most similar one to the proposed collocation. This error was caused due to the wrong choice of a verb. The equivalents to the English collocations *make a trip* (*udělat si výlet*) and *go on a trip* (*jet na výlet*) exist in Czech, too.

148.*HAVE A LUCKY – ‘*I think that I have a lucky because I live in small town.*’

Dictionaries propose the correct version HAVE LUCK. The mistake was made by merging two collocations – *be lucky* (verb-adjective collocation) and *have luck* (verb-noun collocation). This collocation has an equivalent in the Czech language – *mít štěstí* - that literally corresponds with the English collocation *have luck*.

149.*ATTEND A COURSE – ‘*...I fortunately started to attend another sports course,...*’

The collocations TAKE/(DO) A COURSE is regarded as the correct one. The mistake was made due to the transfer from the Czech language. The Czech collocation *navštěvovat kurz* was literally translated in the English language.

From the samples mentioned above follows, that most of the mistakes made by L2 learners when creating a collocation in English is due to the transfer from L1 into L2. The learners have a tendency to translate Czech collocations word by word to English. As a result, many English collocations are produced erroneously. Learners keep the semantic meaning of the Czech collocations; however, the form of the proposed collocation does not occur in the L2 language. Examples of a transfer are as follows: (132) **make exam/udělat zkoušku*, (134) **visit*

¹⁸ <http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/come_1#come_1__248> 14.12.2014

¹⁹ <<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/obtain>> 14.12.2014

*a choir/navštěvovat sbor, (138) *had mood/mít náladu, or (142) *conclude a bet/uzavřít sázku.*

Other mistakes made when creating English collocations were caused by the exchange of two words – verbs – with very similar meaning. Sometimes, a student knows the meaning of both verbs and has to decide which verb goes better together with a certain noun. The instances of this type of mistakes are as follows: (144) **obtain power vs. come to power, (139) *knocked vs. hit the ball, (135) *set off vs. set out on a journey or (148) *acknowledge vs. admit guilt.*

Some errors are made by carelessness or negligence, as in (143) **say command*. Even the Czech collocation *dát rozkaz* is equivalent with the English collocation *give a command*. There is no clear reason why the student produced this form of a collocation. Another instance of such type of an error is the produced collocation **have a lucky*. In this case, the learner combined two collocations together – *be lucky* and *have luck*. Both collocations have their equivalents in the Czech language that literally correspond with the meanings of the English collocations.

B. Correctly produced collocations

The majority (i.e. 44 V-N collocations from 62 V-N collocations) of gathered verb-noun collocations are created correctly – for instance (153) *improve skills, (164) hold referendum, (173) ride a bike, (180) do homework, or (182) take a photo.*

As already mentioned in the part A., verb-noun collocations consist mostly of a lexical verb and a noun, for instance (188) *spend time, (179) play a game, or (190) walk a dog*. However, there are some instances of collocations that consist of a noun and a general/delexical verb. The verb usually extends the meaning of a noun. Instances of these collocations are as follows: (176) *do exercise, (170) do business, (162) give advice or (151) get education*. The core meaning lies on the nouns *exercise, business, advice and education*.

Among the gathered collocations that were produced correctly the unrestricted type of collocations predominates, i.e. both a noun and a verb co-occur with other collocants. Most of the collocations occurring in learners' essays correspond with the Czech equivalent collocations, for instance (159) *find work*, (178) *listen to music* or (175) *earn money*. The learners produced restricted collocations, too. Those collocations are rather fixed and the learners learn them together, as one lexical item. There are examples of restricted collocations occurring in the learners' essays: (163) *play tennis*, (157) *brush teeth*, (152) *do sport*, and (184) *commit suicide*.

The collocations collected from the learners' essays are mostly transparent, i.e. both writer/speaker and reader/hearer can create and understand the collocation without any difficulty. There are examples of transparent collocations: (189) *play the piano*, (191) *keep an animal*, (164) *win a medal*, (160) *travel the world*, (153) *join a club* or (171) *get a message*. Among the collected samples, there is a collocation with a metaphoric meaning - (159) *fall in love*. Someone who falls in love actually does not fall anywhere; this collocation expresses a process when someone begins loving other person. The verb *fall in* could denote a sudden change of one's feelings to someone else.

9.2L2 – Verb-Noun collocation (EN)

This chapter deals with collocations consisting of a verb and a noun. Meaning of these collocations denotes ‘eradication’ or ‘nullification’. All collocations of this type gathered from the learners’ essays were produced correctly. Each sample is analysed in terms of collocational restriction (i.e. restricted/unrestricted) and semantic transparency (i.e. transparent/metaphoric meaning).

Table 2: L2 Collocation

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
194. cut hair	V + N	U	T
195. broke one’s heart	V + N	U	M
196. correct a mistake	V + N	U	T
197. fulfil a dreams	V + N	U	T
198. lost employment	V + N	U	T
199. answer a question	V + N	U	T
200. solve a problem	V + N	U	T

From the Table 2 follows that all collected noun-verb collocations of the EN category are produced correctly. The meaning of these collocations means neutralization or elimination. The EN collocations sampled from the learners’ essays correspond with their Czech equivalents, for instance the collocation (196) *correct a mistake* is equivalent to the Czech collocation *opravit chybu*, the collocation (200) *solve a problem* corresponds with the Czech *vyřešit problém*, and the collocation (199) *answer a question* is equivalent to the Czech collocation *zodpovědět otázku*. The EN collocations appearing in the students’ essays have mostly semantically transparent meaning. However, there is one collocation with a metaphoric meaning – (196) *broke one’s heart*. The literal meaning cannot be

applied there, since the meaning of this collocation is “*to grieve or cause to grieve very deeply, esp through love*”.²⁰ Even this metaphorical meaning of English collocation *break heart* is equivalent to the Czech meaning – *zlomit srdce*.

L2 collocations found in the essays are considered unrestricted since both constituents of the collocations can collocate with other words. For instance, the verb *fulfil* collocates with other nouns such as *ambition, hopes, need, terms*, etc. and the noun *dream* can co-occur with verbs such as *realize, achieve, have*, etc. As for the collocation (195) *break heart* that has a metaphoric meaning, the verb *break* can be used metaphorically in other collocations, for instance *the law, promises, silence, word*, etc. Even the noun *heart* occurs in other collocations with a metaphorical meaning, for instance *steal a heart, open a heart*, etc.

²⁰ <<http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/break-one-s-heart>>, 12.12 2014

9.3L3 - Adjective-noun collocation

In this chapter, collocations consisting of an adjective and a noun are described. In the L3 group, collocations comprising two nouns are included as well. However, the first noun functions as a modifier.

First, the erroneously created collocations are mentioned. With each incorrect collocation, a description as for a type of restriction (i.e. restricted or unrestricted collocation) and semantic transparency (i.e. transparent or metaphoric meaning) is provided. Furthermore, there is an attempt to explain the cause leading to errors when creating collocations.

Then, correctly produced collocations are commented on. Some instances of them are mentioned when analysing a type of restriction and semantic transparency.

A. Erroneous collocations

Table 3: L3 Collocation (erroneous)

Collocation	Correct version	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
1. *high education	higher education	ADJ + N	U	T
2. *manual work	manual job	ADJ + N	U	T
3. *higher class	upper class	ADJ + N	U	T
4. *antique myth	ancient myth	ADJ + N	U	T
5. *society class	social class	ADJ + N	U	T
6. *moderate climate	mild climate	ADJ + N	U	T
7. *right question	good question	ADJ + N	U	T
8. *music instrument	musical instrument	ADJ + N	U	T
9. *race driver	racing driver	N + N	U	T

10. *back side	reverse side	ADJ + N	R	T
11. *family house	family home	N + N	U	T
12. *fair friend	good friend	ADJ + N	U	T
13. *opposite opinion	different opinion	ADJ + N	U	T
14. *president election	presidential election	ADJ + N	U	T
15. *deep freeze	big freeze	ADJ + N	R	T
16. *lifetime love	eternal love	ADJ + N	U	T
17. *normal people	common people	ADJ + N	U	T
18. *amazing result	impressive result	ADJ + N	U	T
19. *usual guy	ordinary/regular guy	ADJ + N	U	T
20. *big goal	ambitious goals	ADJ + N	U	T
21. *politician party	political party	ADJ + N	U	T
22. *economical situation	economic situation	ADJ + N	U	T
23. *proper investigation	thorough investigation	ADJ + N	U	T

As follows from the Table 3, most of incorrectly created collocations consist of an adjective and a noun – for instance (3) **higher class*, (7) **right question*, (12) **fair friend* or (22) **economical situation*. This occurrence is quite logical as it is usually an adjective that has an attributive function and modifies a noun in a noun phrase. Therefore, the L2 learners looked for a suitable modifying adjective when creating this type of a collocation. However, in some cases, a function of a modifier is realized by a noun. This occurrence appears in the samples as well – for example (11) **family house* or (9) **race driver*. The nouns *family* and *race* function as modifiers of nouns *house* and *driver* respectively.

The collocations introduced in Table 3 are mostly semantically transparent. Both the speaker and the hearer can express or understand the meaning of the collocation easily.

Table 3 indicates that most of erroneously produced collocations are unrestricted, i.e. each constituent of the collocation can co-occur with other collocants. It is obvious that L2 learners make mistakes in this type of collocations since they have to choose one correct adjective for certain communicative purpose. Some adjectives are, however, very similar in meaning (for instance *higher – upper*) and the choice of a correct adjective for the noun *class* is fairly tricky. Sometimes, a mistake is not made in the choice of a suitable adjective, but in the choice of a correct noun – for instance (2) **manual work* or (11) **family house*. The incorrectness of collocation production is in this case caused by the exchange of lexical items with very similar meaning again. To illustrate this similarity, definitions of words *work* and *job* found in the LDCE are mentioned below:

- work – ‘*a job or activity that you do regularly, especially in order to earn money*’
- job – ‘*the regular paid work that you do for an employer*’

When applying the definitions on the sample sentence founded in an essay (*...demand for simpler manual work is slowly moving away ...*), it could be stated that the author of this sentence wanted to convey the meaning of paid work, thus the noun *job* is more convenient there. However, the noun *work* cannot create a collocation with an adjective *manual*.

1. **HIGH EDUCATION - The biggest problem I see in it is that high education (gradual and post gradual) is not about making the student a generally better human being anymore...*

The correct version of this collocation suggested by dictionaries is HIGHER EDUCATION. The mistake could be made due to the carelessness since there is a Czech equivalent ‘*vyšší vzdělání*’ that corresponds with the meaning of the collocation.

2. **MANUAL WORK - ...demand for simpler manual work is slowly moving away ...*

Dictionaries introduce the collocation MANUAL JOB as the one with the most similar meaning to this combination. In this case, the error is made due to the

close similarity of semantic meaning of expressions *job*, *work* and *labour*. However, the adjective *manual* can collocate only with the noun *job*. This perfectly illustrates an example of difficulty or a struggle L2 learners have when learning and using collocations.

3. *HIGHER CLASS - '*...she is prepared to go among Mr. Higgins's relatives and friends from the higher class.*'

The collocation UPPER CLASS is the correct version with the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The difficulty when creating this collocation was caused by the existence of a similar Czech equivalent '*vyšší třída*' and the close similarity of expressions *higher* and *upper* where only the latter one could co-occur with the noun *class*.

4. *ANTIQUÉ MYTH - '*According to an antique myth about one sculptor called Pygmalion...*'

The collocation ANCIENT MYTH has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The words *antique* and *ancient* are similar in their semantic meanings in both English and Czech; this probably caused the incorrect use of the adjective *antique* with the noun *myth*. Furthermore, the English word *antique* is more similar to the Czech equivalent *antický* than the other adjective *ancient*.

5. *SOCIETY CLASS - '*...thanks to this film you can imagine how society classis (sic!) work, ...*'

Dictionaries suggest the collocation SOCIAL CLASS that has the same meaning as the produced combination. In this case, the noun is incorrectly used substituting the correct adjective *social*. Probably, the author of this combination was not aware of the adjective *social* since even in the Czech language, there is an equivalent '*společenská třída*' consisting of an adjective and a noun (as well as in English). Otherwise, this mistake could be caused by negligence.

6. *MODERATE CLIMATE - '*The Czech republic has a moderate continental climate.*'

The collocation MILD CLIMATE has the most similar meaning to the meaning of the proposed combination. The author of this combination transferred the meaning of the word '*mild*' which has in Czech very similar meaning to the word *moderate*. This mistake was caused by the exchange of two similar words in a combination with the word '*climate*'.

7. *RIGHT QUESTION - '*The right question is: Are our schools well-equipped?*'
(sic!)

In dictionaries, there is a collocation GOOD QUESTION that represents the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The mistake is caused by the transfer from the Czech language into the English language. There is a Czech equivalent '*správná otázka*' that exactly corresponds with the proposed combination **right question*. However, this combination is not acceptable in English.

8. *MUSIC INSTRUMENT - '*...where wind music instruments are made.*'

The dictionaries suggest the collocation MUSICAL INSTRUMENT (in some dictionaries this combination appears as an entry). The mistake was caused by the tricky choice between the adjective *musical* and the modifying noun *music* occurring in collocations such as *music festival*, *music industry*, *music teacher*, etc. This example perfectly illustrates the difficulty emerging when choosing the right collocant to the word.

9. *RACE DRIVER - '*I admire the speed and the driving art of some race drivers.*'

The dictionaries suggest a collocation RACING DRIVER. The mistake was caused again by the difficult choice between the modifying noun *racing* and other modifying noun *race* occurring in collocations such as *race winner*, *race organizer*, etc. This example perfectly illustrates the difficulty appearing in the process of creating a collocation in L2.

10. *BACK SIDE - *'I choosed (sic!) one stone, where was in back side number of list with questions.'*

The collocation REVERSE SIDE is regarded as the correct one having the most similar meaning to the proposed meaning. The mistake was caused by the transfer from the implying meaning – on the back part of the stone - on the word *side*.

11. *FAMILY HOUSE - *'We have big family house here sharing it with my grandparents.'*

The dictionaries used introduce the correct collocation FAMILY HOME. The native speaker explains that the word *house* contains in its meaning that the house is usually inhabited by the whole family, not by a single person; therefore the modifying noun *family* is redundant there. Furthermore, the mistake was caused by the similar meaning of words *house* and *home*.

12. *FAIR FRIEND – *'I hope that I'm a fair friend.'*

The dictionaries introduce the correct collocation GOOD FRIEND which is closest in meaning to the proposed one. The mistake was caused by the transfer from the Czech language where the expression '*správný/férový přítel*' is semantically close to the proposed combination.

13. *OPPOSITE OPINION – *'My boyfriend have (sic!) opposite opinion.'*

The correct version that has the most similar meaning is the collocation DIFFERENT OPINION. Both *opposite* and *different* have in some context similar meanings. The mistake was caused also due to the transfer from the Czech language as there is a Czech equivalent *opačný názor* that corresponds more with the adjective *opposite*.

14. *PRESIDENT ELECTION – *'When I was in the United States of America president election took place.'*

The dictionaries used suggest the right collocation - PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. The mistake was caused by the incorrect use of a noun *president* which cannot

occur as a modifier. The mistake could be explained as a negligence of the derived adjective *presidential*.

15. *PROPER INVESTIGATION – ‘*In spite of the proper investigation the whole case still remains a puzzle.*’

The correct version is THOROUGH/FULL INVESTIGATION. The error was caused by the exchange of very similar adjectives – *proper* and *thorough/full*. The learner had to choose one which is suitable for the noun *investigation*.

16. *DEEP FREEZE – ‘*...but there are things you really can’t avoid (icy veins, frost barrier, deep freeze, counter spell, ...)*’

The combination appears in all dictionaries; however, the meaning is different²¹ from the meaning the learner wants to convey. The dictionaries suggest the collocation BIG FREEZE as the correct one. The mistake was caused by the transfer from the Czech language where the collocation *hluboký mráz* exists. The learner translated the Czech collocation word by word into English.

17. *LIFETIME LOVE – ‘*I have 2 foxhounds and they are my lifetime loves.*’

ETERNAL LOVE is the correct collocation with the most similar meaning to the proposed one. Both adjectives – *lifetime* and *eternal* are very similar in their meanings. The learner had to decide which adjective goes better with the noun *love*.

18. *NORMAL PEOPLE – ‘*I would say that it’s not good for normal people...*’

The dictionaries used introduce a collocation COMMON PEOPLE. The mistake was caused by the transfer from the Czech language. The student translated the Czech collocation *normální lidé* into English. However, in English this combination is unacceptable.

²¹ the CALD defines the term as “a container, operated by electricity, which stores food at a very cold temperature so that it becomes solid and can be kept safely for a long time.”
<<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/freezer>>, 30.11.2014

19. *AMAZING RESULT – *‘I think this amazing result caused Karl von Schwarzenberg.’*

The dictionaries suggest a collocation IMPRESSIVE RESULT which has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The mistake was made due to the close similarity between the meanings of adjectives *amazing* and *impressive*. The mistake was caused by the exchange of those two adjectives in a combination with the noun *result*.

20. *USUAL GUY – *‘...his colleagues and girlfriend know him as a usual guy, ...’*

The correct collocation is ORDINARY (or REGULAR) GUY. The mistake was made due to the exchange of adjectives *usual* and *ordinary/regular* that have very similar meanings.

21. *BIG GOAL – *‘young people give themselves big goals.’*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation AMBITIOUS GOALS. The error was caused by the transfer from the Czech language into the English language. In Czech, there is a collocation *velký cíl* which exactly corresponds with the proposed combination *big goal*. However, in English, this combination is not acceptable as a collocation.

22. *POLITICIAN PARTIES – *‘It means for example politician parties or departments.’*

The correct collocation with the most similar meaning is POLITICAL PARTY. The mistake was caused by the incorrect use of a noun *politician* which cannot occur as a modifier. The mistake could be explained as a negligence of the derived adjective *political*.

23. *ECONOMICAL SITUATION – *‘...and maybe bring experience for upturn our economical situation.’*

The dictionaries used introduce the correct version - ECONOMIC SITUATION. The mistake was made due to the exchange of two adjectives – *economical* and *economic* that are similar at the first sight, however, their meanings are slightly

different. The adjective *economical* can co-occur in combinations such as *economical car* (relating to the saving money) and the adjective *economic growth* (relating to the trade, industry, etc.).

It follows from the above mentioned samples, that most of the mistakes made by L2 learners when producing a collocation in English appear due to the from the L1 into L2 transfer where the learners exactly translate the Czech collocation word by word into the English language. This leads to the production of incorrect collocations. The proposed combination usually has very similar meaning as the correct one; however, the form of collocation is in the L2 language not acceptable. The examples of a transfer are follows: (7) **right question/správná otázka*, (11) **family house/rodinný dům*, (17) **normal people/normální lidé*.

Other mistakes were caused by the difficulty emerging when choosing between two English words (i.e. two adjectives or a noun and an adjective) whose meaning is very similar. The learner usually knows meanings of both but cannot decide which word (i.e. adjective or noun) is more suitable for the noun (head of a phrase). The instances of this type of mistakes are as follows: (6) **moderate vs. mild climate*, (3) **higher vs. upper class*, (4) **antique vs. ancient myth*, (18) **amazing vs. impressive result*, (13) **opposite vs. different opinion* or (19) **usual vs. ordinary/regular guy*.

Some mistakes were made due to the tricky choice between modifying noun and an adjective where both can stand with a noun (head in a noun phrase). The adjective *musical* and the noun *music*, which can function as a modifier, too, represent a perfect example of this type of mistake cause. The adjective *musical* is found in collocations such as *musical talent* or *musical entertainment*; the noun *music* occurs in collocations such as *music industry* or *music band*. The L2 learner has to decide between those two synonymous words. Other example is represented by the noun *racing* and the noun *race*. They both can behave as modifiers in a noun phrase, their meaning is very similar. Nevertheless, the noun 'racing' co-occurs with nouns such *team* or *season* and the noun 'race'

collocates with nouns such as *winner* or *organizer*. Other examples are as follows: (14) **president* vs. *presidential election*, (4) **politician* vs. *political party*, (22) **economical* vs. *economic situation*.

These two cases supports the statement made by Lipka, that is, learners struggle to produce a collocation correctly especially when words are close semantically (e.g. *large, big, great*) or similar in form (e.g. *electric, electrical*).

Other type of errors is similar to the previously mentioned one – the mistakes result from the close similarity of words used as heads in a noun phrase. There is one example from the collected samples – (2) **manual work*. The adjective *manual* occurs only in the collocation with the noun *job*. A L2 learner usually knows both nouns *job* and *work* and he/she has to decide which noun to use.

Some errors are made by carelessness, such in case (1) **high education* where even the English equivalent *higher education* corresponds with the Czech collocation *vyšší vzdělání*. Other instance of an error results from the negligence. The author of the combination (5) **society class* probably knows the adjective *social*. Furthermore, the Czech equivalent *společenská třída* consists, as well as the English collocation, of an adjective and a noun. There is no obvious explanation how this mistake was motivated.

B. Correctly produced collocations

The majority of the collected samples in the category ‘Adjective-Noun Collocations’ produced correctly comprises an adjective and a noun – for instance (29) *dark side*, (40) *sunny weather*, (60) *human body*, (76) *lucky number* or (84) *financial crisis*. As already mentioned in the part A., adjectives usually function as modifiers of nouns in a noun phrase. When L2 learners try to produce a collocation consisting of a noun and a modifier, they usually decide to use an adjective as a modifying element. In the gathered samples, there are collocations consisting of two nouns, too. One noun stands in a role of a modifier

and the other one fulfils the role of a head of the collocation. The examples of noun-noun collocations are following: (80) *school year*, (86) *computer game*, (94) *sports facilities*, (69) *production manager*, (99) *entry fee*, (107) *school trip* or (63) *dream job*. The nouns *school*, *computer*, *sports*, *production*, *fee*, *trip* and *dream* functions as modifiers in this case, however, they can normally stand on their own.

Among the collected correct collocations, the unrestricted type of collocations prevails. It means that both constituents of the collocation can collocate with other words. It follows that the L2 learner has more or less wide range of possible modifiers which to choose from. Most of the collocations occurring in learners' essays corresponds with the Czech equivalent collocations, for instance (80) *green hills*, (96) *domestic animal*, (74) *football match*, (68) *foreign language*, (43) *social ladder*, (39) *good choice*, (101) *black-and-white photo*, (107) *school trip* or (29) *dark side*. The learners produced restricted collocations, too. Those collocations are pretty stable and the learners have usually learnt them as a whole phrase. There are examples of restricted collocations occurring in the essays: (25) *human being*, (41) *capital city*, (44) *role model*, and (49) *drug addiction*. The nouns or adjective usually collocates only with a few other words.

The collocations occurring in the learners' essays are mostly transparent, i.e. the process of creating and understanding the collocation is not demanding. This finding supports again the statement gave by Bartsch – collocations are usually semantically transparent. Examples of transparent collocations are as follows: (24) *summer holiday*, (31) *football fan*, (52) *political system*, (60) *human body*, (65) *leisure time* or (78) *lifelong friends*. Among the collected samples, there is one collocation whose meaning is regarded as metaphoric - (43) *social ladder*. When hearing or reading the word *ladder*, it usually comes to their mind an image of a device made of wood or metal used to reach places up. Then, an idea of a ladder as steps to a higher (better) or lower (worse) position emerges.

9.4 L4 – Noun-verb collocation

This chapter focuses on collocations consisting of a noun and a verb denoting an action which is carried out by the noun. Each sample is analysed in terms of a type of restriction and semantic transparency.

Collocations produced by L2 learners that fell into this category were created correctly. However, it is necessary to state that all collocations in the category are well known among L2 learners. It follows that no errors were expected in production of those collocations.

Table 4: L4 Collocation

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
117. bell will ring	N + V	R	T
118. phone ringing	N + V	R	T
119. school started	N + V	U	T
120. sun is shining	N + V	U	T
121. birds are singing	N + V	U	T
122. wind blow	N + V	U	T

As follows from the Table 4, L4 collocations have rather transparent meaning. This finding stands even for other types of collocations, as already mentioned in Chapter 1.3.

The L4 collocations found in the learners' essays are rather unrestricted, i.e. one collocant can co-occur with other words (nouns or verbs). For instance, in the collocation (120) *sun is shining* the noun *sun* can collocate with other verbs such as *rise*, *set*, *sink*, *move*, *burn*, etc. and the verb *shine* can co-occur with other nouns

such as *hair, stars, moon, torch*, etc. In the following instances, both nouns *birds* and *school* collocate with other verbs and both verbs *start* and *sing* co-occurs with other nouns, too. However, there are two instances of a restricted collocation. Both instances consist of the verb *ring* that caused the strong restriction. The verb *ring* can collocate only with a few other nouns, for instance *(tele)phone, ears, laughter*. According to the BNC, the collocation *bell-ring* has 149 instances; the collocation *telephone-ring* has 48 instances. The other collocations have low number of occurrence.

The meanings of the collocations in Table 4 exactly correspond with the meanings of their Czech equivalents. For instance, the English collocation (120) *sun is shining* is equivalent to the Czech collocation *slunce svítí* and the collocations (117) *bell will ring* and (118) *phone ringing* corresponds precisely with the Czech equivalents *zazvoní zvonec* and *telefon zvoní*.

9.5 L5 – Noun-of-noun collocation

This chapter deals with noun-of-noun collocations. These collocations express a whole-member relationship. The first noun can fulfil a role of a quantifier that defines an exact amount of an uncountable noun denoting a whole. With each sample, a remark on a type of restriction and semantic transparency is added.

Collocations of the L5 type found in learners' essays were produced correctly. It is effective to learn those words with the particular quantifier as a whole expression.

Table 5: L5 Collocation

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
123. member of a family	N + N	U	T
124. piece of furniture	N + N	U	T
125. amount of money	N + N	U	T

The Table 5 states that noun-of-noun collocations produced by L2 learners are semantically transparent. Their meaning corresponds with the meaning of their Czech equivalents, for instance (123) *member of a family* (or *family member*) is translated as *člen rodiny* or (125) *amount of money* is equivalent to the Czech collocation *množství peněz*. Both English collocation *furniture* and its Czech equivalent *nábytek* belong to singularia tantum nouns that exist only in singular and are mostly uncountable. In English, as well as in Czech, one has to use a quantifier in order to express exact amount – cf. (124) *piece of furniture* and *kus nábytku*. However, in Czech, the speakers usually name particular pieces of furniture rather than use the expression *kus nábytku* (*piece of furniture*).

As for the restriction, all noun-of-noun collocations occurring in learners' essays are unrestricted. It means that the quantifiers or nouns denoting part of a whole can collocate with other nouns. For instance, the noun *member* (in *member of a family*) collocates with other nouns such as *staff*, *society*, etc.; the quantifier *piece* (in *piece of furniture*) co-occurs with nouns such as *paper*, *land*, *cake*, etc., and the quantifier *amount* (in *amount of money*) collocates with nouns such as *energy*, *effort*, *time*, etc.

9.6 L6 – Adverb-adjective collocation

In this chapter, collocations consisting of an adverb and an adjective are described. Adverbs function usually as intensifiers. They can strengthen or soften the meaning of a verb. Each sample collected in learners' essays is commented on as for semantic transparency and a type of restriction.

Table 6: L6 Collocation

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
126. perfectly balanced	ADV + ADJ	U	T
127. highly developed	ADV + ADJ	U	T
128. highly specialized	ADV + ADJ	U	T

From the Table 6 follows, that all adverb-adjective collocations produced by L2 learners possess an adverb that fulfils the function of an intensifier. The adverbs *perfectly* and *highly* strengthen the meaning of the adjectives *balanced*, *developed* and *specialized*.

As for the type of restriction, all samples are regarded as unrestricted. The adverbs can collocate with other adjectives, for instance the adverb *perfectly* co-occurs with adjectives such as *clear*, *acceptable*, etc., and the adverb *highly* collocates with adjectives such as *successful*, *skilled*, *effective*, etc. Furthermore, both adjectives can be modified by other intensifiers, for instance the adjective *developed* can co-occur with adverbs such as *strongly*, *fully*, etc., the adjective *specialized* collocates with adverbs such as *fairly*, *very*, etc., and the adjective *balanced* co-occurs with adverbs such as *completely*, *properly*, etc.

All gathered L6 collocations have a semantically transparent meaning. The English collocations introduced in the Table 6 have their Czech equivalents.

The meanings of Czech collocations exactly corresponds with the English ones – (126) *perfectly balanced* is equivalent to the Czech *naprosto vyrovnaný/klidný*, the collocation (127) *highly developed* corresponds with the Czech collocation *vysoce rozvinutý* and the collocation (128) *highly specialized* is equivalent to the Czech combination *vysoce specializovaný*.

L6 collocations are produced correctly by Czech L2 learners. However, it is necessary to realize that not all L6 collocations correspond with their Czech equivalent, i.e. they cannot be always translated word by word into English and vice versa; cf. different range of intensifiers with words *developed* and *specialized* (127) *highly (strongly, finely, well, fully) developed* vs. (128) *highly (very, fairly, quite, rather) specialized*.

9.7L7 – Verb-adverb collocation, Verb-adjective collocation

Verb-adverb collocations were not found in the corpus comprising samples from learners' essays. However, the learners produced verb-adjective collocations that are presented in this chapter. It follows that this chapter deals rather with verb-adjective collocations. With each sample, a type of restriction and semantic transparency is provided. There are no erroneously produced collocations among the collected verb-adjective collocations.

Table 7: L7 Collocation

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency
129. went bankrupt	V + ADJ	U	T
130. make (me) happy	V + ADJ	U	T
131. feel bad	V + ADJ	U	T

The table 7 shows that verb-adverb collocations produced by L2 learners are semantically transparent. Their meaning corresponds with the meaning of their Czech equivalents, for instance (130) *make (me) happy* is equivalent to the Czech *udělat šťastným*, or (131) *feel bad* is translated as *cítit se špatně*. In the collocation (129) *went bankrupt*, the main information is carried by the noun *bankrupt*. This collocation is translated into Czech as a verb *zbankrotovat*. The Czech collocation corresponding with this English collocation does not exist.

As for the restriction, all noun-of-noun collocations occurring in learners' essays are unrestricted. Both the verbs and the adjectives can co-occur with other collocants, for instance the collocation (130) *feel bad* where the verb *feel* collocates with adjectives such as *guilty*, *sorry*, *comfortable*, etc., and the adjective *bad* collocates with verbs such as *look*, *sound*, *turn*, etc.

CONCLUSION

The research based upon the examination of the corpus has revealed the following results:

The analysis of samples gathered from L2 learners' essays reveals that many mistakes are made due to a transfer from L1 (mother tongue) into L2 (English). The students often choose an easy way that is to translate collocations from their mother tongue into a foreign language. Unfortunately for them, not all Czech collocations could be literally translated; furthermore, not all English collocations have their equivalent in Czech. The instances of this type of mistakes are as follows: **make exam/udělat zkoušku*, **right question/správná otázka*, **family house/rodinný dům*. Other type of mistake results from the exchange of two words with very similar meanings. L2 learners are familiar with meanings of both words; however, they choose the incorrect one, for instance **acknowledge vs. admit guilt*, **higher vs. upper class*, **usual vs. ordinary/regular guy*. Sometimes, the error is made by the tricky choice between a modifying noun and an adjective since both can stand with a noun, for instance **music instrument*. The modifying noun can be used with other nouns such as *band* or *industry*. However, with the noun *instrument* only the adjective *musical* is correct. Other type of errors results from the close similarity of words used in a collocation, as in **manual work*. Both *work* and *job* are similar in their meanings, however, only the word *job* can create a collocation with an adjective *manual*. Some errors are made by carelessness or negligence, for instance **say a command/dát rozkaz*. The Czech collocation perfectly corresponds with the English equivalent *give a command*. There is no clear reason for this mistake.

The findings reveal that a majority of sampled collocations are produced correctly (159 collocations from the total amount of 200 samples). The samples collected from learners' essays often correspond with their Czech equivalents, for instance *correct a mistake/opravit chybu*, *answer a question/zodpovědět otázku*, *lucky number/šťastné číslo*, *school trip/školní výlet*, *sun is shining/slunce svítí*, *member*

of a family/člen rodiny, highly developed/vysoce rozvinutý, or feel bad/cítit se špatně. There are no incorrectly produced collocations in groups L2 (EN Verb-Noun collocations), L4 (Noun-Verb collocations), L5 (Noun-of-Noun collocations), L6 (Adverb-Adjective collocations) and L7 (Verb-Adverb and Verb-Adjective collocations).

Resumé

The presented diploma thesis is focused on the concept of collocations, i.e. recurrent combinations of words that are somehow fixed in minds of native speakers. Unlike native speakers, L2 learners often have to learn those combinations by heart since they do not exist in their mother tongues or they do not correspond with collocations with the same (or similar) meaning existing in their mother tongues. L2 learners often struggle when producing English collocations. The main aim of this thesis was to describe this interesting lexical phenomenon, and also types of mistakes made by L2 learners when producing English collocations. Furthermore, causes leading to error making are discussed.

The thesis is divided into two parts – theoretical and practical. In the theoretical part, an attempt to answer the questions presented in the introductory part is made, i.e. *What are collocations? What is the relationship between a collocation and an idiom? Which attitudes to the concept of collocations exist/existed?* The practical part deals with a corpus of 200 data gathered from Czech L2 learners of English attending secondary grammar schools. The samples of collocations are analysed in terms of a type of a restriction, semantic transparency and a part of speech. Special attention is paid to erroneously produced collocations. With those incorrectly produced collocations a cause that leads to mistake is commented on. In this part, questions mentioned in the Introduction are discussed, i.e. *What errors L2 learners make when producing English collocations? What is the cause that leads to error making?*

First, second and fourth chapter try to give an answer to the following question – *What are collocations?* It follows from various definitions that collocations are certain combinations of words that are settled in a language. A collocation is triggered automatically in a mind of a native speaker. Generally, following features of a collocation could be stated: One constituent of a collocation usually calls up another one. They are considered to be neutral as for primacy and dominance of components. They are usually semantically transparent. Collocations are usually unrestricted. They belong to the group of syntagmatic relations. However, it is necessary to add that not all linguists agree on all features mentioned above. There are many ways of classifying collocations. Some authors differentiate between strong, fixed (idioms) and weak collocations according to the range of possible collocants. Very similar distribution of collocations is presented by Cowie who distinguishes between free, restricted and overlapping collocations. Collocations can be divided according to parts of speech involved in a collocation, for instance verb-noun collocations (*answer a question*), noun-noun collocations (*amount of money*), adjective-noun collocation (*lower class*), etc. Other distribution suggested by Bahns and author of the BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English differentiates between grammatical (*e.g. dependent on*) and lexical collocations (*presidential candidate*). Allerton denotes intensifiers as constituents of a collocation (for instance *highly developed*).

Third chapter provides readers with an explanation of the difference between a collocation and an idiom. Collocations neighbour with idioms (or fixed expressions) on a scale ‘Free combinations – Collocations – Idioms’. It follows that these two groups are close to each other. There are differences and similarities between them. Both collocations and idioms are similar in terms of fixedness (i.e. two or more constituents of an idiom or a collocation appear together and none of constituents can be substituted). The difference is spot as for semantic transparency since constituents of a collocation comprise the meaning of a whole collocation, whereas meaning of an idiom is rather figurative.

Attitudes to the study of collocations are discussed in chapter 5. The classification of approaches is based on division made by Gitsaki and Martynska. The authors distinguish between three main approaches – lexical, semantic and structural. The former one is based on the presumption that lexical items are grammatically independent units and their meanings are influenced by co-occurring words. Semantic approach examines why words collocate only with particular words (e.g. *blonde hair* vs. **blonde car*). Structural approach includes grammar when examining collocations.

The Practical part tries to answer following questions: *What errors L2 learners make when producing English collocations? What is the cause that leads to error making?* that are answered in Conclusion part.

Strict conditions under which the material was collected could be considered as a limitation of this study. It was necessary to ensure that no information as for a type of a school, age or name of learners is revealed, i.e. all results are administered anonymously. Other thing is that the level of language in essays can show not only the level of English of a particular student, but also the quality of teaching process at a particular school. Not all teachers and school principals are willing to provide an examiner with their learners' essays, especially to a student at a university. Other limitation results from the demands on a student of a secondary grammar school. The learners are not used to writing longer essays with more than 150 words. The Czech school leaving exam in English comprises two tasks where students have to write essays – first essay should be long 60-70 words, second essays should content 120-150 words.

Future Research

The field of collocations produced by Czech learners in a foreign language is not sufficiently explored. It would be interesting to compare the process of error-making in terms of lexical vs. grammatical collocations since grammatical collocations could less correspond with their Czech equivalents. Another study

could map how collocations (both lexical and grammatical) are integrated in coursebooks used at Czech schools. Are they learnt actually? How? Furthermore, I would suggest carrying out a comparative study of error making process in English and German since they both belong to German languages and there could be some similarities as for both lexical and grammatical collocations. Furthermore, both English and German are often taught at primary and secondary schools.

SUMMARY

Předkládaná diplomová práce se zabývá kolokacemi, tj. opakovaně se vyskytujícími kombinacemi slov, které jsou zafixovány v jazyce. Na rozdíl od rodilých mluvčích, u kterých přichází tyto kombinace slov zcela automaticky, studenti cizího jazyka se musí kolokace často učit z paměti, protože většina z nich v jejich mateřštině neexistuje, popřípadě neodpovídá té které kolokaci vyskytující se v rodném jazyce. Studenti cizího jazyka, v tomto případě anglického, mají velmi často potíže nalézt správnou kombinaci slov, která je v daném cizím jazyce rodilými mluvčími přijata jako správná. Hlavním cílem této práce není pouze popis tohoto lexikálního jevu, ale také popis typu chyb, které čeští studenti anglického jazyka dělají, a příčin, které k chybovosti při tvoření kolokací vedou.

Práce je rozdělena do dvou částí – teoretické a praktické. Teoretická část se pokouší zodpovědět některé z otázek, které byly položeny v úvodu, tj. *Co jsou to kolokace? Jaký je vztah mezi kolokací a idiomem? Jaké přístupy ke studiu kolokací existují nebo existovaly?* Praktická část pracuje s korpusem 200 nasbíraných vzorků kolokací z esejí českých studentů anglického jazyka, kteří studují na gymnáziích. Vzorky jsou poté analyzovány a popsány vzhledem k jejich restrikcí, semantické transparentci a slovním druhům, které se v té které kolokaci vyskytují. Zvláštní pozornost je věnována chybně utvořeným kolokacím. U každé chybné kolokace se objevuje popis chyby a také úvaha o možné příčině, která vedla k tomu, že student kolokaci chybně vytvořil. V této části jsou také diskutovány následující otázky – *Jakých chyb se dopouští čeští studenti při vytváření anglických kolokací? Jaká je možná příčina způsobující tyto chyby?*

První otázka, tj. *Co jsou kolokace?* je zpracována v kapitolách 1, 2 a 4. Na základě různých definic vyplývá, že kolokací rozumíme určitou kombinaci slov, která je pevně zakořeněna v daném jazyce. Kolokace se automaticky objeví u rodilého mluvčího. Obecně lze popsat následující znaky kolokace: Jeden člen kolokace obvykle vyvolá druhý člen. Kolokace mohou být považovány za neutrální vzhledem k nadřazenosti a podřazenosti jednotlivých členů kolokace.

Obvykle jsou semanticky transparentní. Kolokace bývají nerestriktivní. Patří do skupiny syntagmatických vztahů. Nicméně, ne všichni lingvisté zabývající se kolokacemi souhlasí s výše zmíněnými vlastnostmi kolokací. Existuje také mnoho způsobů, jakými lze kolokace dělit. Někteří autoři rozlišují silné, zafixované (stálé) a slabé kolokace vzhled k rozsahu možných kolokantů, se kterými dané slovo tvoří kolokace. Velmi podobné rozdělení uvádí Cowie, který rozlišuje volné, restriktivní a překrývající se kolokace. Kolokace lze také rozdělit vzhledem ke slovním druhům obsaženým v kolokaci, například kolokace složené ze substantiva a slovesa, adjektiva a substantiva, adjektiva a příslovce, apod. Další dělení (podle BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English) rozlišuje gramatické a lexikální kolokace. Mezi kolokanty počítáme také slova, která výraz zesilují, tzv. intensifiers.

Třetí kapitola pojednává o rozdílu mezi kolokací a idiomem. Oba jevy se vyskytují na ose ‚volné kombinace slov – kolokace – idiomy‘ vedle sebe a proto mohou být tyto koncepty blízké. Nicméně, najdeme zde i rozdílné znaky. Kolokace a idiomy jsou si podobné v zafixovanosti jejich členů, tj. slova obsažená v kolokaci nebo idiomu nemohou být nahrazena jiným slovem. Pojmy jsou rozdílné v jejich semantické transparentci. Zatímco význam kolokace lze předpokládat z jednotlivých významů jejích složek, význam idiomu je často přenesený, idiomatický.

V páté kapitole jsou popsány přístupy ke studiu kolokací. Dělení přístupů vychází z klasifikace podle Gitsaki a Martinské. Autorky rozlišují tři hlavní přístupy – lexikální, který se zakládá na předpokladu, že slova jsou nezávislá na gramatice a jejich význam je utvářen spolu-vyskytujícími se slovy. Také semantický přístup je oproštěn od vlivu gramatiky. Tento přístup zkoumá, proč daná slova kolokují pouze s určitými slovy. Strukturální přístup zakládá své zkoumání na gramatice.

Praktická část se pokouší zodpovědět následující otázky – *Jakých chyb se čeští studenti anglického jazyka dopouští? Jaké jsou příčiny vedoucí k chybě?* Analýza vzorků nasbíraných z esejí českých studentů anglického jazyka ukázala, že mnoho

chyb je způsobeno transferem z mateřského jazyka do anglického. Studenti při tvoření anglických kolokací často volí nejjednodušší způsob, tj. doslovný překlad z mateřského do cizího jazyka. Bohužel pro ně, ne vždy české kolokace přesně odpovídají jejich anglickým ekvivalentům, např. **right question/správná otázka*. Studenti se dopouští chyb také na základě záměny dvou slov s velmi podobným významem, např. *acknowledge* vs. *admit guilt*. V některých případech je chyba způsobena velmi obtížnou volbou mezi substantivem a adjektivem odvozených od stejného kmene, přičemž obě se v kolokacích jako modifikátory vyskytují, př. **music instrument (musical instrument)* vs. *music band*. Další typ chyby je také způsoben podobností dvou slov, př. **manual work* vs. *manual job*. Slova *work* a *job* jsou si velmi podobná, nicméně s adjektivem *manual* lze použít pouze substantivum *job*. U některých chybných kolokací nelze přesně stanovit příčinu, která k chybě vedla, př. **say command*. Český ekvivalent *dát rozkaz* odpovídá doslovně anglickému *give a command*.

Zjištění také ukázala, že většina nasbíraných kolokací byla utvořena správně (159 kolokací z celkového počtu 200 vzorků). Nasbírané anglické kolokace často odpovídají jejich českým ekvivalentům, např. *correct a mistake/opravit chybu*. V některých skupinách kolokací se neobjevily žádné chybně utvořené kolokace, tj. ve skupinách L2 (EN Verb-Noun), L4 (Noun-Verb), L5 (Noun-of-Noun), L6(Adverb-Adjective) a L7 (Verb-Adverb, Verb-Adjective).

Problematika kolokací tvořených českými studenty v cizím jazyce není ještě zcela probádána. Zajímavé by bylo porovnat chybovost při tvoření lexikálních kolokací s chybovostí objevující se při tvoření gramatických kolokací. Další studie by mohla zmapovat zapracování kolokací (lexikálních i gramatických) v učebnicích anglického jazyka používaných na českých školách. Další přínosnou studií by mohlo být porovnání, jakých chyb se dopouští studenti anglického a německého jazyka, neboť oba jazyky patří do skupiny jazyků germánských.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Tables of Collocations gathered from the L2 learners' essays

Appendix 2 Comments on collected collocations

Following acronyms appear in the tables:

R – restricted

U – unrestricted

T – transparent

M – metaphoric

N – noun

ADJ – adjective

V – verb

ADV – adverb

APPENDIX 1

Collocation	Parts of speech	Type of restriction	Semantic transparency	Correct version
1. *high education	ADJ + N	U	T	higher education
2. *manual work	ADJ + N	U	T	manual job
3. *higher class	ADJ + N	U	T	upper class
4. *antique myth	ADJ + N	U	T	ancient myth
5. *society class	ADJ + N	U	T	social class
6. *moderate climate	ADJ + N	U	T	mild climate
7. *right question	ADJ + N	U	T	good question
8. *music instrument	ADJ + N	U	T	musical instrument
9. *race driver	N + N	U	T	racing driver
10. *back side	ADJ + N	R	T	reverse side
11. *family house	N + N	U	T	family home
12. *fair friend	ADJ + N	U	T	good friend
13. *opposite opinion	ADJ + N	U	T	different opinion
14. *president election	ADJ + N	U	T	presidential election
15. *deep freeze	ADJ + N	R	T	big freeze
16. *lifetime love	ADJ + N	U	T	eternal love
17. *normal people	ADJ + N	U	T	common people
18. *amazing result	ADJ + N	U	T	impressive result
19. *usual guy	ADJ + N	U	T	ordinary/regular guy
20. *big goal	ADJ + N	U	T	ambitious goals
21. *politician party	ADJ + N	U	T	political party
22. *economical situation	ADJ + N	U	T	economic situation
23. *proper investigation	ADJ + N	U	T	thorough investigation
24. summer holiday	N + N	U	T	
25. human being	ADJ + N	R	T	
26. farm animal	N + N	U	T	
27. football field	N + N	U	T	
28. positive attitude	ADJ + N	U	T	
29. dark side	ADJ + N	U	T	
30. dream holiday	N + N	U	T	
31. football fan	N + N	U	T	
32. football club	N + N	U	T	
33. young people	ADJ + N	U	T	
34. presidential candidate	ADJ + N	U	T	
35. long time	ADJ + N	U	T	
36. first round	ADJ + N	U	T	
37. final score	ADJ + N	U	T	
38. first time	ADJ + N	U	T	
39. good choice	ADJ + N	U	T	
40. sunny weather	ADJ + N	U	T	
41. capital city	N + N	R	T	
42. free time	ADJ + N	U	T	
43. social ladder	ADJ + N	U	M	
44. role model	N + N	R	T	
45. main character	ADJ + N	U	T	

46. lower class	ADJ + N	U	T
47. teaching method	ADJ + N	U	T
48. horse race	N + N	U	T
49. drug addiction	N + N	R	T
50. beautiful woman	ADJ + N	U	T
51. social injustice	ADJ + N	U	T
52. political system	ADJ + N	U	T
53. world war	N + N	U	T
54. real life	ADJ + N	U	T
55. train station	N + N	U	T
56. big advantage	ADJ + N	U	T
57. little brother	ADJ + N	U	T
58. good day	ADJ + N	U	T
59. real reason	ADJ + N	U	T
60. human body	ADJ + N	U	T
61. strong point	ADJ + N	U	T
62. favourite subject	ADJ + N	U	T
63. dream job	N + N	U	T
64. veterinary medicine	ADJ + N	U	T
65. leisure time	N + N	U	T
66. creative writing	ADJ + N	U	T
67. older brother	ADJ + N	U	T
68. foreign language	ADJ + N	U	T
69. production manager	N + N	U	T
70. language school	N + N	U	T
71. foreign countries	ADJ + N	U	T
72. detective story	N + N	U	T
73. big day	ADJ + N	U	T
74. football match	N + N	U	T
75. oral exam	ADJ + N	U	T
76. lucky number	ADJ + N	U	T
77. good mood	ADJ + N	U	T
78. lifelong friends	ADJ + N	U	T
79. leisure-time activity	N + N	U	T
80. school year	N + N	U	T
81. green hills	ADJ + N	U	T
82. school uniform	N + N	U	T
83. green fields	ADJ + N	U	T
84. financial crisis	ADJ + N	U	T
85. multinational corporation	ADJ + N	U	T
86. computer game	N + N	U	T
87. big city	ADJ + N	U	T
88. rural area	ADJ + N	U	T
89. urban area	ADJ + N	U	T
90. industrial area	ADJ + N	U	T
91. residential area	ADJ + N	U	T
92. major city	ADJ + N	U	T
93. business district	N + N	U	T
94. sports facilities	N + N	U	T
95. social issue	ADJ + N	U	T

96. domestic animal	ADJ + N	U	T	
97. art gallery	N + N	U	T	
98. short distance	ADJ + N	U	T	
99. entry fee	N+N	U	T	
100. recorded music	ADJ + N	U	T	
101. black-and-white photo	ADJ + N	U	T	
102. long hair	ADJ + N	U	T	
103. blond hair	ADJ + N	U	T	
104. big problem	ADJ + N	U	T	
105. happy ending	ADJ + N	U	T	
106. best friend	ADJ + N	U	T	
107. school trip	N + N	U	T	
108. final exam	ADJ + N	U	T	
109. living conditions	ADJ + N	U	T	
110. optimistic expectation	ADJ + N	U	T	
111. lifelong dreams	ADJ + N	U	T	
112. rapid pace	ADJ + N	U	T	
113. dangerous sports	ADJ + N	U	T	
114. curly hair	ADJ + N	U	T	
115. brilliant summary	ADJ + N	U	T	
116. public transportation	ADJ + N	U	T	
117. bell will ring	N + V	R	T	
118. phone ringing	N + V	R	T	
119. school started	N + V	U	T	
120. sun is shining	N + V	U	T	
121. birds are singing	N + V	U	T	
122. wind blow	N + V	U	T	
123. member of a family	N + N	U	T	
124. piece of furniture	N + N	U	T	
125. amount of money	N + N	U	T	
126. perfectly balanced	ADV + ADJ	U	T	
127. highly developed	ADV + ADJ	U	T	
128. highly specialized	ADV + ADJ	U	T	
129. went bankrupt	V + ADJ	U	T	
130. make (me) happy	V + ADJ	U	T	
131. feel bad	V + ADJ	U	T	
132. *make exam	V + N	U	T	pass exam
133. *reach progress	V + N	U	T	make/achieve progress
134. *visit a choir	V + N	R	T	sing/be in a choir
135. *set off for journey	V + N	U	T	go /set out on a journey
136. *visit concert	V + N	U	T	go to a concert
137. *make points	V + N	U	T	get points
138. *have mood	V + N	U	T	be in a mood
139. *knock a ball	V + N	U	T	hit a ball
140. *enter school	V+ N	U	T	start school
141. *study in school	V + N	U	T	attend school
142. *conclude a bet	V + N	U	T	take/make/put a bet
143. *say a command	V + N	U	T	give a command
144. *obtain power	V + N	U	T	come to power

145. *have a trip	V + N	U	T	make/take/go on a trip
146. *have a lucky	V + N	U	T	be lucky
147. *practice gymnastics	V + N	R	T	do gymnastics
148. *acknowledge guilt	V + N	R	T	admit guilt
149. *attend a course	V + N	U	T	take/do a course
150. get a job	V + N	U	T	
151. get education	V + N	U	T	
152. do sport	V + N	R	T	
153. improve skills	V + N	U	T	
154. join a club	V + N	U	T	
155. improve situation	V + N	U	T	
156. comb hair	V + N	U	T	
157. brush teeth	V + N	R	T	
158. provide service	V + N	U	T	
159. find work	V + N	U	T	
160. fall in love	V + N	U	M	
161. travel the world	V + N	U	T	
162. give advice	V + N	U	T	
163. play tennis	V + N	R	T	
164. hold referendum	V + N	U	T	
165. win a medal	V + N	U	T	
166. earn a living	V + N	U	T	
167. have options	V + N	U	T	
168. have talent	V + N	U	T	
169. take an exam	V + N	U	T	
170. do business	V + N	U	T	
171. watch a film	V + N	U	T	
172. get a message	V + N	U	T	
173. ride a bike	V + N	U	T	
174. have experiences	V + N	U	T	
175. earn money	V + N	U	T	
176. do exercise	V + N	U	T	
177. read a book	V + N	U	T	
178. listen music	V + N	U	T	
179. play a game	V + N	U	T	
180. do homework	V + N	U	T	
181. go to university	V + N	U	T	
182. take a photo	V + N	U	T	
183. ride a horse	V + N	U	T	
184. commit suicide	V + N	R	T	
185. win a bet	V + N	U	T	
186. gain a vote	V + N	U	T	
187. say goodbye	V + N	R/U	T	
188. spend time	V + N	U	T	
189. play the piano	V + N	U	T	
190. walk a dog	V + N	U	T	
191. keep an animal	V + N	U	T	
192. go shopping	V + N	R/U	T	
193. have reason	V + N	U	T	
194. cut hair	V + N	U	T	
195. broke heart	V + N	U	M	
196. correct mistake	V + N	U	T	

197. fulfil dreams	V + N	U	T
198. lost employment	V + N	U	T
199. answer a question	V + N	U	T
200. solve a problem	V + N	U	T

APPENDIX 2

1. *HIGH EDUCATION – ... *that high education is not about making the student a generally better human being anymore...*

The correct version suggested by dictionaries is HIGHER EDUCATION that has the most similar meaning to the proposed combination. Some dictionary represents this combination as an entry. This collocation is considered unrestricted since the adjective 'higher' collocates for instance with 'level, prices, standards, etc.' and the noun 'education' can co-occur with other adjectives such as 'excellent, poor, adult, university, etc.' The meaning of a collocation is fully semantically transparent.

2. *MANUAL WORK - ...*demand for simpler manual work is slowly moving away ...*

The dictionaries represent the collocation MANUAL JOB as the correct form of the collocation. This collocation is considered unrestricted as the adjective 'manual' collocates with other nouns such as 'labour, workers, skills' and the noun 'job' co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance 'full-time, routine, evening, etc.' The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

3. *HIGHER CLASS – '...*she is prepared to go among Mr. Higgins's relatives and friends from the higher class.*'

The dictionaries suggest the collocation UPPER CLASS as the correct one; however, some dictionaries introduce the collocation as an entry. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'class' co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance 'middle, working, educated, etc.' and the adjective 'upper' can collocate with nouns such as 'limit, house, lip, etc.'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

4. *ANTIQUÉ MYTH – 'According to an antique myth about one sculptor called Pygmalion...'

The dictionaries introduce the collocation ANCIENT MYTH as the correct one. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun 'myth' can collocate with other adjectives, for instance 'classical, religious, Greek, Norse, etc.' and the adjective 'antique' co-occurs with other nouns such as 'history, civilization, times, Greece, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically perfectly transparent.

5. *SOCIETY CLASSES – '...*thanks to this film you can imagine how society classes work, ...*'

The dictionaries suggest the collocation SOCIAL CLASS as the correct one having the most similar meaning to the proposed combination. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'class' co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance 'middle, working, educated, ruling, etc.' and

the adjective 'social' co-occurs with other noun such as 'order, classes, skills, life, animals, etc.'

The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

6. *MODERATE CLIMATE – *'The Czech republic has a moderate continental climate.'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation MILD CLIMATE as the correct one. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'climate' collocates with other adjectives, for instance 'warm, extreme, harsh, subtropical, etc.' and the adjective 'mild' collocates with nouns such as 'case, form, flavour, punishment, etc.'. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

7. *RIGHT QUESTION – *'The right question is: Are our schools well-equipped?'* (sic!)

According to the dictionaries used, the collocation GOOD QUESTION is the correct form of the proposed collocation. This collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'question' collocates with adjectives such as 'personal, difficult, hypothetical, etc.' and the adjective 'good' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance 'fun, idea, guess, advice, etc.'. The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

8. *MUSIC INSTRUMENT – *'...where wind music instruments are made.'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation MUSICAL INSTRUMENT; however, some dictionaries introduce this combination as an entry. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun 'instrument' collocates with other adjectives, for instance 'brass, string, classical, etc.' and the adjective 'musical' co-occurs with noun such as 'ability, talent, entertainment, etc.'. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

9. *RACE DRIVER – *'I admire the speed and the driving art of some race drivers.'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation RACING DRIVER as the correct version. The collocation is considered unrestricted since both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun 'driver' collocates with adjectives such as 'bus, rally, taxi, lorry, etc.' and the attributively used noun 'racing' collocates with nouns such as 'team, star, season, debut, etc.'. The collocation has a semantically restricted meaning.

10. *BACK SIDE – *'I choosed (sic!) one stone, where was in back side number of list with questions.'*

The dictionaries suggests the collocation REVERSE SIDE. The collocation is considered to be restricted since the adjective 'reverse' collocates only with few nouns such as 'order, process, etc.'. The noun 'side' (in this sense) co-occurs with an adjective 'flip' etc. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

11. *FAMILY HOUSE – *'We have big family house here sharing it with my grandparents.'*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation FAMILY HOME with the similar meaning. This collocation is unrestricted as the noun *'home'* collocates with other adjectives and attributively used noun such as *'childhood, parental, temporary, seaside, etc.'* and the noun *'family'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'background, history, relationships, life, member, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

12. *FAIR FRIEND – *'I hope that I'm a fair friend.'*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation GOOD FRIEND that has the most similar meaning to the proposed combination. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun *'friend'* can collocate with adjectives such as *'best, close, loyal, lifelong, family, etc.'* and the adjective *'good'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'news, luck, fun, idea, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

13. *OPPOSITE OPINION – *'My boyfriend have (sic!) opposite opinion.'*

The dictionaries propose the collocation DIFFERENT OPINION as the correct one that has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. This is an unrestricted collocation since the noun *'opinion'* collocates with adjectives such as *'high, strong, personal, etc.'* and the adjective *'different'* co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'world, ways, types/kinds, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

14. *PRESIDENT ELECTION – *'When I was in the United States of America president election took place.'*

The dictionaries suggest the correct form – PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION. This collocation represents a type of an unrestricted collocation since the noun *'election'* can collocate with adjectives such as *'free, democratic, local, direct, etc.'* The adjective *'presidential'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'election, campaign, power, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

15. *DEEP FREEZE – *'...but there are things you really can't avoid (icy veins, frost barrier, deep freeze, counter spell, ...)'*

The combination appears as an entry in all dictionaries used; however, the meaning is different²² from the meaning the learner wants to say. The dictionaries suggest the collocation BIG FREEZE as the correct one. The collocation is restricted since the noun *'freeze'* collocates only with the adjective *'big'*. The collocation is semantically transparent.

²² a container, operated by electricity, which stores food at a very cold temperature so that it becomes solid and can be kept safely for a long time (CALD)

16. *LIFETIME LOVE – *'I have 2 foxhounds and they are my lifetime loves.'*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation ETERNAL LOVE as the correct one and the most similar one to the proposed combination. The collocation is unrestricted since both collocants co-occur with other words. The noun *'love'* collocates with adjectives such as *'deep, hopeless, maternal, etc.'* and the adjective *'eternal'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'optimist, life, god, etc.'*. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

17. *NORMAL PEOPLE – *'I would say that it's not good for normal people...'*

The dictionaries regard the collocation COMMON PEOPLE as the correct version. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'people'* collocates with adjectives such as *'(very) important, famous, homeless, etc.'* and the adjective *'common'* collocates with nouns such as *'knowledge, man, good, etc.'*. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

18. *AMAZING RESULT – *'I think this amazing result caused Karl von Schwarzenberg.'*

The dictionaries mention the collocation IMPRESSIVE RESULT as the correct one. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun *'result'* collocates with adjectives such as *'dramatic, disastrous, surprising, etc.'* and the adjective *'impressive'* collocates with nouns such as *'record, performance, victory, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

19. *USUAL GUY – *'...his colleagues and girlfriend know him as a usual guy, ...'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation ORDINARY (or REGULAR) GUY as the correct one. The collocation is unrestricted as the noun *'guy'* collocates with adjectives such as *'bad, nice, funny, etc.'* and the adjective *'ordinary'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'people, life, man, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

20. *BIG GOALS – *'young people give themselves big goals.'*

According to the dictionaries used, the collocation AMBITIOUS GOALS is regarded as the correct one. It is an unrestricted collocation as the noun *'goal'* collocates with adjectives such as *'short-term, unrealistic, personal, etc.'* and the adjective *'ambitious'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'plans, programme, man, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

21. *POLITICIAN PARTIES – *'It means for example politician parties or departments.'*

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation POLITICAL PARTY as the correct one. It is an unrestricted collocation as the noun *'party'* collocates with adjectives or attributive nouns such as *'ruling, opposition, etc.'* and the adjective *'political'* can co-occur with other nouns such as *'prisoner, animal, agenda, etc.'*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

22. *ECONOMICAL SITUATION – *‘...and maybe bring experience for upturn our economical situation.’*

The dictionaries used introduce the collocation ECONOMIC SITUATION as the correct version. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *‘situation’* collocates with other adjectives, for instance *‘financial, political, social, etc.’* and the adjective *‘economic’* co-occurs with nouns such as *‘growth, development, reform, etc.’* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

23. *PROPER INVESTIGATION – *‘In spite of the proper investigation the whole case still remains a puzzle.’*

The dictionaries suggest correct versions THOROUGH INVESTIGATION. Both collocations are unrestricted as the noun *‘investigation’* collocates with other adjectives, for instance *‘detailed, criminal, scientific, etc.’* The adjective *‘thorough’* co-occurs with nouns such as *‘understanding, knowledge, examination, etc.’* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent. One collocant usually does not trigger the other one.

24. SUMMER HOLIDAY – *‘However I would rather choose summer because of summer holidays.’*

This collocation is unrestricted since both constituents (nouns) of the collocation can co-occur with broader range of words. The noun *‘summer’* collocates with *‘temperature, weather, rain, course, school, vacation etc.’*, the noun *‘holiday’* co-occurs with other attributive nouns or adjectives such as *‘overseas, winter, family, adventure, camping, dream, etc.’* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

25. HUMAN BEING - ... *making the student a generally better human being anymore...*

The collocation can be regarded as restricted as the noun *‘being’* appears in the dictionary only with a collocant *‘human’*, however, the adjective *‘human’* can collocate with other nouns such as *‘body, brain, spirit, eye, behaviour, life, etc.’*. This collocation is semantically transparent.

26. FARM ANIMALS – *‘For example farm animals. People have animals because animals are sources of meat, milk, wool.’*

Both constituents can co-occur with a wide range of other words, i.e. this collocation represents a type of an unrestricted collocation. The noun *‘farm’* as an attribute collocates with *‘product, owner, building, etc.’*; the noun *‘animal’* co-occurs with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as *‘cold blooded, dangerous, exotic, extinct, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

27. FOOTBALL FIELD – *‘There is no football field or field for another sports...’*

Both constituents can co-occur with other words, i.e. this collocation is unrestricted. The noun *‘field’* collocates with adjectives and attributively used noun such as *‘playing, sports, rugby, etc.’*

and the attributive noun *'football'* co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'club, league, fan, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

28. POSITIVE ATTITUDE – *'I personally have a very positive attitude to it...'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun *'attitude'* can co-occur with other adjectives, for instance *'friendly, responsible, aggressive, etc.'* and the adjective *'positive'* collocates with other nouns such as *'effect, outcome, experience, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is fully semantically transparent.

29. DARK SIDE – *'...in spite of its dark sides such as wars for religion or too enormous power.'*

This collocation represents a type of an unrestricted collocation since the noun *'side'* (in the meaning of a quality of something) collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'positive, feminine, financial, etc.'* and the adjective *'dark'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'eyes, hair, colour, sky, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

30. DREAM HOLIDAY – *'...my dream holiday would be endless.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'dream'* collocates with *'home, house, world etc.'*, the noun *'holiday'* co-occurs with other attributive nouns or adjectives such as *'overseas, winter, family, adventure, camping, dream, etc.'* The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

31. FOOTBALL FAN – *'As a huge football fan I would choose Liverpool...'*

Both constituents can co-occur with other words, i.e. this collocation is unrestricted. The noun *'fan'* collocates with adjectives and attributively used noun such as *'music, rugby, loyal, etc.'* and the attributive noun *'football'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'club, league, player, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

32. FOOTBALL CLUB – *'...especially the part around Liverpool football club stadium.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both constituents can collocate with other words. The noun *'club'* collocates with adjectives and attributively used noun such as *'golf, chess, movie, etc.'* and the attributive noun *'football'* can collocate with other nouns such as *'league, player, fan, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

33. YOUNG PEOPLE – *'Fail of young people presidential candidate?'*

The collocation is unrestricted. Both the adjective and the noun can co-occur with other words. The adjective *'young'* collocates with *'man, children, mother, couple, etc.'* and the noun *'people'* can co-occur with adjectives such as *'elderly, common, famous, homeless, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

34. PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE – *'Fail of young people presidential candidate?'*

This collocation represents a type of an unrestricted collocation since the noun 'candidate' can collocate with adjectives such as *'ideal, ministerial, parliamentary, etc.'* The adjective 'presidential' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'election, campaign, power, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

35. LONG TIME – *'It is not so long time ago...'*

It is an unrestricted collocation. Both constituents can collocate with a wider range of other collocants. The noun 'time' (in this sense) co-occurs with adjectives such as *'considerable, short, reasonable, etc.'* and the adjective 'long' can collocate with noun such as *'hair, way, history etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

36. FIRST ROUND – *'To remember there were nine candidates in the first round.'*

This collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'round' can co-occur with adjectives such as *'opening, final, qualifying, etc.'* and the adjective 'first' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'time, step, division, edition, prize, etc.'* The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

37. FINAL SCORE – *'The final score was 55% for Mr. Zeman against 45% for Mr. Schwarzenberg.'*

It is regarded as an unrestricted collocation since both constituents collocate with other words. The noun 'score' can co-occur with adjectives such as *'excellent, high, total, poor, etc.'* and the adjective 'final' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'minutes, whistle, decision, answer, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

38. FIRST TIME – *'On Monday afternoon I first time met his mother.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'time' can co-occur with adjectives such as *'considerable, short, reasonable, precious, etc.'* and the adjective 'first' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'step, division, edition, prize, etc.'* The meaning of this collocation is fully semantically transparent.

39. GOOD CHOICE – *'...it was a good choice.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the both components of the collocation can co-occur with other collocants. The noun 'choice' collocates with adjectives such as *'careful, right, wise, difficult, moral, etc.'* and the adjective 'good' can co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'luck, news, fun, idea, time, advice, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

40. SUNNY WEATHER – *'I really liked the trip to Piran – amazing architecture, ...and sunny weather.'*

This collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun *'weather'* collocates with a wide range of other adjectives, for instance *'beautiful, miserable, unpredictable, etc.'* However, the range of nouns collocating with the adjective *'sunny'* is smaller - *'spells, day, morning, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

41. CAPITAL CITY – *'Very interesting was also the trip to capital city Ljubljana.'*

This collocation is regarded as restricted since the adjective *'capital'* does not collocate with many other nouns; possible collocants of the adjective are: *'letter, offence, idea'*. The word *'capital'* itself can carry the same meaning as the whole collocation. However, the noun *'city'* co-occurs with other adjectives (wider range) such as *'major, historic, industrial, coastal, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

42. FREE TIME – *'When we had some free time there, we were walking around the city and ...'*

The collocation represents a type of an unrestricted collocation since both constituents can collocate with other words. The noun *'time'* can co-occur with adjectives such as *'considerable, reasonable, precious, etc.'* and the adjective *'free'* appears together with *'gift, speech, election, access, movement, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

43. SOCIAL LADDER – *'...you couldn't get higher on the social ladder...'*

This collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'ladder'* (in this sense) can collocate with other adjectives, for instance *'evolutionary, career, corporate, etc.'* and the adjective *'social'* co-occurs with other noun such as *'order, classes, skills, life, animals, etc.'* The meaning of this collocation is semantically transparent.

44. ROLE MODEL – *'...and thus she was (and still can be) a role model for many people ...'*

The collocation is restricted since the noun *'role'* used attributively can collocate only with the nouns *'model'* and *'reversal'*. However, the noun *'model'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'fashion, top, female, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

45. MAIN CHARACTER – *'I would like to focus on the main character Eliza Doolittle, ...'*

The collocation is unrestricted as the both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun *'character'* can co-occur with adjectives such as *'leading, supporting, comic, etc.'* and the adjective *'main'* collocates for instance with *'road, reason, problem, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is perfectly semantically transparent.

46. LOWER CLASS – ‘...*cockney English which is the dialect of lower class living in East London.*’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘*class*’ collocates with other adjectives, for instance ‘*middle, working, educated, social, privileged* etc.’ and the adjective ‘*lower*’ can co-occur with nouns such as ‘*level, rate, prices, costs, lip,* etc.’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

47. TEACHING METHODS – ‘...*that Elisa will be able to speak proper English thanks to his teaching methods...*’

The collocation is considered unrestricted as the noun ‘*method*’ collocates with other attributively used nouns or adjectives, for instance ‘*working, research, farming, scientific, etc.*’ and the attributive noun ‘*teaching*’ collocates for instance with ‘*style, material, objective, skills,* etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

48. HORSE RACE – ‘*During the horse race they have a conversation about the weather.*’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both constituents can co-occur with other collocants. The noun ‘*race*’ collocates with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as ‘*big, long-distance, road, motorbike,* etc.’ and the attributive noun ‘*horse*’ collocates with other nouns, for instance ‘*rider, trainer, riding, lover,* etc. The meaning of the collocation is semantically fully transparent.

49. DRUG ADDICTION – ‘*The plot revolves around drug addiction and young people.*’

The collocation is regarded as rather restricted since there not wide range of other possible collocants. The noun ‘*addiction*’ can co-occur with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as ‘*alcohol, cocaine,* etc.’ and the attributive noun collocates for instance with ‘*baron, cartel, misuse,* etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

50. BEAUTIFUL WOMAN – ‘...*Pygmalion who cut out a beautiful woman from a bone.*’

The collocation is considered to be unrestricted since both constituents collocate with a wide range of other possible collocants. The noun ‘*woman*’ can co-occur with other adjectives, for instance ‘*young, married, attractive, hysterical,* etc.’ and the adjective ‘*beautiful*’ collocates with nouns such as ‘*scenery, flower, hair, weather,* etc.’. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

51. SOCIAL INJUSTICE – ‘*His work is marked by lucid prose, awareness of social injustice, ...*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both constituents can co-occur with other words. The noun ‘*injustice*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*cruel, gross, racial,* etc.’ and the adjective

'social' can co-occur with other noun such as 'order, classes, skills, life, animals, etc.' The collocation is semantically transparent.

52. POLITICAL SYSTEM – *'The Animal Farm is showing a political system...'*

The collocation is considered to be unrestricted as the noun 'system' collocates with other adjectives, for instance 'economic, educational, health, legal, etc.' and the adjective 'political' can co-occur with other nouns such as 'prisoner, animal, agenda, party, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

53. WORLD WAR – *'...which was in the second world war in Russia.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun 'war' collocates with other adjectives or attributively used nouns such as 'civil, global, atomic, economic, nuclear, etc.' and the attributive noun 'world' can co-occur with other nouns, for instance 'champion, leader, authority, record, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

54. REAL LIFE – *'...it was good to look same differences between animal and human and real life which was.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both constituents can collocate with other words. The noun 'life' collocates with adjectives such as 'personal, family, social, public, city, etc.' and the adjective 'real' can co-occur with other nouns, for instance 'thing, reason, world, etc.'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

55. TRAIN STATION – *'The story is set in a train station in a small village after Second World War.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun 'station' collocates with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as 'railway, subway, underground, next, etc.' and the noun 'train' co-occurs with other noun, for instance 'journey, timetable, fare, driver, crash, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

56. BIG ADVANTAGE – *'A big advantage is that the book is in two languages.'*

The collocation is considered to be unrestricted since the noun 'advantage' collocates with other adjectives, for instance 'considerable, great, obvious, significant, etc.' and the adjective 'big' can co-occur with nouns such as 'day, difference, problem, mistake, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

57. LITTLE BROTHER – *'I live there with my parents and my little brother.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun 'brother' collocates with other adjectives such as *'big, younger, twin, half- etc.'* and the adjective 'little' can co-occur with nouns such as *'while, boy, girl, sister, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

58. GOOD DAY – *'...when he has a good day he is my own teddy bear, which I can snuggle with.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since both constituents can collocate with a wide range of other words. The noun 'day' co-occurs with adjectives such as *'happy, wonderful, bad, fun, etc.'* and the adjective 'good' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'news, luck, fun, idea, guess, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

59. REAL REASON – *'There is no real reason to like this subject.'*

This collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'reason' collocates with adjectives such as *'main, wrong, particular, understandable, etc.'* and the adjective 'real' can co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'thing, life, world, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

60. HUMAN BODY – *'..., in biology I like when we are learning about human body...'*

This collocation appears in all dictionaries used. It is a type of an unrestricted collocation since the noun 'body' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'whole, upper, lower, healthy'* and the adjective 'human' co-occurs with nouns such as *'brain, spirit, eye, behaviour, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

61. STRONG POINT – *'...because it is more pleasant for me talking about my strong point than about my weaknesses.'* (sic!)

This collocation is mentioned in all dictionaries; however, all dictionaries introduce the plural form, i.e. STRONG POINTS. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted collocation. The noun 'point(s)' collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'good, weak, salient, etc.'* and the adjective 'strong' co-occurs with nouns such as *'support, sense of, opposition, desire, influence, relationship, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

62. FAVOURITE SUBJECT – *'My favourite subjects are social science, history ...'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted since both constituents can collocate with other words. The noun 'subject' collocates with adjectives such as *'difficult, compulsory, additional, special, arts, etc.'* and the adjective 'favourite' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'meal, author, song, programme, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

63. DREAM JOB – *'My dream job is vet, because I like animals so much...'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *'job'* co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance *'paid, full-time, routine, dream, evening, etc.'* and the attributively used noun *'dream'* collocates with *'home, house, world etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

64. VETERINARY MEDICINE – *'I would like study at Faculty of Veterinary Medicine in Brno, ...'*

The collocation is unrestricted since both constituents can co-occur with other words. The noun *'medicine'* collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'traditional, homeopathic, forensic, etc.'* and the adjective *'veterinary'* co-occurs with noun such as *'science, surgeon, practice, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

65. LEISURE TIME – *'In my leisure time I do the fitness exercises or I play he floorball'*

This is an unrestricted collocation. The noun *'time'* collocates (in this sense) with other nouns such as *'free, travel, waiting, precious, etc.'* and the attributively used noun *'leisure'* can co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'activity, facilities, industry, interests, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

66. CREATIVE WRITING – *'I go to creative writing.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun *'writing'* can collocate with other adjectives, for instance *'imaginative, critical, scientific, travel, etc.'* and the adjective *'creative'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'process, work, solution, thinking, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

67. OLDER BROTHER – *'I live there with my parents and my older brother, ...'*

This collocation is unrestricted. The noun *'brother'* collocates with other adjectives such as *'big, younger, twin, half- etc.'* and the adjective *'older'* can co-occur with nouns such as *'people, generation, sister, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

68. FOREIGN LANGUAGES – *'I think foreign languages are very important to my future life.'*

This is an unrestricted collocation as both constituents can co-occur with other words. The noun *'language'* collocates with adjectives such as *'first, native, dead, official, etc.'* and the adjective *'foreign'* can co-occur with other noun such as *'policy, aid, affairs, trade, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

69. PRODUCTION MANAGER – ‘...and he works as production manager in German company.’

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun ‘*manager*’ can collocate with other adjectives or attributive nouns such as ‘*assistant, general, business, advertising, etc.*’ and the noun ‘*production*’ co-occurs with other nouns, for instance ‘*methods, process, team, costs, level, etc.*’ The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

70. LANGUAGE SCHOOL – ‘*I would like to work in language school in foreign countries...*’

The collocation is unrestricted since both constituents can collocate with other words. The noun ‘*school*’ collocates with adjectives and nouns such as ‘*Sunday, summer, dance, special, etc.*’ and the attributively used noun ‘*language*’ can co-occur with other nouns, for instance ‘*acquisition, learning, course, lesson, barrier, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

71. FOREIGN COUNTRIES – ‘*I would like to work in language school in foreign countries...*’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun ‘*country*’ can collocate with other adjectives such as ‘*tropical, overseas, neighbouring, developed, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*foreign*’ can co-occur with other noun such as ‘*policy, aid, affairs, trade, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically fully transparent.

72. DETECTIVE STORY – ‘*I can detective and criminal stories, autobiography, travel books, ...*’

The collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun ‘*story*’ collocates with other adjectives or attributively used nouns, for instance ‘*ghost, love, bedtime, short, etc.*’ and the noun ‘*story*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*novel, fiction, writer, agency, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

73. BIG DAY – ‘*It is here! My big day!*’

The collocation is unrestricted since both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun ‘*day*’ collocates with noun such as ‘*historic, memorable, special, wedding, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*big*’ can co-occur with nouns such as ‘*day, difference, problem, mistake, etc.*’. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

74. FOOTBALL MATCH – ‘*A few days ago I was due to play in the football final match.*’

Both constituents can co-occur with other words, i.e. this collocation is unrestricted as the noun ‘*match*’ collocates with adjectives and attributively used noun such as ‘*championship, rugby, cricket, wrestling, league, etc.*’. and the attributive noun ‘*football*’ co-occur with other nouns, for instance ‘*club, league, player, shorts, fan, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

75. ORAL EXAM – *'Oral exams are not my strong point, but really big weakness.'*

The collocation is unrestricted. The noun 'exam' collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'written, practical, final, etc.'* and the adjective 'oral' collocates with nouns such as *'history, tradition, etc.'*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

76. LUCKY NUMBER – *'Nevertheless not my lucky number.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun 'number' collocates with other adjectives such as *'unlucky, random, winning, etc.'* and the adjective 'lucky' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'escape, guess, winner, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

77. GOOD MOOD – *'I had really good mood this day.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'mood' can collocate with other adjectives, for instance *'cheerful, happy, bad, gloomy, etc.'* and the adjective 'good' co-occurs with nouns such as *'fun, idea, guess, time, advice, luck, etc.'* The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

78. LIFELONG FRIENDS – *'I like to remember it with my lifelong friends.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both collocants co-occur with other words. The noun 'friend' can collocate with adjectives such as *'best, close, loyal, lifelong, family, etc.'* and the adjective 'lifelong' collocates with other nouns, for instance *'ambition, interest, love, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

79. LEISURE-TIME ACTIVITY – *'...it has become my favourite leisure time activity since.'*

This is an unrestricted collocation. The noun 'activity' collocates with other nouns such as *'outdoor, recreational, intellectual, physical etc.'* and the attributively used noun 'leisure' can co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'facilities, industry, interests, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

80. SCHOOL YEAR – *'...we have to read during the school year...'*

This collocation is unrestricted since both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun 'year' collocates with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as *'academic, calendar, financial, etc.'* and the attributive noun 'school' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'student, teacher, building, library, bus, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

81. GREEN HILLS – *'You do not have to go to New Zealand to see green hills and blue lakes.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'hill' collocates with adjectives such as *'steep, rolling, bare, etc.'* and the adjective 'green' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'fields, Party, eyes, leaves, etc.'* The collocation has a metaphoric meaning.

82. SCHOOL UNIFORMS – ‘...it was normal that students was wearing schoul uniforms.’
(sic!)

The collocation is considered unrestricted as both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun ‘*school*’ collocates with adjectives and attributive noun such as ‘*prison, naval, army, traditional, etc.*’ and the attributively used noun ‘*school*’ collocates with other nouns, for instance ‘*student, teacher, building, library, bus, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

83. GREEN FIELDS – ‘*There are only green fields, some old beautiful houses and the Atlantic Ocean.*’

This collocation is an unrestricted collocation since the noun ‘*field*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*cultivated, ploughed, corn, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*green*’ co-occurs with other nouns, for instance ‘*hill, Party, eyes, leaves, etc.*’ The collocation has a metaphoric meaning.

84. FINANCIAL CRISIS – ‘*I have chosen three the most interesting fact for me respectively Global Financial Crisis, ...*’

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted collocation since the word ‘*crisis*’ collocates with other adjectives, for instance ‘*political, energy, oil, personal, international, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*financial*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*success, adviser, centres, viable, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

85. MULTINATIONAL CORPORATION – ‘...we can work from a small private firm up to a big multinational corporation.’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘*corporation*’ collocates with nouns such as ‘*giant, powerful, foreign, industrial, etc.*’ However, the adjective ‘*multinational*’ collocates only with few other nouns, for instance ‘*companies, force, banks, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

86. COMPUTER GAME – ‘*In computer programmes and games, at international meetings, ...*’

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun ‘*game*’ collocates with other adjectives and attributive noun, for instance ‘*ball, board, video, party, etc.*’ and the attributive noun ‘*computer*’ co-occurs with noun such as ‘*screen, systems, technology, network, etc.*’ The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

87. BIG CITY – ‘... and live in big, noisy cities.’

The collocation is considered unrestricted since both collocants collocates with other words. The noun ‘*city*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*major, small, industrial, old, etc.*’ and the adjective

'big' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance 'such as *day, difference, problem, mistake, etc.*'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

88. RURAL AREA – *'This movement from rural areas to urban areas has been going on...'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'area' collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'urban, industrial, coastal, residential, ...'* and the adjective 'rural' co-occurs with nouns such as *'development, population, district, etc.'* (the range is smaller). The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

89. URBAN AREA – *'This movement from rural areas to urban areas has been going on...'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun 'area' collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'rural, industrial, coastal, residential, ...'* and the adjective 'urban' co-occurs with nouns such as *'renewal, regeneration, sprawl, , etc.'* (the range is smaller). The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

90. INDUSTRIAL AREA – *'...people come to find work, and soon an industrial area begins to grow.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun 'area' collocates with adjectives such as *'rural, urban, coastal, etc.'* and the adjective 'industrial' co-occurs with noun such as *'use, society, nations, quantities, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

91. RESIDENTIAL AREA – *'There is usually a residential area nearby, ...'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted as the noun 'area' co-occurs with adjectives such as *'rural, coastal, urban, industrial, etc.'* and the adjective 'residential' collocates with other noun, for instance *'care, home, accommodation, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

92. MAJOR CITY – *'In every major city in the world, there is a business district, ...'*

This is an unrestricted collocation. The noun 'city' collocates with adjectives such as *'major, small, industrial, old, etc.* and the adjective 'major' co-occurs with other nouns (smaller range), for instance *'such as source, surgery, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

93. BUSINESS DISTRICT – *'In every major city in the world, there is a business district, ...'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both collocant co-occur with other words. The noun 'district' co-occurs with adjectives and nouns such as *'financial, mining, agricultural, mining, health, etc.'* and the attributively used noun 'business' collocates with other nouns, for

instance *'transaction, meeting, plan, partner, etc.'*. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

94. SPORT FACILITIES – *'There are more sport facilities like gyms, fitness centres...'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'facility'* collocates with other adjectives or attributively used nouns, for instance *'private, leisure, shopping, banking, etc.'* and the adjective *'sports'* collocates with nouns such as *'car, centre, club, equipment, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

95. SOCIAL ISSUES – *'The disadvantages of living in the city are pollution made by industry and cars, then noise, rubbish and social issues like crime or vandalism.'*

The collocation is an unrestricted collocation since the noun *'issue'* collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'political, health, ethical, environmental, etc.'* and the adjective *'social'* collocates with nouns such as *'order, skills, life, animals, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

96. DOMESTIC ANIMALS – *'In a typical Czech village we can also find various domestic animals...'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *'animal'* collocates with adjectives such as *'dangerous, cold-blooded, wild, farm, etc.'* and the adjective *'domestic'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'policy, affairs, life, pets, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

97. ART GALLERY – *'We can find there a cinema, museum, mining outdoor museum, art gallery.'*

The collocation is an unrestricted collocation. The noun *'gallery'* collocates with adjectives and attributive nouns such as *'public, portrait, picture, etc.'* and the noun *'art'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'critic, lover, work, school, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

98. SHORT DISTANCES – *'...and often become lazy due to public means of transport and short distances.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted since the both collocants can co-occur with other words. The noun *'distance'* collocates with adjectives such as *'given, minimum, safe, large, etc.'* and the adjective *'short'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'time, while, period, memory, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

99. ENTRY FEE – *'The town would profit from the entry fee...'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'fee' collocates with other adjectives and attributively used nouns such as *'high, fixed, admission, membership, etc.'*, the noun 'entry' collocates with nouns such as *'coupon, form, requirements, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

100. RECORDED MUSIC – *'...I would say that although (sic!) recorded music is cheaper and more convenient...'*

The collocation is an unrestricted collocation since the noun 'music' collocates with other adjectives such as *'live, taped, instrumental, symphonic, etc.'* and the adjective 'recorded' co-occurs with other nouns (narrower) range of other collocants), for instance *'crime, delivery, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

101. BLACK-AND-WHITE PHOTO – *'The black-and-white photo clearly showed a creature with a long neck and small head, ...'*

This collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'photo' collocates with other adjectives such as *'old, colour, family, wedding, etc.'* and the adjective 'black-and-white' co-occurs with other nouns such as *'images, television, film, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

102. LONG HAIR – *'Wind blew to my long curly hair and I was happy.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun 'hair' collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'cropped, shoulder-length, short, etc.'* and the adjective 'long' collocates with nouns such as *'legs, way, history, memory, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

103. BLOND HAIR – *'He was nine years old and he had blond hair.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the adjective blonde co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'woman, girl, curls, etc.'* Nevertheless, the noun 'hair' collocates with adjectives such as *'chestnut, ginger, sandy,, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically restricted.

104. BIG PROBLEM – *'We have a problem. Big problem.'*

This collocation is unrestricted since both constituents can co-occurs with other words. The noun 'problem' collocates with adjectives such as *'serious, petty, knotty, difficult, etc.'* and the adjective 'big' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'day, difference, mistake, moment, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

105. HAPPY ENDING – *'I has happy ending.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'ending'* collocates with other adjectives, for instance *'sad, tragic, fairy- tale, etc.'* and the adjective *'happy'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'event, position, coincidence, etc.'* The meaning is semantically transparent.

106. BEST FRIEND – *'He's my best friend.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun *'friend'* co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance *'special, good, dear, lifelong, etc.'* and the adjective collocates with nouns (smaller range) such as *'interests, wishes, luck, way, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

107. SCHOOL TRIP – *'Tomorrow we will have school trip.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since both collocants co-occur with other words. The noun *'trip'* collocates with adjectives or attributively used nouns such as *'boat, business, overseas, world, etc.'* and the noun *'trip'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'building, library, year, bus, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

108. FINAL EXAMS – *'They make the final exam, end their studies on secondary school and what then?'*

The collocation is unrestricted since both collocants co-occurs with other words. The noun *'exam'* collocates with adjectives such as *'written, entrance, school, etc.'* and the adjective *'final'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'stages, minutes, whistle, answer, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

109. LIVING CONDITIONS – *'However, the hopes for better living conditions abroad are quite naive.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *'condition'* collocates (in this sense) with other adjectives, for instance *'housing, working, driving, etc.'* and the adjective *'living'* collocates with other nouns such as *'things, language, standards, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

110. OPTIMISTIC EXPECTATIONS – *'Experts say that people have too optimistic expectations about other countries.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'expectation'* collocates with adjectives such as *'positive, naive, high, unreasonable, etc.'* and the adjective *'optimistic'* can co-occur with nouns such as *'view, future, mood, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

111. LIFELONG DREAMS – ‘... , where they can fulfil their lifelong dreams, than to face the reality.’

The collocation is unrestricted. The noun ‘*dream*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*distant, big, impossible, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*lifelong*’ collocates with other nouns, for instance ‘*ambition, interest, ambition, love, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

112. RAPID PACE – ‘...and still is evolving at a rapid pace.’

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun ‘*pace*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*breathhtaking, hectic, relaxed, walking, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*rapid*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*decline, expansion, change, rise, pulse, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically restricted.

113. DANGEROUS SPORTS – ‘It enables us to do dangerous and exciting sports such as climbing or diving.’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun ‘*sport*’ collocates with other adjectives, for instance ‘*major, professional, active, outdoor, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*dangerous*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*man, situation, road, place, etc.*’. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

114. CURLY HAIR - ‘Wind blew to my long curly hair and I was happy.’

The collocation is considered unrestricted collocation since the adjective ‘*curly*’ collocates only with few nouns, for instance ‘*horns, tail, wig, etc.*’. However, the noun ‘*hair*’ can collocate with adjectives such as ‘*wavy, thick, smooth, straight, fine, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

115. BRILLIANT SUMMARY – ‘We got a brilliant summary of the lessons...’

The collocation is unrestricted as the noun ‘*summary*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*clear, brief, detailed, etc.*’ and the adjective ‘*excellent*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*value, condition, work, example, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

116. PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION – ‘I would be glad if you considered using public transportation instead of walking all day.’

This collocation is to be found as an entry ‘*public transport*’. Some dictionaries state that the collocation ‘*public transportation*’ is an American expression; the British expression is ‘*public transport*’. The collocation is unrestricted. The noun ‘*transport*’ collocates with adjectives such as ‘*air, freight, road, own, etc.*’ The adjective ‘*public*’ collocates with other nouns, for instance ‘*opinion, access, speaking, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

117. BELL WILL RING – ‘...we will be together before the bell will ring...’

The restriction of this collocation is rather strong as the word ‘bell’ collocates only with few other verbs such as ‘chime, clang, sound, toll, tinkle, peal or jangle’ and the word ‘ring’ collocates as well only with few nouns such as ‘(tele)phone, ears, laughter’. The collocation is semantically transparent.

118. PHONE RINGING – ‘Suddenly it I heard my phone ringing.’

The restriction of this collocation is considered rather restricted; both constituents co-occur with a small number of other possible collocants (as mentioned in a sample BELL WILL RING). The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

119. SCHOOL STARTED – ‘Certainly this time till the school started’.

This collocation is to be found in all dictionaries used; however, the noun ‘school’ does not carry the agent of the activity (e.g. *Children start school*²³). The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the word ‘school’ can collocate with some other verbs such as ‘finish, leave, skip, etc.’ and the verb ‘start’ co-occurs with other nouns, for instance ‘course, work, family’. The collocation is semantically transparent.

120. SUN IS SHINING – ‘While outside sun is shining...’

The sample represents an unrestricted collocation as the noun ‘sun’ co-occurs with other verbs, for instance ‘climb, rise, set, sink, move, emerge, burn, etc.’ and the verb ‘shine’ can collocate with nouns such as ‘hair, stars, moon, torch, etc.’. The collocation is fully semantically transparent.

121. BIRDS ARE SINGING – ‘While outside sun is shining and birds are singing...’

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun ‘bird’ can collocate with other verbs such as ‘fly, swoop, flock, migrate, twitter, etc.’ and ‘kettle, bullets, blood’. The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

122. WIND BLEW – ‘Wind blew to my long curly hair and I was happy.’

The collocation unrestricted collocation since the noun ‘wind’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘come, roar, whistle, rise, etc.’ However, the agent of this verb used to be usually animate and thus the wind is the only inanimate agent mentioned in dictionaries. The collocation is semantically transparent.

123. MEMBER OF A FAMILY - ...they [pets] are peers with other members of family.

The collocation is considered unrestricted since the word ‘family’ can in this function (i.e. not attributively) collocate with other words such as ‘close, whole, nuclear, etc.’ and the word

²³< http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/school_1>, 23.11.2014

'member' co-occurs with other words such as *a member of 'staff, the public, society'*. The collocation is fully semantically transparent.

124. PIECE OF FURNITURE – *There are my flower Iris and two most comfortable pieces of furniture*

– *my bed and armchair.*

The collocation is considered as unrestricted as the word '*furniture*' can collocate with words such as '*modern, bedroom, rattan, etc.*' and the word '*piece*' can collocate with '*paper, wood, land, cake, etc.*'. The meaning of this collocation is fully semantically transparent.

125. AMOUNT OF MONEY - *...her role in the society would be probably given only by amount of*

money her family'd (sic!) have.

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the word '*money*' can co-occur with '*sum, big, easy, pocket, etc.*' and the quantifier '*amount*' can collocate with '*energy, effort, time*'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

126. PERFECTLY BALANCED - *...I would say we have perfectly balanced seasons.*

This is unrestricted collocation as the adjective '*balanced*' can collocate with other adverbs such as '*properly, well, perfectly, completely, etc.*' and the intensifying adverb '*perfectly*' co-occurs with other adjectives, for instance '*clear, normal, possible, acceptable, reasonable, etc.*'. The meaning of the collocation is fully semantically transparent.

127. HIGHLY DEVELOPED – *It has highly-developed culture and moral.*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the word '*developed*' does not co-occur with such a wide range of other adverbs; the possible adverbs are '*strongly, well, fully, partially, finely, etc.*'. However, as follows the mutual call-up quality of a collocation cannot be applied as the adverb '*highly*' can intensify other adjectives such as '*successful, significant, skilled, effective etc.*' The meaning of a collocation is semantically transparent.

128. HIGHLY SPECIALIZED - *...the need of highly specialized workers is rising...*

This collocation represents an unrestricted collocation. The adjective '*specialized*' can co-occur with other intensifying adverbs such as '*very, fairly, quite, rather, etc.*' and the adverb '*highly*' can intensify other adjectives such as '*successful, significant, skilled, effective etc.*' The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

129. WENT BANKRUPT – *'Some bank and financial institutes went bankrupt.'*

The collocation *'go bankrupt'* is unrestricted since the adjective *'bankrupt'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'become, be, declare sb, make sb, etc.'* and the verb *'go'* collocates with adjectives such as *'mad, wrong, easy, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

130. MAKE (ME) HAPPY – *'He always try to make my happy when I am despondent.'*

The collocation is introduced in the OCD and LDCE. It is an unrestricted collocation since the adjective *'happy'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'feel, seem, sound, keep sb, etc.'* and the verb *'make'* co-occurs with adjectives such as *'clear, big, public, easy, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

131. FEEL BAD – *'...because everytime I feel bad she helps me.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the adjective *'bad'* collocates with other verbs such as *'look, sound, turn, etc.'* and the verb *'feel'* co-occurs with other adjectives, such as *'good, guilty, comfortable, sorry, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

132. *MAKE EXAM – *'They make the final exam, end their studies on secondary school and what then?'*

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation PASS EXAM. The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'exam'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'take, fail, mark, study for, etc.'* and the verb *'pass'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'the time, legislation, sentence, judgement, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

133. *REACH PROGRESS – *'...he wants to reach a progress in agriculture.'*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation MAKE PROGRESS; the OCD introduces the collocation ACHIEVE PROGRESS. The collocation is considered unrestricted as the noun *'progress'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'check (on), evaluate, watch, stop, etc.'*, the verb *'achieve'* collocates with nouns such as *'objectives, ambition, goals, etc.'* and the verb *'make'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'profit, noise, impression, mistakes, etc.'* The meaning of the collocations is semantically transparent.

134. *VISIT A CHOIR – *'..., so I visit a school choir.'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation SING or BE IN A CHOIR as the correct version. The collocation is considered restricted since the noun *'choir'* collocates only with few verbs – *'be in, sing in, conduct and accompany.'* and the verb *'sing'* collocates with the noun *'song'*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

135. *SET OFF FOR JOURNEYS – ‘...people set off for journeys and take holidays.’

The dictionaries used suggest the collocations GO ON A JOURNEY or SET OUT ON A JOURNEY as the most similar collocation to the proposed one. The collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun ‘*journey*’ collocates with other verbs such as ‘*have, make, continue, complete, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*set out*’ collocates with nouns such as ‘*page, road, foot, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is transparent.

136. *VISIT CONCERTS – ‘*We need it for travelling, ... for cultural reasons (watching films, visiting concerts...)*’

The dictionaries proposed the collocation GO TO A CONCERT. The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun ‘*concert*’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘*attend, give, play (in), hold, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*go to*’ collocates with nouns such as ‘*bed, school, work, church, etc.*’. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

137. *MADE POINTS – ‘...and with incredible attack made two more points.’

The dictionaries suggest the collocation GET POINTS as the most similar one. The collocation MAKE A POINT exists; however, its meaning is different from the proposed one.²⁴ The collocation ‘*get points*’ is regarded as unrestricted since both collocants co-occurs with other words. The noun ‘*point*’ co-occurs with verbs such as ‘*win, lose or score*’. The verb ‘*get*’ co-occurs with other nouns, for instance ‘*impression, money, job, chance, etc.*’. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

138. *HAD MOOD – ‘*I know that I had really good mood this day.*’

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation BE IN A MOOD. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun ‘*mood*’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘*get into, lighten sb’s, put in, affect, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*be in*’ co-occurs with other nouns such as ‘*position, place, trouble, touch, etc.*’. The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

139. *KNOCK A BALL – ‘...suddenly I saw that Anita, a really tall girl in team knocked the ball high into the air...’

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation HIT A BALL as the most similar one. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘*ball*’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘*kick, strike, throw, catch, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*hit*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*head, ground, target, wall, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

²⁴ a thing that somebody says or writes giving their opinion or stating a fact
<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/point_1>, 4.12.2014

140. *ENTER SCHOOL – *‘When I entered basic school, ...’*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation START SCHOOL which has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *‘school’* collocates with verbs such as *‘attend, finish, leave, etc.’* and the verb *‘start’* collocates with other nouns, for instance *‘fire, rumours, work, day, etc.’*. The collocation is semantically restricted.

141. *STUDY SCHOOL – *‘I study in Anglo-Czech high school...’*

The dictionaries suggest the correct version – ATTEND SCHOOL. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun *‘school’* collocates with other verbs such as *‘go to, finish, leave, start, etc.’* and the verb *‘attend’* co-occurs with nouns such as *‘meeting, course, classes, etc.’*. The collocation is semantically transparent.

142. *CONCLUDE A BET – *‘Professor Higgins concludes a bet with his friend Colonel Pickering.’*

The dictionaries used suggest the collocations PUT A BET, TAKE A BET and MAKE A BET. The collocation *‘put a bet’* is regarded as unrestricted since the noun *‘bet’* collocates with other verbs such as *‘have, make, lose, accept, etc.’* and the verb *‘put’* co-occurs with nouns such as *‘hand, money, pressure, end, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

143. *SAY A COMMAND – *‘...you do not have to touch it you just say a command.’*

The dictionaries introduce the collocation GIVE A COMMAND. The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *‘command’* collocates with verbs such as *‘carry out, obey, issue, etc.’* and the verb *‘give’* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *‘chance, permission, advice, call, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

144. *OBTAIN POWER – *‘...and new president will obtain full power.’*

The dictionaries used suggest the collocation COME TO as the correct one having the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The collocation *‘come to power’* is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *‘power’* collocates with other verbs such as *‘seize, take, lose, use, etc.’* and the verb *‘come to’* collocates with nouns such as *‘terms, end, conclusion, decision, etc.’* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

145. *HAVE A TRIP – *‘On Wednesday we had big trip across whole country.’*

The dictionaries introduce the collocations MAKE/GO ON/TAKE A TRIP as the most similar one. The collocation *‘go on a trip’* is considered unrestricted since the noun *‘trip’* collocates with other verbs, for instance *‘arrange, organize, plan, book, cancel, etc.’* and the verb *‘go on’* collocates with noun such as *‘holiday, sale, tour, diet, etc.’* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

146. *HAVE A LUCKY – *'I think that I have a lucky because I live in small town.'*

The dictionaries propose the collocation BE LUCKY as the correct form. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the adjective '*lucky*' collocates with other verbs, for instance '*get, strike, consider yourself, etc.*' and the verb '*be*' collocates with other adjectives such as '*able, available, possible, happy, etc.*' The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

147. *PRACTICE GYMNASTICS – *'We can play football, basketball or practise athletics there.'*

The dictionaries suggest the collocation DO GYMNASTICS which has the most similar meaning to the proposed one. The collocation is regarded as restricted since the noun '*gymnastics*' collocates only with the verb '*do*'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

148. *ACKNOWLEDGED GUILT – *'Three of them had already acknowledged their guilt.'*

The dictionaries used proposed the collocation ADMIT GUILT as the correct one. The collocation is regarded as restricted since the noun '*guilt*' (in this sense) collocates only with the verbs '*establish, prove and admit*'. The verb '*admit*' collocates furthermore with other nouns, for instance '*responsibility, defeat, truth, etc.*' The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

149. *ATTEND A COURSE – *'...I fortunately started to attend another sports course, ...'*

The dictionaries introduce the collocations TAKE/(DO) A COURSE. The collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun '*course*' collocates with other verbs such as '*enrol on, join, complete, pass, etc.*' and the verb '*take*' collocates with nouns such as '*notes, a seat, a photo, etc.*' The collocation is semantically transparent.

150. GET A JOB – *'If you are child, you cannot get a job, ...'*

The sample represents an unrestricted collocation as the word '*job*' can collocate with other verbs such as '*have, look for, apply for, find, take, give up, advertise, provide, do, know*', etc. The same could be stated about the general verb '*get*'. The meaning of the collocation is fully transparent. However, there is an irregularity as for mutual calling up constituents.

151. GET EDUCATION – *'It is still generally better to get higher education than not.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun '*education*' co-occurs with other verbs such as '*have, receive, enter, extend, complete, leave, etc.*' The same stands for the general verb '*get*'. The collocation is perfectly semantically transparent.

152. DO SPORTS – *'It enables us to do dangerous and exciting sports...'*

The collocation is regarded as restricted since the noun '*sport*' collocates with other verbs, for instance '*play or take up*'. The verb '*do*' collocates with nouns such as '*for a living, a drawing, nails, etc.*' The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

153. IMPROVE SKILLS – ‘...who thus improve their skills with no need of technology.’

This collocation does not appear only in the CALD. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘*skill*’ collocates with verbs such as ‘*develop, acquire, exercise, master, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*improve*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*quality, conditions, situation, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically restricted. One word usually does not trigger the other one.

154. JOINING A CLUB – ‘*I am so excited about joining a basketball club...*’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun ‘*collocation*’ collocates with verbs such as ‘*belong to, form, start, run, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*join*’ collocates with noun such as ‘*group, party, army, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

155. IMPROVE SITUATION – ‘...young people may bring some useful experience which could improve the local situation.’

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun ‘*situation*’ can collocate with a wide range of other verbs, for instance ‘*face, discuss, explain, ease, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*improve*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*quality, conditions, situation, etc.*’ The collocation is semantically restricted.

156. COMB HAIR – ‘*I comb my hair.*’

The collocation is considered restricted collocation since the noun ‘*hair*’ collocates with other verbs such as ‘*brush, plait, curl, have, etc.*’, however, the verb ‘*comb*’ collocates only with the noun ‘*hair*’. The collocation is semantically transparent.

157. BRUSH TEETH – ‘*I wash my face, brush my teeth, dry with a towel.*’

The collocation is regarded as restricted. The noun ‘*tooth/teeth*’ co-occurs with verbs such as ‘*clean, remove, clench, lose, etc.*’, however, the verb ‘*brush*’ collocates with only with the nouns ‘*hair and teeth*’. The meaning of the collocation is semantically restricted.

158. PROVIDE SERVICES – ‘*So more people come to live in the area to provide these services...*’

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun ‘*service*’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘*offer, run, improve, extend, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*provide*’ collocates with other nouns such as ‘*information, support, evidence, opportunity, etc.*’ The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

159. FIND WORK – ‘...people come to find work, ...’

The collocation is unrestricted collocation since the noun ‘*work*’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘*have, get, look for, start, etc.*’ and the verb ‘*find*’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘*way, place, job, solution, etc.*’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

160. FELL IN LOVE – *'I fell in love with Ireland.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'love'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'feel, express, be in, find, etc.'* and the verb *'find'* collocates with nouns such as *'category, price, trap, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is metaphoric.

161. TRAVEL THE WORLD – *'When I will travel the world, Ireland is one of the places where I will be staying for some time.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since both collocants co-occur with other words. The noun *'world'* collocates with verbs such as *'create, tour, see, destroy, etc.'* and the verb *'travel'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'country, miles, distance, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

162. GIVE ADVICE – *'...and give you an advice what other attractions you can see.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted since the noun *'advice'* collocates with other verbs such as *'offer, provide, ask, ignore, etc.'* and the verb *'give'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'permission, a chance, example, evidence, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

163. PLAY TENNIS – *'...and father signed me on for playing tennis.'*

The collocation is regarded as restricted since the noun *'tennis'* collocates only with the verb *'play and watch'*. However, the verb *'play'* can collocate with other nouns, for instance *'cards, chess, football, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

164. HOLD REFERENDUM – *'Greenland holds a referendum for increased autonomy from Denmark.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted since both constituents collocates with other words. The noun *'referendum'* co-occurs with verbs such as *'conduct, call, demand, organize, etc.'* and the verb *'hold'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'hand, talk, office, position, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

165. WIN A MEDAL – *'From Czech Olympic team won 3 gold medals and some silver and bronze.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun *'medal'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'collect, get, give sb, etc.'* and the verb *'win'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'contract, a war, an election, a game, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

166. EARN LIVING – *‘Most people do their job to earn a living.’*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun *‘living’* collocates with verbs such as *‘make, do sth for, scratch, eke out or scrape’*. The verb *‘earn’* collocates with nouns such as *‘money, fortune, place, reputation, etc.’*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

167. HAVE OPTIONS – *‘Today young people are lucky that they have many options ...’*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *‘option’* collocates with other verbs, for instance *‘choose, select, take, offer sb., give sb, etc.’* and the verb *‘have’* co-occurs with nouns such as *‘breakfast, a shower, time, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

168. HAVE TALENT – *‘...people who this doing, have to have a talent.’*

The collocation is unrestricted. The noun *‘talent’* collocates with other verbs such as *‘demonstrate, show, discover, develop, waste, etc.’* and the verb *‘have’* collocates with nouns such as *‘breakfast, a shower, time, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

169. TAKE EXAM – *‘...I’m going to take the final exams in two years.’*

This collocation is unrestricted since both constituents collocate with other words. The noun *‘exam’* collocates with verbs such as *‘prepare for, retake, pass, mark, etc.’* The verb *‘take’* collocates with other nouns, for instance *‘a seat, home, advice, call, notes, etc.’* The collocation is semantically transparent.

170. DO BUSINESS – *‘...I would like to do business in the future.’*

The collocation is an unrestricted as the noun (in this sense) can collocate with other verbs, for instance *‘transact, conduct, work in, carry on, etc.’*. The verb *‘do’* collocates with noun such as *‘for a living, a drawing, nails, etc.’*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

171. WATCHING FILMS – *‘I like watching movies and films in original dubbing, mainly english, ...’*

This collocation is considered unrestricted since both constituents collocate with other words. The noun *‘film’* collocates with verbs such as *‘see, make, produce, shoot, etc.’* and the verb *‘watch’* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *‘television, video, football, news, etc.’*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically fully transparent.

172. GET A MESSAGE – *'Last week I got a message about my friend Natasha.'*

The collocation appears in all dictionaries used; however, the OALD introduce this combination as an idiom with an informal meaning²⁵. The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun 'message' collocates with other verbs, for instance 'pass on, leave, send, etc.' and the verb 'get' co-occurs with nouns such as 'impression, money, job, chance, etc.' The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning. The noun calls up the verb more likely than vice versa.

173. RIDE A BIKE – *'She rode a bike, but hit a stone and fell down.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun 'bike' collocates with other verbs such as 'get off, fall off, wheel, pedal, etc.' and the verb 'ride' co-occurs with nouns such as 'horse, miles, train, etc.'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

174. HAVE EXPERIENCES – *'I have got so much experiences.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'experience' collocates with verbs such as 'gain, share, learn by/from/trough, get, etc.' and the verb 'have' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance 'breakfast, shower, time, problems, etc.'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

175. EARN MONEY – *'But earlier I must earn some money.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun 'money' collocates with other verbs for instance 'have, make, waste, borrow, etc.' and the verb 'earn' collocates with nouns such as 'a living, fortune, place, reputation, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

176. DO EXERCISE – *'In my leasure (sic!) time I do the fitness exercises...'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun can collocate only with few other verbs such as 'perform, repeat, take, need, etc.'. The verb 'do' collocates with noun such as 'for a living, a drawing, nails, etc.'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

177. READ A BOOK – *'I like reading books and listening music.'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted. The noun 'book' collocates with other verbs, for instance 'translate, illustrate, borrow, write, etc.' and the verb 'read' co-occurs with other nouns such as 'letter, article, story, newspaper, etc.'. The collocation is semantically transparent.

178. LISTEN MUSIC – *'I like reading books and listening music.'*

The dictionaries used introduced the collocation LISTEN TO MUSIC; the preposition 'to' is missing in the sampled sentence. This collocation is unrestricted since the noun 'music collocates

²⁵ ,to understand what somebody is trying to tell you indirectly'
<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/message_1#message_1__53>,
4.12.2014

with other verbs, for instance *'hear, play, compose, like, etc.'* and the verb *'listen to'* co-occurs with other nouns such as *'reason, radio, people, etc.'*. The collocation is semantically transparent.

179. PLAY A GAME – *'I am playing game, chatting on facebook, reading news an blogs, ...'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'game'* collocates with verbs such as *'have, lose, win, etc.'* and the verb *'play'* can collocate with other nouns, for instance *'cards, chess, football, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

180. DO HOMEWORK – *'I am playing game, ..., watching videos and doing my homeworks (sic!).'*

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun *'homework'* occurs with other verbs, for instance *'finish, hand in, have, correct, etc.'* and the verb *'do'* collocates with noun such as *'for a living, business, nails, etc.'*. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

181. GO TO UNIVERSITY – *'So after high school I want to go to university in Brno, ...'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'university'* collocates with other verbs such as *'attend, study at, leave, etc.'* and the verb *'go to'* co-occurs with other nouns, for instance *'bed, school, work, church, etc.'*. The collocation is semantically transparent.

182. TAKE A PHOTO – *'I really like take a photos.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'photo'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'get, pose for, publish, make, etc.'* and the verb *'take'* collocates with nouns such as *'a seat, home, advice, call, notes, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

183. RIDE A HORSE – *'My other favorite hobbies is riding on horses and riding on motorcycles.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'horse'* collocates with other verbs such as *'saddle, mount, shoe, breed etc.'* and the verb *'ride'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'bike, miles, train, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

184. COMMIT SUICIDE – *'Did they commit suicide?'*

The collocation is considered restricted since the noun collocates only with few verbs – *'commit, attempt, and contemplate'*. The verb *'commit'* collocates with few nouns, too – *'crime, adultery, offence, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

185. WIN A BET – ‘...where it’s showed that Higgins won the bet, ...’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘bet’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘have, make, lose, accept, etc.’ and the verb ‘win’ collocates with other nouns such as ‘medal, contract, game, war, etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

186. GAIN VOTES – ‘While Mr. Zeman gained votes in smaller cities,’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘vote’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘have, take, receive, win, etc.’ and the verb ‘gain’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘reputation, support, experience, weight, etc.’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

187. SAY GOODBYE – ‘Last day we just say goodbye to our hosts and went back to Czech Republic.’

The collocation is lying between restricted and unrestricted collocation since the exclamation ‘goodbye’ collocates only with few verbs – ‘kiss, wave, say’. The verb ‘say’ collocates with other words, for instance ‘a few words, a lot (for, about), a prayer for, etc.’ The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

188. SPEND TIME – ‘In April we spent a great time in Maribor with Slovenian friends...’

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun ‘time’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘have, take, wait, waste, etc.’ and the verb ‘spend’ collocates with noun such as ‘money, day, night, etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

189. PLAY THE PIANO – ‘I really liked a man, who were playing the piano in the centre of city.’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘piano’ collocates with other verbs such as ‘tune, build, make’ and the verb ‘play’ can collocate with other nouns, for instance ‘cards, chess, football, etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

190. WALK A DOG – ‘Walking the dog is excellent way how to relax.’

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun ‘dog’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘have, keep, feed, train, etc.’ and the verb ‘walk’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘into a trap, way, street, etc.’ The collocation is semantically transparent.

191. KEEP AN ANIMAL – ‘Reasons for keeping animals can be different.’

The collocation is unrestricted. The noun ‘animal’ collocates with other verbs, for instance ‘have, train, breed, etc.’ and the verb ‘keep’ co-occurs with nouns such as ‘secret, appointment, balance, eye, etc.’. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

192. GO SHOPPING – *'I like to go to cinema, shopping or outside with my friends.'*

The collocation *'go shopping'* is lying on between restricted and unrestricted collocations since the noun *'shopping'* collocates only with few other verbs – *'do and go (out)'*. However, the verb *'go'* occurs with other nouns, for instance *'on a journey, for a walk, to bed, to school, talking, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

193. HAVE REASONS – *'We have many reasons to study them.'*

The collocation is as the noun *'reason'* collocates with other verbs, for instance *'see, give (sb), state, explain, etc.'* and the verb *'have'* collocates with nouns such as *'breakfast, a shower, time, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

194. CUT HAIR – *'I came back home, took a scissors and cut my hair.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since the noun *'hair'* collocates with verbs such as *'do, brush, curl, wash, etc.'* and the verb *'cut'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'costs, prices, a hole, grass, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

195. BROKE HEART – *'He broke my heart.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted. The noun *'heart'* collocates with verbs such as *'steal, open, have, gladden, etc.'* and the verb *'break'* collocates with nouns such as *'the law, promises, word, silence, etc.'* The collocation is semantically transparent.

196. CORRECT MISTAKE – *'In a studio, it is easy to correct mistake.'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted collocation since the noun *'mistake'* collocates with other verbs such as *'make, repeat, admit, etc.'* and the verb *'correct'* can co-occur with other nouns, for instance *'work, error, etc.'* The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.

197. FULFIL DREAMS – *'where they can fulfil their lifelong dreams.'*

The collocation is considered unrestricted as the noun *'dream'* collocates with verbs such as *'realize, achieve, have, etc.'* and the verb *'fulfil'* co-occurs with nouns such as *'ambition, hopes, need, terms, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically restricted meaning.

198. LOST EMPLOYMENT – *'Many people lost their employment, ...'*

This collocation is regarded as unrestricted as the noun *'job'* collocates with other verbs such as *'find, get, look for, apply for, etc.'* and the verb *'lost'* collocates with other nouns, for instance *'weight, money, control, time, etc.'* The collocation has a semantically transparent meaning.

199. ANSWER A QUESTION – *'And this show was trying to answer questions and controversy about future.'*

The collocation is unrestricted since both constituents collocate with other words. The noun '*question*' collocates with verbs such as '*ask, have, face, put, etc.*' and the verb '*answer*' collocates with other nouns, for instance '*letter, advertisement, phone, door, etc.*' The meaning of the collocation is semantically restricted.

200. SOLVE A PROBLEM – '*Your parents solve your problems.*'

The collocation is regarded as unrestricted since the noun '*problem*' collocates with other verbs such as '*bring, cause, confront, deal with, etc.*' and the verb '*solve*' co-occurs with other nouns, for instance '*an equitation, a puzzle, a riddle, a crime, mystery, etc.*'. The meaning of the collocation is semantically transparent.