Corpus Evidence on English Collocational Patterns in Scientific Writing — Implications for Effective Writing Development —

Hiroshi OHTAKE¹ • Brian MORREN²

1 Introduction

How may learners be helped to write acceptable academic articles? What type of assistance do they require in becoming more competent and effective writers? These are questions that language teachers have long been struggling to address. In this connection, the present study focuses on how to make Japanese learners more aware of word collocations in English, since such awareness has tended to be largely neglected in English teaching in Japan. When native speakers learn their own language in a natural setting, they can quickly pick up common word patterns through being immersed in the language and by relying on their intuitions. This type of implicit knowledge is acquired unconsciously through frequent exposure to the strings of words and set phrases encountered in everyday communicative interaction (Kirsner, 1994). In the case of non-native learners, however, exposure to the target language is not so readily available and opportunities for implicit learning are greatly reduced. They therefore do not have access to the significant store of core words and collocations that form the basis of native speaker fluency. Consequently, when second language learners are required to write in the target language, they usually try to use their grammar with imperfect understanding of vocabulary, which often results in skewed or awkward English such as a high possibility. They may also be hampered by the constraints of cognitive capacity in that they do not have ready-made language patterns at their disposal that can be automatically retrieved from long-term memory. In particular, they lack the ability for native-like selection (Pawley & Syder, 1983) in that they are less able to choose the preferred linguistic sequence from a number of grammatically acceptable alternatives. They therefore do not have the same level of fluency and pragmatic competence that they possess in their first language.

In this regard, it has been found that learners consider vocabulary as most important in relation to writing needs followed by grammatical accuracy (Gosden, 1996; Leki & Carson, 1994; Muncie, 2002). In particular, learners are frustrated by their inability to quickly retrieve or access relevant lexical/grammatical forms (Snellings et al., 2002).

¹ Department of Foreign Languages, Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine

² Center for Languages, Arts, and Sciences, Fukui Prefectural University

Vocabulary deficits also account for imprecision in the expression of their thoughts and impede the flow of their writing in that they sometimes have to settle for an inappropriate word substitute which does not accurately express their intended meaning. Such a concern for vocabulary is also shared by those involved in the assessment of learner writing who tend to view an inadequate knowledge of vocabulary unfavorably. In this respect, it has been shown that lexical content has a great influence on their judgements in that mistakes in lexical selection are considered less acceptable than other types of error (Engber, 1995; Harley & King, 1989; Santos, 1988). Learners are aware of their deficiencies at the basic level and that this is holding them back from becoming more accomplished writers. In order to accelerate their language processing and develop greater efficiency, therefore, they need to have greater control over basic vocabulary and grammatical conventions.

2 Learning Vocabulary

Knowledge of vocabulary is an essential component in written production in that quality of writing is closely related to vocabulary proficiency (Astika, 1993). However, rather than the number of words a reader knows, it is the depth of word knowledge that is critical in the production of text (Liu & Shaw, 2001). If readers have only a partial knowledge of a particular word, this may not be sufficient to grasp the full range of meanings of the word as it is used in various contexts (Hunston & Francis, 1998). It is also important to know which particular patterns are common in a given register and which are not. Such information would certainly be useful to learners (Biber & Conrad, 2001). In the absence of such knowledge, learners of all levels of proficiency are likely to remain insensitive to the range of potential meanings expressed by a given word and experience difficulties in producing the appropriate sense of a word in their academic writing.

Instruction involving the completion of vocabulary exercises or the consulting of a dictionary may increase vocabulary knowledge but may have relatively little beneficial effect on student writing. In order to improve written production, it is necessary to have more than just a superficial understanding of words. In addition, there is a need to have ready access to that vocabulary if learners are to enhance their skills in language use. Without such lexical access, the production processes will not be able to proceed smoothly and the resulting text will be impaired (McCutchen et al., 1994). It is imperative, therefore, to ensure that learners have sufficient opportunities for developing their knowledge and skills in using vocabulary.

3 Lexical Relations

In recent years, the trend in vocabulary learning has been to view words not as independent, separate entities but as constituents of lexical phrases. As such, their range of meaning is determined by their relations with the accompanying words in the text and by their syntactic and collocational patterns (Beheydt, 1987; Leffa, 1998). In this respect, advances in corpus linguistics have allowed us to gather useful language data and provided insights into recurring lexical patterns that have hitherto gone undetected (Sinclair, 1991; Willis, 1990). We are now more aware of the importance of lexical relations and how these are governed by rules whereby words interact with each other not in random clusters but in a clearly principled way. Furthermore, it is now known that lexis has a lot in common with syntax and phonology in that there is a great deal that is automatic in the routine behavior of words. Namely, in normal language use, words form predictable and stable combinations which consistently occur in fixed linguistic patterns in conventional everyday discourse.

The view of language as a phraseological system differs radically from the traditional concept of a clear distinction between lexis and grammar (Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). In the case of lexis, it is necessary to know about the syntactic patterns in which it appears, since in the absence of such information, we will not know how a particular lexical item is actually used in discourse, and accuracy and fluency will suffer. The same applies to grammar in that a certain syntactic pattern is dependent on particular lexical items that have the same pattern. In other words, lexis may not be described without reference to syntax, nor syntax without reference to lexis since words and patterns are inextricably linked. They are therefore interdependent and not separate features of language organization (Hunston & Francis, 1998).

In particular, styles of language are governed by certain norms and conventions. Knowledge and observance of such conventions are essential in creating conditions for clear articulation of meaning, and smooth and rapid processing. Moreover, in the case of academic writing, observing the conventional collocational forms is critical in achieving precision of expression (Howarth, 1998). Where word combinations deviate from the norm, this may cause difficulties in processing and comprehension. If readers have problems in understanding a writer's intent due to stylistic dissonance or imprecision, this could result in loss of clarity (Martin, 1984). Even though the underlying meaning may still be grasped, unconventional collocations are likely to distract from what the writer is trying to say. Such communicative deficiencies on the part of writers may ultimately lead to their marginalization within the academic community (Lennon, 1998).

4 Corpus Analysis

There are regularities underlying the way in which words co-occur. Words tend to be subject to certain constraints or preferences which affect language choice in discourse in a systematic way. Furthermore, Stubbs (2001) notes that "native speakers' unconscious knowledge of collocations is an essential component of their idiomatic and fluent language use and an important part of their communicative competence" (p. 73). A knowledge of collocations is exactly what distinguishes native speakers from foreign learners and evidence derived from corpus analysis may contribute to narrowing the gap between the two. For example, with regard to English synonyms, it has been found that one way to distinguish their subtle differences of meaning is to focus on their collocational behavior. In particular, any positive or negative nuances they exhibit may not be considered as an essential property of a particular lexical item acting alone but as the result of its association with particular collocates. In other words, an examination of a word's immediate collocational environment can provide great insight into the particular nuances expressed (Partington, 1998).

In view of this, there is a need to familiarize learners with frequent patterns by focusing their attention on the lexical items that immediately precede or follow a given word (in their immediate linguistic context). In certain cases, words at a further remove may also be examined in that the key word may appear in a fixed expression involving a cluster of words each of which must be included to convey a particular meaning. For example, prepositions and compounds are notoriously difficult for learners to master so that they might benefit from having an array of one-line samples of use. This might then help to highlight which words will typically co-occur with a given lexical item and make writing a more fluent, less laborious, and ultimately more successful task for learners.

5 Corpus Evidence

In this section, we present a number of case studies focusing on lexical or collocational errors/deviations, which are found in Japanese scientific research writing that has been published and is also available via the Internet. This type of error is known to be one of the most difficult to identify by non-native writers but is also one that is likely to be most detrimental to their efforts to express themselves adequately in English. We intend to show how certain words are used in a given context by taking advantage of corpus analysis, concordance, collocation, and statistical data. In particular, we illustrate what kinds of patterns are the norm among native speakers and then provide examples of

faulty expressions found in Japanese scientific papers so as to draw attention to certain stylistic infelicities that appear repeatedly in such writing and that need to be avoided.

For the purpose of gathering statistical data and concordance samples, we consulted the Life Science Dictionary Project corpus, which has been compiled by storing English texts in medical journals mainly through the public MEDLINE database that contains numerous scientific articles published all over the world. The corpus currently consists of over 29 million running words.

In this study, we focus only on the highlighted part of the selected sentences and do not concern ourselves with other types of error (e.g., incorrect use of determiners, singular/plural number agreement) that may appear in the sample sentences.

5.1 potential/potentiality/possibility/probability

Sample Sentences:

- (1a) Free radical scavenger ... will have the possibility to become the medicine for the dementia.
- (1b) These findings clearly **suggest the** therapeutic **potentiality** of ... as a novel approach for the treatment of

On reading the above sample sentences, native speakers of English are likely to say they prefer to use *potential* in place of *possibility* and *potentiality*. However, for most Japanese learners of English, knowing how to properly differentiate the meanings of potential, potentiality, possibility, and probability is an extremely difficult task since they can find one common Japanese equivalent kanousei (可能性) for these four English words in English-Japanese dictionaries. As a result, few Japanese students pay attention to the distinctive differences among them, especially their usages. Although they may read explanations given in dictionaries — according to which the likelihood of occurrence is considered higher when probability is used instead of possibility, and potential is defined as referring to future possibility — these explanations do not seem to be much help to non-native speakers of English. This is because they lack the information about how each of these words is actually used, namely with what other English words they typically occur. When learners are required to use these four words, they may consider only the degree of likelihood and not know how to properly discriminate among them in their writing. The above sentences produced by Japanese researchers are a good example of the inadequacies of grammar books and dictionaries. While learning possibility, they

may have neglected to learn the common and natural collocational patterns that accompany it (Table 1). The sample sentences introduced here can be translated into natural-sounding Japanese sentences, which makes this type of error not so salient from the perspective of Japanese learners of English.

(Table 1: Excerpt from concordance for *the possibility*)

	1 1	•	
120	These results open	the possibility	of using the supF tRNA am
121es a	as both inputs and output, they open	the possibility	of communication between
122	Microarray technology has opened	the possibility	of evaluating the express
123	Our finding opens	the possibility	of searching for the addi
124e id	dentification of such peptides opens	the possibility	of using these sequences
125	We can rule out	the possibility	of a negatively charged b
126	These data rule out	the possibility	of an egg effect in which
127	Our measurements rule out	the possibility	that chromosome stretchin
128	To rule out	the possibility	that HS3 is required for
129	To rule out	the possibility	that membrane attachment
130	We rule out	the possibility	that monoallelic expressi
131 this	s smaller sample, we cannot rule out	the possibility	that small numbers of div
132	These findings effectively rule out	the possibility	that the presence of nonc
133enti	ial entry of these factors rules out	the possibility	that they are transported
134extr	rin system was used, which precludes	the possibility	of cross-contamination be
135requ	iring consecutive responses prevent	the possibility	of using the most desirab
136	They also raise	the possibility	that disrupting multiple
137	These results also raise	the possibility	that IL-7 therapy could b
138	Our observations also raise	the possibility	that neurons use a burst
139 NARE	E-mediated membrane fusion and raise	the possibility	that additional component
140act	tivated MAP kinase pathway and raise	the possibility	that environmental condit
141s ef	ffects of oxidative stress and raise	the possibility	that humans with heterozy
142new	pathway of p53 regulation and raise	the possibility	that increased MDM4 level
143week	x of mammalian development and raise	the possibility	that multiple isozymes of
144nge	in neurological diseases, and raise	the possibility	that neuromodulators may
145n re	etinal capillary pericytes and raise	the possibility	that PGs may play a role
146 sion	n in activated macrophages and raise	the possibility	that PPARgamma ligands
147depe	endent protein phosphatase and raise	the possibility	that regulation of other

When asked what was wrong with the sample sentence (1a), some Japanese learners replied that *possibility* should be replaced by *probability*. In so doing, they thought they could convey the higher expectations of some possible future occurrence and were completely unaware of the fact that *have the possibility to* ... and *have the probability to* ... and *have the probability to* ... are not widely used collocational patterns in English and should be considered as deviating from the norm. In view of this, seemingly grammatically correct English sentences represent a serious problem for non-native speakers of English, even for those at a rather advanced level. It is not until they have been immersed in a sea of natural English expressions/sentences that they learn that *have the possibility to* ... is not

commonly used among native speakers.

Searching through the corpus data, it can be seen that in the concordance for *possibility* there are no instances where *have the possibility to* ... is used. Statistical results (Table 2) show that the most frequently occurring verb before *possibility* is *raise*, that *suggest the possibility* is also a quite common expression, and that *open the possibility* and *rule out the possibility* are also used although far less frequently. Thus, learners should focus on the conventional forms of expression when using *possibility* and become aware of its common collocations.

		ional frequen	cy for	the possibili	ty (2,3	62)	
2 nd left		1 st left		1 st right		2 nd rig	ht
we	221	raise	348	that	1641	the	292
and	166	raises	227	of	655	а	144
to	156	raising	216	for	20	this	76
results	116	investigated	ł 77	is	8	these	62
finding	s 69	with	67	to	6	an	47
have	65	raised	66	remains	5	using	39
this	62	suggest	64	exists	5	it	35
data	54	examined	59	was	4	other	23
also	53	suggesting	51	existed	3	some	21

As for the expression *raise the possibility*, there still remains a problem concerning Japanese learners who are not accustomed to this expression since they may falsely assume that it means 'to increase the likelihood' of something, whereas it is actually similar in meaning to *suggest the possibility*. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the meaning of *raise* is (1) 'to lift or move something to a higher level,' with which most Japanese learners are familiar, and (2) 'to mention something for people to discuss,' which they are less likely to have come across.

Here in the sample sentence (1a), the expression *have the potential to* ... should have been used instead of the unnatural collocational pattern *have the possibility to* The concordance results show that for the word *potential*, the most frequent verb forms appearing just before it are *have* and *has*, and that *have/has the potential to* ... is therefore a commonly used expression when referring to future possibility (Tables 3 & 4).

(Table 3: Excerpt from concordance for *the potential*)

23ly than unmodified oligonucleotides and have	the potential	to be used as diagnost
24 studied, and we believe that these loci have	the potential	to be used as polymorp
25 taining single amino acid substitutions have	the potential	to be used for modulat
26 These cells have	the potential	to be used for restora
27 These primers have	the potential	to be used in a PCR as
$28 \hdots$ venting the function of these receptors have	the potential	to be useful anti-canc
29 f substrates (rubbed films of proteins) have	the potential	to be useful in a vari
30ls arising in fetal or neonatal tissues have	the potential	to become B-1a cells c
31 tems based on HIV or other lentiviruses have	the potential	to become important to
32ation, intestinal transplant procedures have	the potential	to become the standard
33 patients with inflammatory myopathies have	the potential	to behave as antigen p
34 stigated whether quinol-GSH conjugates have	the potential	to behave as genotoxic
35 Such transplants have	the potential	to benefit retinal dis
36 workers are not well characterized and have	the potential	to bias the measures f \ldots
37 heparan sulfate proteoglycans (HSPGs) have	the potential	to bind and directly r

Table 4	: Posit	tional frequency	for the	e potential (3,2	10)		
2 nd left		1 st left		1 st right		2 nd right	t
to	395	has	342	to	644	of	959
and	155	have	221	for	476	the	79
we	149	of	150	of	425	be	53
results	76	and	142	role	291	for	39
that	41	with	107	use	65	this	39
study	40	demonstrate	85	utility	55	form	34
have	37	investigate	81	importan	ce 48	between	n 33

As for the sample sentence (1b), *suggest the potentiality* is not found in the corpus and does not seem to appear anywhere among commonly used English sentences. In this respect, since it may be difficult to recognize the definitional difference regarding *potential* and *potentiality* in English-Japanese dictionaries, Japanese learners should be strongly encouraged to make the most of concordance evidence. Such evidence shows that the number of instances of *potentiality* is only four, compared to 17,274 in the case of *potential*, which clearly indicates that *potentiality* occurs only rarely while *potential* is far more common.

Some Japanese learners may assume that *have the probability to* ... can be used when referring to something whose likelihood of occurrence is very high, but the expression is not accepted as a natural English expression as seen in the concordance results for *probability* (Table 5). We learn from the statistical analysis that the most frequent verb coming before *probability* is *increase* (Table 6). As the statistical results demonstrate, it may be useful to suggest to learners that they first get accustomed to using the most commonly used expression for each word: *have the potential to* ..., *raise*

the possibility of ..., and *increase the probability of* Learners should be well aware that neither *raise the probability* nor *suggest the probability* is generally used, even though these awkward word patterns may sound natural when translated into Japanese. The corpus evidence also shows that *increase the possibility* is not very widely used.

(Table 5: Excerpt from concordance for *the probability*)

(Tuble 5. Except from concordance for the p	• /	
179 These alterations increase		for abnormal thalamocorti
180ssay sensitivity, and they can increase	the probability	of a diagnosis by verifyi
181 by no more than 2 kcal/mol can increase	the probability	of nucleation of disorder
182 Predators may increase	the probability	of prey extinction result
183 Such techniques often increase	the probability	of detecting linkage, but
184 \ldots rs can reduce the power and/or increase	the probability	of obtaining false positi
185 constraints, can substantially increase	the probability	of cell immortalization
186multisite enhancer elements to increase	the probability	of an interaction between
187e potential which may serve to increase	the probability	of neoplastic progression
188 in-protein interactions, which increase	the probability	of establishing an active
189 y of actin polymerization and increased	the probability	of further Cdc42 accumula
190n time of single channels and increased	the probability	of their failure to open
191 creased HIV-1 replication and increased	the probability	to target HIV-1 IN in inf
192 tion of the proviral enhancer increased	the probability	of maintenance-coupled de
193and radio/television) further increased	the probability	of supine placement (OR,
194moval of external Ca(2+) ions increased	the probability	of channel opening (Po) s
195ephrins or mechanical probing increased	the probability	of lead growth cone retra
196red blood cells significantly increased	the probability	of pore formation by GPI
197 prolonged visual stimulation increased	the probability	of the up state
198, showing that PKC activation increases	the probability	
199 We show that the cHS4 increases	the probability	that integrated proviruse
200he wild-type POR considerably increases	the probability	of photoactive state form
201 Mutation of CIN genes increases	the probability	that whole chromosomes or
202ain abnormal findings greatly increases	the probability	of breast cancer
203 cially pericentric inversion, increases	the probability	of genetic isolation amon
204 phosphorylation of VR1 by PKC increases	the probability	of channel gating by agon
205 linked allele rather than by increasing	the probability	of establishing transcrip
206d DNA damage and, second, by increasing	the probability	of recombination with dec
207 ory synaptic transmission by increasing		of transmitter release vi
208 via heparin-like molecules, increasing	the probability	that the virus will bind

	Positio		for th	e probability ((538)		
2 nd left		1 st left		1 st right		2 nd right	
to	32	in	23	of	403	a	45
and	15	and	22	that	68	the	34
by	14	that	18	distributio	on 15	of	18
that	12	of	18	density	8	an	14
increase	10	increase	17	for	6	release	9
may	10	increases	17	and	5	survival	9
or	8	increasing	15	distributio	ons 4	transmitter	7
estimate	6	increased	15	profile	4	detecting	6

5.2 may/should/possibly/probably

Sample Sentence:

During the process of ..., a loss of the anticoagulant property ... may probably occur.

This sentence requires Japanese learners to be highly sensitive to how the English modal auxiliaries *may* and *should* interact with the adverbials *possibly* and *probably*. However, it is not surprising to encounter this type of error in Japanese writing, given the lack of sensitivity to these words on the part of Japanese learners (Ohtake & Morren, 2001). As is the case with the differentiation of *possibility* and *probability*, Japanese learners are generally weak at discriminating *may* from *should* when these words are used in referring to the possibility or probability of something happening. Especially when Japanese learners use *should*, they appear to exclusively use it to 'indicate obligation, duty, or correctness' (*Concise Oxford English Dictionary:* COD), as often found in the concordance results for *should* derived from an English corpus of Japanese writing. Few Japanese learners appear to effectively or successfully use *should* to 'indicate what is probable' (COD) and thus neglect to learn that *should probably* sounds natural while *may probably* does not (Table 7).

(Table 7: Excerpt from concordance for <i>should</i>)
--

·	1		/	
	40	Our approach	should	be applicable to other membrane pr
	41ed genetic	and pharmacological approach	should	allow analysis of the specific rol
	42	Our present approach	should	facilitate the generation of multi
	43	This approach	should	be applicable for the creation of \dots
	44	This approach	should	have significant future implicatio
	45	The assay	should	be particularly useful for kinetic
	46	This assay	should	serve as a useful criterion for as
	47	DNA chip-based assays	should	play a valuable role in high throu
	48	The coupled assays	should	be widely applicable since the pro
	49ators and	inhibitors in in vitro assays	should	clarify the role of individual mot
	50 lanations	as to why observed behaviours	should	differ from the optimal behaviour
	51	Characterization of URE3-BP	should	provide insight into transcription
	52 de range o	f attenuation for mouse brain	should	prove useful in fine-tuning recomb
	$53 \ldots$ he view th	at hydrophobic surface burial	should	be commensurate with hydrogen-bond
	54 postentry	steps of HIV-1 infection but	should	also help to enhance the efficacy
	55 ocking dru	g efflux with fumitremorgin C	should	allow for functional analysis of t

The most defective aspect may arise from their heavy dependence on bilingual dictionaries (Ohtake & Morren, 2002; Schmitt, 1997) and persistent belief that each and every English word has its exact counterpart in the Japanese lexicon. This results in

learners acquiring only a partial definition of English words and remaining unaware of the full range of meanings they can express. In the case of *should*, most Japanese learners seem to associate it with the Japanese phrase suru beki da (taxet), which is a relatively strong expression and not normally used in polite situations such as when giving advice to one's elders. Consequently, they assume that should is to be avoided in such situations and tend to use *had better* instead, which is often translated into Japanese as shita hou ga yoi (したほうがよい) and has a less commanding and much softer tone in Japanese. Owing to the false connotation derived from the Japanese translated expressions, it is not unusual to encounter Japanese learners who firmly believe that should is equivalent to suru beki da in Japanese and had better is the same as shita hou ga yoi. In view of this, it should be pointed out to learners that, on a scale of intensity, should appears more neutral than had better in that should suggests 'advisability' while had better implies a 'strong recommendation' and has a more forceful connotation. This might also account for learners' excessive use of had better rather than should in the mistaken belief that it behaves the same way as in Japanese and is the preferred choice in more formal contexts. Moreover, in terms of register, semi-modals such as had better have been found to appear far more frequently in conversation than modal verbs but are much less common in formal writing (Biber et al., 1999). In the case of had better, its use is therefore mainly confined to spoken English while it is almost non-existent in the conservative medium of academic writing. Conversely, the modal should is well-established in academic writing and is considered more stylistically appropriate.

(Table 8: Complete concordance for *may possibly*: 14)

1es in estrogen metabolism and, thereby,	may possibly	explain interindividual diff
2 rogesterone may stimulate breathing and	may possibly	improve symptoms of hypovent
3 to changes in iron content and form and	may possibly	be used as indicators of suc
4 or studying rapid channel movements and	may possibly	act as a fluorescent activit
5t that mechanoperception in plant cells	may possibly	be transduced through intrac
6ectin further suggests how some domains	may possibly	be important for protein int
7 While various unknown factors	may possibly	give rise to selective activ
8 Microfilaments	may possibly	act by uncoupling Lyn from t
9an unitary displacements, this mutation	may possibly	perturb the mechanical coord
10 A meaningful fraction of patients	may possibly	be cured when treated as agg
11 This local response	may possibly	assist in limiting the clini
12d implicate them in CNS disorders, that	may possibly	be induced or exacerbated by
13 to trigger transcription and therefore	may possibly	serve as a transcription act
$14 \ldots \text{ogs}$ have not been fully explored, which	may possibly	have limited the scope of th

(Table 9: Excerpt from concordance for *may occur*: 417)

104 ctivation, PI 3-kinase-sensitive events	may occur both upstream of Ras and betwee
105 Such events	may occur in inflammatory bowel disease d
106 am in serial radiographic examinations)	may occur more rapidly, and with less bet
107 ntalizing suggestion that base excision	may occur by cleavage of the glycosidic b
108 nic disease, relevant dietary exposures	may occur over decades
109 erve distinct functions; axon extension	may occur predominantly in the outermost
110 Bone marrow (BM) fibrosis	may occur in myeloproliferative diseases,
111 y, dynamic protein backbone fluctuation	may occur, enabling Cys532 to move within
112 Fractionation	may occur in aqueous solution during equi
113 ate that endopin 2 inhibitory functions	may occur in the regulated secretory path
114 iated repair of physiological functions	may occur independently of integrin reloc
115 Intravascular gas	may occur as a transient incidental findi
116 at the regulation of the rat MnSOD gene	may occur not only at the transcriptional
117s in the hepatitis B virus (HBV) genome	may occur during therapy

(Table 10: Excerpt from concordance for *probably occur*: 44)

		•		
25 G. chile	ensis and the Galapagos lineage	probably	occurred	6 to 12 million years a
26 adiation	of major lepidopteran lineages	probably	occurred	during the Late Jurassi
27n regula	tion of perforin-mediated lysis	probably	occurs	without direct interacti
28 is decrea	ase in IAA within the mesocotyl	probably	occurs	primarily by a change in
29 pression	pattern in the cortex, it most	probably	occurs	independently from it, an
30 osomal bi	reakage between Nubp2 and Nubp1	probably	occurred	during the evolution of
31 ded from	pre-human strata; three others	probably	occurred	on 'Eua in pre-human ti
32ns, indi	cating that the phosp horylation	probably	occurs	on a conserved histidine
33e CA1 reg	gion suggests that this process	probably	occurs	before CA3, possibly in t
34	Much of this new productivity	probably	occurred	in microbial mats, whic
35 onal act	ivation of this docking protein	probably	occurs	through the IGF-1R
36	The latter two reactions	probably	occur	within RPE phagolysoso
37 erefore,	both CB(1) and CB(2) receptors	probably	occur	throughout the vertebrat
38	Reinitiation	probably	occurs	through a different pathw
39	Repositioning	probably	occurred	by disassembly of the i
40	Most select ion	probably	occurs	at birth and will be grea
				0

(Table 11: Complete concordance for *should occur*: 13)

1han the free electron massexciton BEC	should	occur at temperatures of about 1 K
2 In acute infection, a beneficial effect	should	occur
3 pectations that morphological evolution	should	occur largely within Pleistocene r
4n of phosphorylated [8-14C]-ganciclovir	should	occur almost exclusively in tissue
5 eration of treatment for this infection	should	occur in any patient with cystic f
6 beta-hydroxyacylthioester intermediates	should	occur during the reactions catalys
7r accumulation of deleterious mutations	should	occur on polysomic chromosomes wit
8 ques than othersie, irregular plaques	should	occur in multiple vascular beds in
9 This process	should	occur , for example, in periodicall
10e picket fence model, maximal quenching	should	occur at two different levels in t
11 Consequently, amino acid replacements	should	occur at a higher rate in compleme
12n stratification due to climate warming	should	occur
13ankton-to-higher trophic level food web	should	occur when this ratio falls below

To correct the flaw in the sample sentence, if the writer wants to retain either one of the two originally used words, *may probably* should be replaced with either *may possibly* or *should probably* to conform to a natural standard English expression. However, the concordance results reveal that the frequency of *may possibly* in the corpus is rather low (Table 8), and no instances of *should probably* were retrieved, even though *Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine* (1998) contains a considerable number of instances for this particular pattern. As for the corpus sentences that include *occur*, the most frequently appearing expression is *may occur*, followed by *probably occur*, and then *should occur* (Tables 9, 10, & 11). This may be partly because *may possibly* and *should probably* sound rather redundant in English, whereas rather straightforward expressions tend to be preferred in scientific journals.

5.3 study on/about, research on/about

Sample Sentences:

- (3a) The localization of ... warrants further **study about** the role of ... in the induction of hepatocellular damage.
- (3b) The epidemiological **research about** cataract frequency ... has to take into account that

Prepositions are known to be a major obstacle in learning English for most Japanese students, especially when writing in English. It is not an exaggeration to say that few, if any, students are confident enough to choose an appropriate preposition from among others when there is room for another to be filled in. The following short passage consisting of 53 words includes as many as 11 prepositions. This original passage, with all but one preposition (*within*) deleted, was given to 252 Japanese university students

Fill in the following blanks with an appropriate preposition:

But here it gets complicated. Does higher testosterone produce more aggressive behavior? Or does the more aggressive male – whose aggression was learned, say, #1# home or #2# school or #3# the neighborhood or #4# the team or #5# the culture #6# large – call #7# a release #8# testosterone #9# within himself #10# assistance?

(Extract from 'Are You Man Enough?' in *Time Magazine* April 24, 2000, Vol. 155, No. 16. See original passage in Appendix.)

and a number of native speakers of English as a task in which they were required to fill in each blank with an appropriate preposition.

As for the native speakers of English, all their responses were perfectly correct and uniform except for one or two variants that were also possible substitutes in the context. However, in the case of the Japanese university students, their answers were far from satisfactory and they achieved an average score of only around 46%. These results clearly show that with regard to prepositions, native speakers will usually infer the correct ones because they are familiar not only with idioms but also natural collocations, while non-native speakers have difficulty here because of the tendency for prepositions to have multiple meanings and for the choice to be context-dependent.

In this connection, it is well known that English prepositional usage is exceedingly complicated and difficult to learn and may pose problems for even advanced learners. While there are generally few problems when dealing with prepositions that refer to simple spatial relations and movements (e.g., on the table; to the station), it is in other areas of usage that preposition selection may appear rather arbitrary (Rastall, 1994). In certain instances, the choice of preposition is determined by the context and the preposition itself may contain little or no information value. It is therefore often a matter of convention and the preposition makes little contribution to meaning. As such, they may be classified as either 'free' or 'bound' prepositions, where the former carry an independent meaning irrespective of other words in the context, while the latter have little independent meaning and are directly influenced by some word in the context (Biber, et al., 1999). Nevertheless, research has shown that prepositions do not merely serve a grammatical function but also have semantic content that may influence the words with which they are linked. That is to say, prepositions can have a salient spatial sense that shapes the accompanying words and imbues them with a certain shade of meaning. A preposition may also have an extended meaning which is derived from its underlying spatial characteristics (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). They therefore have the potential to affect how a certain phrase is interpreted. In view of this, it is important for learners to be aware of the basic spatial meaning of prepositions and of how this may be extended into more figurative meanings. In other words, prepositions should not be considered simply as lexically empty grammatical categories since they have communicative value and add to the information in the text.

With regard to preposition entries in dictionaries, they appear to suffer from various defects including disorganized scattering of semantic information, confused presentation of sense information, lack of information on semantic contrasts, and omitted usages (Lindstromberg, 1996). Such deficiencies may be due to the tendency to list entries

according to their order of frequency. While this provides learners with important information on the most common uses of prepositions, it also tends to conceal information about semantic similarities and contrasts so that for learners who wish to examine a particular entry, they often have to scan a long undifferentiated list of examples if they wish to locate the object of their search. Consequently, learners may become discouraged and despair of ever finding the information they are looking for. They may thereby refrain from using dictionaries in their search for prepositional meanings. Through the use of concordances, however, learners may be able to pinpoint certain usages that either do not appear in dictionaries or are poorly presented. They may then be able to learn the relevant information inductively through careful scrutiny of the concordance samples. Although they may still have no clear idea about why certain prepositional collocations are allowed while others are not, this may gradually become apparent with sufficient practice and experience in using prepositions accurately. They may in time sharpen their intuitions and learn to distinguish the various senses of prepositions from each other and use them appropriately not only through memorization but also through applying their knowledge of a preposition's semantics and extended meanings. While information about frequency is useful in helping learners to collocate words correctly, there would also seem to be a place for helping learners become more aware of the semantic scope of prepositions and why they collocate in the way they do.

With regard to the sample sentences, Japanese learners usually have difficulty in discriminating *about* from *on* when used to mean *concerning*. The difference between these two prepositions does not appear to be very important, and indeed these two prepositions can be used interchangeably. However, when we examine the conventional patterns containing these prepositions, we find that the use of *about* just after *study* or *research* is rarely, if ever, found in the English corpus (Tables 12 & 13), even though a few instances of *a study/research about* ... were found when we examined a corpus of Japanese writing.

As for *information*, however, the frequency of the accompanying prepositions, *about* and *on*, is almost the same. This implies that even if the choice between the two seems to be rather arbitrary, researchers constantly favor the use of *on* with *study* and *research*, while they are not so consistent in choosing one of the two prepositions with *information* (Table 14). For the distinction between *study on* and *study about*, explanations and definitions given in dictionaries do not seem to be much help and instead may only serve to confuse learners (Lindstromberg, 1996, 2001). Particularly for Japanese learners, the distinction does pose a problem because there is one Japanese equivalent for these two prepositions, ... *ni tsuite* ($\sim i \subset \gamma i \subset \gamma$). When we look at the

Table 12:		Table 13:	Table 13:		Table 14:	
Positional		Positiona	Positional		Positional	
frequency for		frequency	frequency for		frequency for	
study (77,448)		research	research (2,713)		information	
1st right		1st right	1st right		(6,847)	
of	6594	on	135	1st right		
in	2905	in	102	about	795	
with	1280	into	48	on	732	
to	1023	to	40	from	338	
on	895	with	23	to	276	
by	808	for	16	for	255	
for	320	by	11	on	237	
at	231	of	7	of	48	
from	174	at	6	with	46	
under	51	over	4			
:	:	:	:			
about	1	about	0			

evidence obtained in the form of concordance and statistics, we can see that *on* is the much preferred preposition occurring immediately after *study* or *research*.

This kind of information may be useful in deciding which preposition to choose. Nevertheless, this does not explain the reason for the different collocational distribution of on and about when used to mean 'on the subject of' or 'concerning' a particular topic. To account for such differences, we should know that these two prepositions may also be distinguished in terms of formality in that on is used in more formal contexts while about is not (Quirk et al., 1985). Since academic writing may be considered a relatively formal affair, this would then account for the choice of on as the preferred collocate for study and *research* respectively. In addition, from the semantic perspective, on would seem to imply a more concentrated focus in contrast to about where the focus is more dispersed (Leech & Svartvik, 1975). This may be understood as derived from the literal sense of on as being 'positioned upon some particular base.' In this case, the extension of the spatial meaning of the preposition on serves to represent the image of the object of investigation (the topic) as the basis upon which study is positioned (with direct contact) for the purpose of elucidation (Lindstromberg, 1996). On the other hand, the preposition about has a wider, more scattered focus (without direct contact). It therefore has a less specific orientation than on so that the area of research is less clearly demarcated.

With respect to prepositions, therefore, it would seem sensible for learners to view the concordance lines and note the types of collocations that appear. The more common patterns and collocates could then be committed to memory and treated simply as contextually determined forms. However, the apparently arbitrary nature of prepositional fixing would preclude the need for any semantic interpretation that might help to clarify the role of the preposition in assigning meaning to its particular collocate. This is unfortunate, since a clear understanding of the spatial senses may help us to explain why one preposition rather than another is chosen to express a given meaning. In this way, it may be useful for learners to view prepositions in terms of a continuum of meaning senses extending from prototypical to metaphorical (Maclennan, 1994). The use of this type of imagery may also promote deeper cognitive processing and thereby assist in enhancing learner recall (Boers, 2000; Boers & Demecheleer, 1998).

6 Pedagogical Implications

In the literature on the learning of vocabulary, it has been shown that learners need to have opportunities to encounter lexical items in multiple contexts in order to engage in deeper processing and thereby derive a fuller understanding of their various meaning senses (Laufer, 1990; Schmitt, 1997). This type of intensive exposure to representative patterns of language use may therefore enable learners to better understand the ways in which certain words behave. In this respect, the insights gained from concordances may be used in the design of appropriate classroom activities to promote a clearer understanding of the typical uses of particular linguistic expressions (Thurston & Candlin, 1998). Certainly, learners should be made aware of how such words are bound together with other words so that they may learn to express their ideas with greater clarity and fluency. In this regard, care must be taken to ensure that awkward, non-native expressions are eliminated. Care should also be taken to focus on the particular collocations that are relevant to learners' needs and that may be of some benefit to them. Learners should be encouraged to explore their various functions and uses and adopt those patterns that are relevant to their own particular communicative purpose in writing. In this regard, it is useful to select key words in their particular field (most common, frequently used words) that may pose problems for learners.

Concordances should therefore be considered as a dynamic resource in that learners may use them as another type of text whereby they may see a certain word exemplified in a number of usage examples, which may serve to provide further exposure to the array of meanings it may express in different situations. Furthermore, the ability to conduct corpus-based research independently would obviate the need to have access to native speakers (who are not always available) and pave the way toward further learner autonomy. Language corpora may also be used by learners as a reference for the purpose of correcting their own lexical errors. By studying concordance samples of language use, they may derive the particular linguistic rules and patterns governing a given word's behavior (Johns, 1991; Makino, 1993; Todd, 2000). In this respect, it would appear that the use of concordances may be a valuable tool in encouraging learners to discover for themselves the syntactic and collocational properties of words.

At the same time, however, pedagogical decisions should not rely on frequency information alone since this might lead to the neglect of certain structures and expressions that, while relatively rare, might be of particular use to learners. Coupled with quantitative evidence, therefore, there is also a need for qualitative analysis to determine the particular communicative functions of recurring lexico-syntactic patterns (Conrad, 1999). It is also important to remember that concordance techniques are not completely objective in that subjective decisions are involved at various points regarding which particular items to analyze and certainly in the interpretation of results. Furthermore, it should be borne in mind that the patterns of language found through concordances do not necessarily offer suitable models that learners may reproduce in all circumstances. This is because the samples found cannot be expected to reflect typical usage in every case. Moreover, while the linguistic data in corpora are authentic, they are open to reinterpretation once they have been removed from their original context (Gavioli & Aston, 2001). Learners therefore have to understand that such data have a particular communicative function in a particular context and should not be considered as all-purpose items that can be used in completely different contexts (Milton, 1999). In view of this, rather than indiscriminately importing certain features found in concordances, learners should be encouraged to explore their various functions and uses and learn how to manipulate the patterns they find if they wish to achieve greater flexibility and balance in their writing.

References

- Astika, G. 1993. Analytical assessments of foreign students' writing. *RELC Journal*, 24(1), pp. 61-72.
- Beheydt, L. 1987 The semantization of vocabulary in foreign language learning. *System*, *15(1)*, pp. 55-67.
- Biber, D., & Conrad, S. 2001. Quantitative corpus-based research: Much more than bean counting. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35(2)*, pp. 331-336.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. 1999. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. Longman.

- Boers, F. 2000. Metaphor awareness and vocabulary retention. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4), pp. 553-571.
- Boers, F., & Demecheleer, M. 1998. A cognitive semantic approach to teaching prepositions. *ELT Journal*, *52(3)*, pp. 197-204.
- Conrad, S. 1999. The importance of corpus-based research for language teachers. *System*, 27, pp. 1-18.
- Engber, C. 1995. The relationship of lexical proficiency to the quality of ESL compositions. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 4(2), pp. 139-155.
- Francis, G., & Sinclair, J. 1994). I bet he drinks Carling Black Label: A riposte to Owen on corpus grammar. *Applied Linguistics, 14*, pp. 190-200.
- Gavioli, L., & Aston, G. 2001. Enriching reality: Language corpora in language pedagogy. *ELT Journal*, 55 (3), pp. 238-246.
- Gosden, H. 1996. Verbal reports of Japanese novices' research writing practices in English. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 5, pp. 109-128.
- Harley, B., & King, M. 1989. Verb lexis in the written compositions of young L2 learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 11*, pp. 415-440.
- Howarth, P. 1998. Phraseology and second language proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(1), pp. 24-44.
- Hunston, S., & Francis, G. 1998. Verbs observed: A corpus-driven pedagogic grammar. *Applied Linguistics, 19 (1)*, pp. 45-72.
- Johns, T. 1991. Should you be persuaded Two examples of data-driven learning materials. *English Language Research Journal, 4*, pp. 1-16.
- Kirsner, K. 1994. Second language vocabulary learning: The role of implicit processes. In N. Ellis (Ed.), *Implicit and Explicit Learning of Languages* (pp. 283-311). London: Academic Press.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. 1980. *Metaphors We Live By*. University of Chicago Press. Chicago/London.
- Laufer, B. 1990. Ease and difficulty in vocabulary learning: Some teaching implications. *Foreign Language Annals, 23 (2)*, pp. 147-155.
- Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. 1975. A Communicative Grammar of English. Longman.
- Leffa, V. J. 1998. Textual constraints in L2 lexical disambiguation. System, 26, pp. 183-194.
- Leki, I., & Carson, J. 1994. Students' perceptions of EAP writing instruction and writing needs across the disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), pp. 81-101.
- Lennon, P. 1998. Approaches to the teaching of idiomatic language. *IRAL*, 36(1), pp. 11-30.
- Lewis, M. 1993. The Lexical Approach. Hove: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lindstromberg, S. 1996. Prepositions: Meaning and method. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), pp. 225-236.
- Lindstromberg, S. 2001. Preposition entries in UK monolingual learners' dictionaries: Problems and possible solutions. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), pp. 79-103.
- Liu, E., & Shaw, P. 2001. Investigating learner vocabulary: A possible approach to looking at EFL/ESL learners' qualitative knowledge of the word. *IRAL*, *39*, pp. 171-194.
- Maclennan, C. 1994. *Metaphors and prototypes in the teaching and learning of grammar and vocabulary. IRAL, 32(2)*, pp. 97-110.

- Makino, T. 1993. Learner self-correction in ESL written compositions. ELT Journal, 47, pp. 337-341.
- Martin, M. 1984. Advanced vocabulary teaching: The problem of synonyms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 68(2), pp. 130-137.
- McCutchen, D., Covill, A., Hoyne, S., & Mildes, K. 1994. Individual differences in writing: Implications of translating fluency. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 86(2), pp. 256-266.
- Milton, J. 1999. Lexical thickets and electronic gateways: Making text accessibly by novice writers. In C. N. Candlin & K. Hyland, (Eds.), *Writing: Texts, Processes and Practices*, (pp. 221-243). London: Longman.
- Muncie, J. 2002. Process writing and vocabulary development: Comparing lexical frequency profiles across drafts. *System*, *30*, pp. 225-235.
- Nattinger, J. & DeCarrico, J. 1992. *Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Ohtake, H., & Morren, B. 2001. A corpus study of lexical semantics in medical English. *Studia Humana et Naturalia, 35*, pp. 15-45.
- Ohtake, H., & Morren, B. 2002. Bridging the gap between dictionaries and learners: From bilingual to monolingual dictionaries. *Studia Humana et Naturalia, 35*, pp. 1-30.
- Partington, A. 1998. Patterns and Meanings: Using Corpora for English Language Research and Teaching. John Benjamins: Amsterdam.
- Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. 1983. Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication*, (pp. 191-227). Longman: London.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. 1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar* of the English Language. Longman: London/New York.
- Rastall, P. 1994. The prepositional flux. IRAL, 32(3), pp. 229-231.
- Santos, T. 1988. Professors' reactions to the academic writing of nonnative-speaking students. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*, pp. 69-88.
- Schmitt, N. 1997. Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), Vocabulary: *Description, Acquisition, and Pedagogy*, (pp. 199-227). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sinclair, J. M. 1991. Corpus, Concordance, Collocation. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Snellings, P., van Gelderen, A., & de Glopper, K. 2002. Lexical retrieval: An aspect of fluent second language production that can be enhanced. *Language Learning*, 52(4), pp. 723-754.
- Stubbs, M. 2001. Words and Phrases: Corpus Studies of Lexical Semantics. Blackwell.
- Thurston, J., & Candlin, C. N.1998. Concordance and the teaching of academic *English*. *English for Specific Purposes, 17 (3)*, pp. 267-280.
- Todd, R. 2001. Induction from self-selected concordances and self-correction. *System, 29*, pp. 91-102.
- Willis, D. 1990. The Lexical Syllabus. Harper: New York; Collins: London.

Dictionaries Cited

- COD = *Concise Oxford English Dictionary.* J. Persall (Ed.). London: Oxford University Press, 2002.
- OALD = Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. S. Hornby (Ed.). London: Oxford University Press, 2000.

Text Cited

Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine, 14th CD Edition. A. Fauci, E. Braunwald, K. Isselbacher, J. Isselbacher, & J. Wilson (Eds.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1998.

Appendix

Original passage from 'Are You Man Enough?' in *Time Magazine* April 24, 2000, Vol. 155, No. 16:

But here it gets complicated. Does higher testosterone produce more aggressive behavior? Or does the more aggressive male – whose aggression was learned, say, at home or in school or in the neighborhood or on the team or in the culture at large – call for a release of testosterone from within himself for assistance?

Notes

- 1 Information about the Life Science Dictionary Project can be obtained at http://lsd.pharm.kyoto-u.ac.jp.
- 2 Information about MEDLINE can be obtained at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?db=PubMed.