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Collocations in legal language in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries

Kolokacje w języku prawa w jednojęzycznych słownikach online dla uczących się języka angielskiego

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SUMMARY

The thesis reports on a study into collocation in legal language in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries. It begins with a discussion of the concept of collocation, its role and importance in language comprehension and production. An overview of studies into collocational knowledge among language learners is offered, prominence being given to lexicography-oriented research. Subsequently, collocation is presented from the perspective of a specialised variety of a language. Primary focus is directed to legal discourse. In the discussion the issue of legal translation is given priority. Chapter One ends with a conclusion that collocation plays a major role in both legal English and legal Polish.

Chapter Two introduces the aims of the study, which concern dictionary treatment of collocations and assessing the influence of elements of microstructure and composition of collocations on their use and time of the completion of a collocation provision test. Chapter Two introduces research questions as well as detailed procedures of the selection of collocations and test design. As a final part, Chapter Two provides information on study participants.

Chapter Three presents the results of the study. First of all, an analysis of dictionary treatment of collocations is offered. In order to achieve the purpose of the analysis, each of the selected dictionaries is first presented separately. Subsequently, general conclusions are drawn, which mainly emphasise inconsistencies within dictionaries. Further, the chapter presents the results of the collocation provision test, which shows that the accuracy of use of legal collocations is significantly influenced by the interaction of access to collocation in a dictionary entry and collocation pattern. Moreover, the time needed to complete the collocation provision test is influenced by access. Hence, the results obtained demonstrate that access to collocations might be decisive in their use. The findings seem particularly thought-provoking in the context of technology use in education.

STRESZCZENIE

Rozprawa doktorska skupia się na zagadnieniu kolokacji w języku prawa w jednojęzycznych słownikach online dla uczących się języka angielskiego. Punktem wyjścia jest omówienie istoty kolokacji, jej roli i znaczenia w rozumieniu i produkcji języka. W rozdziale pierwszym dokonano przeglądu badań w zakresie stanu wiedzy na temat łączliwości wyrazów wśród uczących się języka. Następnie, zaprezentowano temat kolokacji z perspektywy specjalistycznej odmiany języka. W szczególności uwagę poświęcono dyskursowi prawa. Nacisk położono zwłaszcza na kwestię tłumaczenia języka prawa. Rozdział pierwszy zakończony jest konkluzją, iż kolokacje odgrywają kluczową rolę, zarówno w angielskim języku prawa, jak i w polskim języku prawa.

W rozdziale drugim przedstawiono cele badawcze. Pierwszy z nich stanowi analiza słownikowego podejścia do kolokacji. Drugi cel to dokonanie oceny wpływu elementów mikrostruktury słownika oraz elementów składowych kolokacji na ich użycie i czas wykonywania zadania poprzez test wymagający uzupełnienia kolokacji. W rozdziale drugim wskazano również pytania badawcze oraz szczegółową procedurę wyboru kolokacji i sformatowania testu. W końcowej części tego rozdziału scharakteryzowano uczestników badania.

W rozdziale trzecim zaprezentowano wyniki badania. W pierwszej kolejności dokonano analizy słownikowego podejścia do kolokacji. W tym celu najpierw przedstawiono z osobna każdy z wybranych słowników. Następnie, sformułowano ogólne wnioski, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem niespójności w słownikach. W dalszej części rozdziału przedstawiono wyniki testu wymagającego uzupełnienia kolokacji, zgodnie z którymi poprawność użycia kolokacji w języku prawa jest istotnie zależna od wzajemnego oddziaływania dostępu do kolokacji w haśle słownikowym i elementów składowych kolokacji. Ponadto, czas potrzebny do wypełnienia testu wymagającego uzupełnienia kolokacji jest zależny od dostępu do kolokacji. W konsekwencji osiągnięte wyniki pokazują, że dostęp do kolokacji może mieć decydujący wpływ na ich użycie. Powyższe ustalenia skłaniają do myślenia, w szczególności w kontekście wykorzystania technologii w edukacji.

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Introduction

Using a dictionary and the wealth of information it offers can be considered an intellectual endeavour. Dictionary users typically have their reasons to consult a dictionary. However, they are faced with a lot of data, out of which they attempt to extract what they actually need. One of the situations when the use of a dictionary might prove itself useful is translation. With such a task in mind, language learners would probably use bilingual dictionaries. Their teachers, on the other hand, would rather they consulted monolingual dictionaries (Lew and Adamska-Sałaciak 2015: 47f.). Notwithstanding the benefits monolingual dictionaries provide, the use of a foreign language in a dictionary might be challenging for learners. To address this challenge, monolingual learners' dictionaries (MLDs) appeared on the market in mid-20th century. The fundamental idea behind them has been to better respond to learners' needs, for example by simplifying the language used in such dictionaries (Cowie 1999: 14-25). Even though researchers (e.g. Lew and Adamska-Sałaciak 2015) have also promoted the use of bilingual learners' dictionaries, their availability is quite limited. In the case of the most popular monolingual English learners' dictionaries, many are available online for free. This is why the thesis concentrates on the use of the MLDs in language production, which in the present project constitutes translation of collocations.

With translation being a wide field of research, it is legal translation that is the subject of the thesis. As Bajčić emphasises, "law must be accessible so that anyone interested can find, read and understand it (after Nedzel 2008: 2). This heightened need for the accessibility of law is what sets it apart from other domains. Unlike other fields of knowledge, the field of law should be understandable to experts and non-experts alike. After all, law affects everyone" (2017: 27). It thus seems reasonable to conclude that in

light of European and world-wide integration and multinational cooperation, legal translation between English and other languages lies at the heart of international understanding. To expect language learners to accurately translate legal texts could be considered cruel, yet "[s]ometimes, even non-experts have to understand a specialized language, as is the case with legal language" (Bajčić 2017: 30). Such situations, however, may not only require language comprehension, but also production.

Out of the characteristic features of legal English and legal Polish collocation appears to be particularly interesting, bearing in mind learners' deficient collocational knowledge, as has been shown, e.g., by Marton (1977), Biskup (1990), Howarth (1998). These studies and research in the field suggest that collocation constitutes a challenge for learners especially in language production: learners may produce fewer collocations when compared to native speakers. Besides, errors within collocation are more frequent among learners than native speakers. Lexicographic studies have also demonstrated a number of problems learners face when asked to produce collocations, as was the case in Laufer' study (2011), in which the participants, having consulted dictionary entries, were able to correctly provide verbal collocates in no more than 44% of the situations Such a figure might suggest that learners do not make the most of the information they are presented with in dictionaries.

All the above-mentioned aspects have led to the idea behind this thesis. Its aim is twofold. First, the study analyses the dictionary treatment of collocations in legal language. Second, a collocation provision test assesses the influence of various modes of presentation of collocations on their use. The plan of this thesis is as follows. Chapter One introduces the concept of collocation. Different views of collocation are presented, with special importance attached to the function it plays in any language. Its position within foreign language learning and teaching is emphasised. An overview of studies on collocation is also offered, attention being drawn to lexicography-oriented studies. Additionally, Chapter One discusses the issue of legal translation. Legal varieties of English and Polish are scrutinised in order to demonstrate the role of collocation. Chapter Two provides an overview of the study, it discusses its aims and research questions. A detailed description of the procedure of selection of collocations is offered, as is the test design. Chapter Two provides details on the participants of the study and the procedure they followed. Finally, Chapter Three presents the results of the dictionary analysis. It offers general conclusions drawn from the investigation. The results of the experimental study are

also presented in Chapter Three. Last but not least, the limitations of the study are brought to light.

Chapter 1: Collocation and legal language

Chapter One discusses the concept of collocation viewed from different perspectives. The discussion highlights the importance of collocation in language, drawing attention to its role in foreign language learning and teaching. Past studies into learners' collocational knowledge are presented. Chapter One also provides an overview of lexicographic studies on collocation. Additionally, Chapter One outlines the characteristics of legal language, emphasising the central role of collocation in legal discourse.

The primary aim of Chapter One is to lay theoretical foundations for the present project. The following sections will allow a better understanding of the interrelation between collocation and legal language.

1.1. The concept of collocation

Although in 1933 Palmer (1933) brought awareness to the concept of collocation from the linguistic point of view, it was Firth's observation that "[y]ou shall know a word by the company it keeps" (1957: 11) that prompted numerous researchers to investigate the concept of combinations of lexemes, which can be seen as a very broad definition of the term *collocation*. Since that time, scholars have attempted to offer a more precise definition of collocation, yet arriving at one exhaustive and satisfactory definition has appeared to be particularly difficult. In fact, many definitions have been proposed: Seretan (2011: 131f.) offers a list of twenty-one best-known definitions of collocation (see also Zagórska's collection (2022: 91f.)). The definitions show considerable variation, which demonstrates that there exist different perspectives from which the concept of collocation may be viewed. The most prominent approaches are outlined in the subsequent sections.

1.1.1. The psychological view

In this approach, linguists focus on mental associations between words. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 284-288) use the term collocation to describe the association between regularly

co-occurring words. The focus of attention is, however, not on the regularity of such a co-occurrence; instead, the association itself as stored in the mind is in the spotlight. The power of such an association "results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another, because they tend to occur in similar environments" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 287). This definition underlines the fact that words are lexically related because they are members of the same semantic field. The definition may not seem precise enough, yet Halliday and Hasan concentrate on the function of such associations, i.e. the cohesive effect that collocations produce. In brief, collocation is a tool, a device which increases the level of cohesion in the text.

Leech (1974: 9-23) goes even further and finds a place of collocation within the discussion of a word's meaning. He distinguishes seven types of meaning, one of which is collocative meaning. It "consists of the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment" (Leech 1974: 17). Leech gives two examples of *pretty* and *handsome*, which both convey the message of good-looking; yet, the range of nouns they occur with is not identical, and thus helps to distinguish between the two words. Such associations are recorded in the mind and constitute an integral part of a word's meaning.

The two above-mentioned conceptualisations of collocation underline its psychological dimension; Hoey (2005: 5) sums them up stating that "collocation (…) is a psychological association between words (…) and is evidenced by their occurrence together in corpora more often than is explicable in terms of random distribution". This definition acknowledges a psycholinguistic aspect of collocation, but simultaneously it gives prominence to corpus linguistics and directs attention to statistically-oriented view of collocation (discussed more in 1.1.3).

1.1.2. The phraseological view

The beginnings of this approach date back to the 1930s when Palmer published his *Second interim report on English collocations* (1933). Although "a succession of two or more words that must be learnt as an integral whole and not pieced together from its component parts" (1933: title page) is not an unambiguous definition, Palmer directed scholarly attention to different kinds of combinations of words. In this approach, scholars concentrate

on defining criteria of collocation through what distinguishes collocation from other word combinations. Researchers such as Aisenstadt (1979) and Mel'čuk (1998) define collocation as word combinations which are relatively transparent in meaning but restricted in form, such as *lay the table* or *commit a crime*. From the phraseological point of view, on a continuum of word combinations collocations lie in-between free combinations and idioms (Benson et al. 1986: 252-255). Free combinations, occupying one end of the continuum, cover lexical combinations whose elements could further freely combine with various other items. Zagórska (2022: 94) provides an example of the verb *see* which, for instance, can be accompanied by nouns, such as *a car* or *a teacher*, or by adverbs, such as *suddenly*. Benson et al. (1986: 227-250; 2010: XIII-XXXI) distinguish lexical combinations from grammatical collocations made up of dominant nouns, verbs or adjectives and a preposition or a grammatical construction. On the other end of the continuum of word combinations are idioms, which are most fixed. Their form is highly restricted and almost invariant and their meaning is opaque, i.e. it does not stem directly from the meaning of individual words, e.g. *kick the bucket*. All the elements of a collocation in question are used in their restricted senses (Nesselhauf 2003: 226). In sum, as Aisenstadt (1979) and Cowie (1992) emphasise, semantic opacity is what distinguishes idiomatic word combinations from non-idiomatic ones.

Yet, collocability is not a state, but rather a range. Cowie (1981: 225-228) differentiates between free collocations and restricted collocations. He contrasts the free collocation *explode a bomb* and the restricted collocation *explode a myth*. In the latter example, the verb is used in its figurative sense and as such its collocational range is limited to nouns such as *myth*, *theory* or *belief*. Hence, meaning specialisation separates collocations from free word combinations, i.e. in collocations, unlike in free word combinations, one of the elements has a specialised meaning (figurative, technical or delexical). Additionally, elements of a collocation are not as easily substituted as compared to elements of free word combinations. This is precisely how Howarth defines restricted collocations (1996: 47). His division into four major phraseological categories, apart from restricted collocations, includes free collocations, figurative idioms and pure idioms. He argues that in free collocations individual elements can be replaced with any other words without a change in the meaning of the other element. Simultaneously, collocations are not idioms inasmuch as their meaning remains relatively transparent when one is familiar with the meaning of individual elements of the collocation in question. However, as Lewis asserts

(2000: 135), "very few collocations are truly self-evident or literal", which makes them not entirely predictable, as in *break the silence* (and not *interrupt*).

Despite intensified efforts, scholars have not reached a general agreement as to exact boundaries between collocations, free combinations and idioms. The boundaries of the categories are fuzzy and by enlisting the characteristics of collocations researches have been trying to arrive at a prototypical example of collocation (Herbst 1996b: 385). Terminology varies as well; for instance, while Benson et al. (1986) use the term free combinations to refer to words co-occurring freely, Cowie (1981) talks about open collocations, as does Lewis (2000). Further, word combinations which could be subsumed under the category of collocation also show some level of variation (more idiomatic *wide awake* vs less idiomatic *bad behaviour*; (Apresjan 2009)).

A significant contribution to the study of collocation was made by Hausmann (1984), who divided word combinations into bases and collocates. A base is independent, autonomous and as such selects its collocate (or collocator), which is dependent on the base. In the collocation *lay the table*, the base is the noun *table*, while the collocate is the verb *lay*.

Collocations, when defined as above, may pose a lot of problems to language learners since, as Woolard (2000: 29) exemplifies, students might not easily associate *heavy* with a smoker. The unpredictability of such combinations is then what makes them particularly interesting from the pedagogical point of view.

1.1.3. The statistical view

Firth's interest in the study of meaning led him to delve into collocation. On the whole, he operationalised collocation as a co-occurrence of certain words (two or more) within a certain space in a text. Following Firth (that is why this tradition is often called ((Neo-)Firthian), Halliday adopted the position that collocation is a co-occurrence of lexemes in a text, quantifiable as "the probability that there will occur, at n removes (a distance of n lexical items) from an item x, the items a, b, c" (1961: 276). Going one step further, Sinclair was the one who concentrated on computational technology employed in search of collocations in texts. Thus in practice, in this tradition scholars rely on statistical analysis in an attempt to identify significant word combinations (Klotz and Herbst 2016: 110).

The aim is to single out these combinations of lexemes which occur together more frequently than could be expected by chance and these are subsumed under the category of collocation (Hoey 1991: 6f.). In practice, significance can be expressed by various association measures, which aim to quantify the probability of lexemes to accompany each other (for the discussion of association measures see 2.5). The statistical view of collocation is in line with the idiom principle put forward by Sinclair (1991: 110), which assumes that language consists of a set of preconstructed phrases which are used as single entities even though they are, technically speaking, word combinations.

Within the statistical view, commenced by Firth, there are two research traditions which do not act as opposing interpretations, but rather as complementary understandings of the same concept. On the one hand, text-oriented studies on collocation focus primarily on the occurrence of words within some (short) space named a span. Such studies have been helpful in word sense differentiation. In contemporary work, analyses of collocation as a co-occurrence of words are based on actual language use and thus they offer insight into polysemy and fully embrace a data-driven approach. On the other hand, frequency-based studies on collocation concentrate on such co-occurrences of words which are statistically significant, i.e. two or more items co-occurring more frequently than would be expected by chance. In sum, these two traditions are not mutually exclusive, text-oriented and frequency-oriented studies complement each other and each covers up imperfections of the other. McEnery et al. (2006) summarise the ideas and state that Neo-Firthian traditions are those seeking characteristic co-occurrences of words. Collocation is, however, to be distinguished from colligation, which is a co-occurrence of a base with a certain grammatical class of words, such as *the house*. That is why frequency alone needs to be treated with caution and in search of lexical collocations content words (in contrast to function words) should be given priority.

Importantly, the statistical view of collocation should not be treated as the opposite of the phraseological view. The development of corpus linguistics has enabled scholars to statistically corroborate what they have established focusing on phraseology first. The statistical approach has shifted the attention from abstract definitions to more practical interpretations. The debate on collocations concentrates not so much on the definition of collocation itself and its fuzzy boundaries; emphasis is rather placed on statistical measures and their potential of collocation identification. The often-raised issue is the distance between the node and its potential collocates, i.e. the number of words to the left

and to the right of the node that should be taken into consideration while searching for collocations. It appears reasonable to state that the bigger the distance, the more information can be captured. On the other hand, it remains also true that the bigger the distance, the more insignificant pieces of information can be found. In all, statistical analyses have complemented phraseological intuitions.

1.1.4. Collocation in the study

In the present study, the author combines the phraseological and statistical standpoints and defines collocations as typically co-occurring pairs of words characterised by relative transparency of meaning and significant values of statistical measures (see more in 2.5). Following Hausmann's distinction between base and collocate (1984), the collocations selected for the study all have nouns as their bases and verbs, adjectives or participles (acting as modifiers) as their collocates.

1.2. The importance of collocation

The role of collocation in language has long been recognised by scholars (e.g. Hoey 2000; Altenberg and Granger 2001; Herbst 1996b). This interest and attention result from the fact that "[w]ithin the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally-occurring text" (Hill 2000: 49). Hill further notes that even 70% of language is a kind of fixed forms (2000: 53). Additionally, meaning is not an attribute of individual words, but it is created together by several words (Mahlberg 2006: 372). As a result, it is in the best interest of learners to focus on collocations in their language acquisition process. Fixed word combinations function as patterns which can and should be studied by language learners. Apparently, using fixed chunks of language decreases the processing load both in comprehension and production (Schmid 2003: 251). Consequently, the mental effort demanded for being engaged in conversations is reduced. Instead of processing every text word-by-word, native speakers make use of a large repository of ready-made chunks of language (Hill 2000: 54f.). Consequently, their performance becomes more fluent, both in terms of production as well as comprehension. The

same holds true for language learners, who, thanks to collocations, improve both in terms of fluency and accuracy (Nesselhauf 2003: 223). Cowie (1992: 10) goes even further when he asserts that phraseological knowledge is necessary to "perform at a level acceptable to native speakers". The challenge then for language learners is to use expressions which are not only grammatical, but also nativelike (natural and idiomatic). Such a selection is not problematic for native speakers (Pawley and Syder 1983), but language learners need to acquire this ability. That is why collocations should be given prominence in the context of language learning. Lewis (2000: 16) provides two broad reasons for teaching collocations. For one thing, collocations form a large group of items "which express often complex ideas very simply and yet precisely". For another, learners with a small repository of collocations are forced to grammaticalise more and use longer phrases. By giving priority to collocations, language learners need not face such unnecessary challenges.

The use of collocations appears to be even more powerful in specialised texts. As Hyland points out (2008: 4f.), the more natural word combinations a person uses, the more likely it is that they are members of a given community. More importantly, the typical collocations used within particular fields of study can differ from those present in general texts (Xiao and McEnery 2006). Hence, the collocations somebody uses attest to their familiarity with the subject being discussed.

Unfortunately, collocations pose a problem for language learners. As Laufer and Waldman illustrate (2011), even advanced learners of English, when compared to native speakers, use fewer collocations. However, it is not only the mere number of collocations used that attests to phraseological difficulties students experience. Precision leaves much to be desired as well. Learners encounter frequent problems when trying to produce correct collocations. Learners are also more lenient in terms of what they acknowledge as significant collocations (Granger 1998). This observation demonstrates that L2 learners' collocational knowledge is poorer than that of native speakers. Such conclusions have led foreign language teachers to concentrate more on collocations such as *false teeth* rather than those represented by *sandy beaches*. According to Herbst (2011: 29-33), the former combination appears particularly interesting from a language learner's perspective due to its unpredictability (why *false* and not *artificial*?). In fact, such word combinations need not turn out very difficult in comprehension, yet in production they cannot be predicted.

For this reason, the importance of collocation in language learning should not be over-looked.

1.3. Collocation in foreign language learning

Over the years collocation and collocation learning have received scholarly attention and have been a main focus of a number of studies. In the context of learning English as a foreign language, Marton (1977: 37) observes that the expressions produced by English majors in Poland are characterised by "a certain un-Englishness". Nonetheless, this un-Englishness does not result in communication break, but creates an impression of "something unnatural and foreign".

A much-employed technique in studies on collocation in foreign language learning has been translation. For example, Biskup (1992) compared two groups of learners of English: Polish students and German students. She asked the participants to translate lexical collocations from their mother tongues to English. The findings revealed that the participants had problems producing precise collocations. Instead, they resorted to compensatory strategies, such as paraphrasing, which yet turned out to be employed more frequently by the German students. The Polish students were not so eager to paraphrase and when they did not know the exact collocation in English, they did not give any answers. In her qualitative analysis, Biskup focused on the nature of the errors committed, with special attention given to L1 influence. She concluded that interference errors with two languages genetically relatively distant (Polish and English) resulted from transfer, e.g. in the form of loan translations. In the case of two languages genetically close to each other (German and English), students attempted to "anglify" German expressions (Biskup 1992: 91). Bahns and Eldaw (1993) in their study also observed a number of errors in verbal collocates provided by the German learners of English. These erroneous collocates constituted almost a half of all the errors committed. The problem with collocations language learners are confronted with, though, is more visible in production rather than in comprehension. In the study by Biskup (1990), the participants performed much better in L2-L1 translation compared to L1-L2 translation. This observation has been further corroborated by, e.g. Kroll and Stewart (1994) and Lim and Christianson (2013), who notice asymmetry in translating to and from a mother tongue. This apparent difficulty learners

face when producing foreign expressions has led researchers to focus on learners' productive skills.

Another technique commonly used by researchers has been cloze tasks. A case in point is the study by Farghal and Obiedat (1995). The authors studied two groups of learners: junior and senior English majors and language teachers of English. Collocational deficiencies were found in both groups. Among junior and senior English majors 18.3% of the provided responses were correct collocations. Language teachers produced correct collocations in 5.5% of the cases. Even though the tasks given to the groups were different (a blank filling test to junior and senior English majors and a translation task to teachers of English), poor collocational knowledge could be recorded. Farghal and Obiedat identified several compensatory strategies the learners implemented, such as synonymy, avoidance, transfer, and paraphrasing. Herbst (1996b) also decided to measure participants' collocational knowledge by means of a cloze test. He compared German learners of English to native speakers and found that the latter agreed more in terms of collocational choices. In turn, the answers provided by the learners showed more variation.

Although the majority of studies on learners' collocation knowledge revolved around production, studies on receptive collocational knowledge have not been non-existent. Gyllstad (2005) employed two tools to test learners' receptive knowledge of collocations. In a COLLEX test, the participants were asked to indicate which word combination out of the two they preferred. In each pair, one word combination was a correct collocation and the other was a pseudo-collocation. In a COLLMATCH test, the participants had to specify which verbs combine well with which nouns. After two administrations of the tools, Gyllstad's observations showed that the more advanced learners were, the more collocational knowledge they possessed and the most advanced Swedish learners achieved near-native-like results. However, the author himself wondered whether their results would have been comparable had their production skills been tested.

The above-mentioned research techniques all aim to elicit (desired) data from participants, either production data (more frequently) or comprehension data. Another significant branch in studies on collocation constitute analyses of collocations in learner language. In such studies, when researchers decide to gather the data fitting their purposes, data is collected by means of oral interviews or written tasks assigned to learners. The data then form a corpus whose analysis offers an insight into collocations produced by learners. What distinguishes such studies from those focusing on elicitation is the degree

of authenticity understood in terms of the participants' freedom of creation. Obviously, the participants are still limited by the task itself (Granger 2002: 8), but their production is freer and more spontaneous compared to elicitation-based studies. An example of a production-oriented study is the analysis of the learners' essays by Howarth (1996). The corpus of 22 693 words enabled him to inspect verb + noun collocations in written production. Quantitatively speaking, the learners used slightly fewer collocations than native speakers. In terms of the quality of the unnatural collocations produced, the learners tended to blend two existing collocations. Nevertheless, even the use of unacceptable (unnatural and non-native-like) collocations rarely resulted in the lack of intelligibility. It needs to be stressed that Howarth's corpus was comparatively small when juxtaposed with the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) founded and coordinated by Sylviane Granger from the University of Louvain. It is a corpus of essays written by upper intermediate and advanced learners of English and its current size amounts to 5.5 million words in 25 languages. ICLE enabled Granger (1998) to investigate the use of prefabricated patterns (collocations and formulae) among French learners of English. Having compared the learner corpus of 251,318 words with the native speaker corpus of 234,514 words, Granger concluded that learners "underuse native-like collocations and use atypical word combinations" (1998: 152).

Even though the techniques used by researchers may vary, studies on learner collocation have brought about several valid conclusions. What Marton's (1977) and Biskup's (1990) studies show is the difficulty of collocation production. This difficulty may manifest itself in the number of collocations used by learners compared to native speakers. Howarth (1998) observed that in learner writing conventional collocations constitute 25 percent of verb + noun combinations, while the percentage rises to 38 in the case of native speakers. The results of Granger's study (1998) demonstrate, in the same vein, that learners use fewer adverbial amplifiers ending in *-ly* than native speakers. Likewise, Erman's research (2009) into verb + noun and adjective + noun collocations also shows that native speakers outperform learners in terms of the percentage of collocations produced in writing (60% to 40%). However, there is also evidence (Durrant and Schmitt 2009) suggesting that the mere number of collocations used by learners when compared to native speakers does not necessarily differ. What differentiates the two groups is learners' overreliance on high-frequency collocations. Native speakers, by contrast, show more variation and make use of less frequent (but still strongly associated) word

combinations. Furthermore, in Granger's study (1998) the learners frequently used collocations which had a direct translational equivalent in the learner's L1 and happened to have similar collocational ranges. On the other hand, the learners noticeably underused incongruent word combinations (those without straightforward translational equivalence). As Bahns noted (1993: 59-62), such collocations are the ones which ought to be devoted special attention in the context of foreign language teaching so as to avoid a situation in which learners overuse certain expressions treating them as their "safe bets" (Granger 1998: 148) and simultaneously underuse those they are less confident in using.

Another interesting conclusion that could be drawn from previous research is the fact that learners make frequent mistakes within collocations. Laufer and Waldman (2011) found that about a third of verb-noun collocations produced by the learners was wrong. In the questionnaire created by Hoffmann and Lehmann (2000), the learners supplied correctly 34% of collocates, while native speakers reached the average percentage of 70. Additionally, errors within collocations constitute a substantial part of all the errors produced by learners. In Bahns and Eldaw's study (1993), incorrect collocates accounted for the majority of the learners' errors in translation. Concentrating on the nature of errors, in Biskup's study (1992), cross-linguistic influence was a source of the learner's collocational errors. Similarly, Martelli (2006) noted that L1 (in the study - Italian) played a relevant role in the production of inappropriate collocations since learners were influenced by what was acceptable in their mother tongue and attempted to directly translate counterpart collocations from their L1 into L2. Nesselhauf (2003) also observed that the influence of L1 on errors in collocations was considerable (it was responsible for 56 per cent of the errors). However, as Wray (2002: 182f.) observed, irrespective of learners' L1, formulaic language appears to be easily acquired at the beginning of learning, yet over time it lags behind the development of other linguistic skills. Consequently, collocations are problematic for learners even at advanced levels of L2 acquisition (as was corroborated by Bahns and Eldaw 1993 and Laufer and Waldman 2011).

On the whole, previous research allows to conclude that collocations constitute a challenge for language learners. In order to make this challenge surmountable, what is useful is effective EFL instruction whose aim is to familiarise learners with the concept of collocation and practise it in the classroom (Hill et al. 2000). Apart from activities undertaken during classes, dictionaries also offer help, the extent of which is discussed in section 1.4.

1.3.1. Congruent and incongruent collocations

Previous research shows that collocational errors are largely caused by the influence of EFL learners' L1 (Paquot and Granger 2012: 140) and the issue of (in)congruence seems to be critical. Collocations in learners' L2 can be either congruent or incongruent, compared with the equivalent collocations in their L1. The difference depends on whether there is a direct translation equivalent in a learner's L1 or not. As Wolter (2006: 742f.) illustrates, Japanese learners of English may find it difficult to describe a room as *small* because in their L1 it is rather characterised by *narrow*. Bahns (1993: 60) also gives examples of collocations in English whose literal translations in German result in collocational errors, e.g. *Kompliment machen* translated as *make a compliment* rather than *pay a compliment*. It has been claimed that incongruent collocations are more problematic for foreign language learners than congruent ones. The difference between congruent and incongruent collocations was what Yamashita and Jiang (2010) specifically concentrated on in their study. By asking the participants to decide whether or not a presented word combination was acceptable in English, the authors were able to observe that the language learners made more mistakes with incongruent collocations rather than congruent ones. They also reacted more slowly to the incongruent stimuli. Similarly, Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) tested the learners' receptive knowledge of collocations by a test COLLMATCH (mentioned above) and by a Lexical Decision Task, whose findings showed that words prime their collocates. However, in the case of learners, more priming was noticeable with congruent collocations rather than incongruent ones. The studies by Yamashita and Jiang (2010) and Wolter and Gyllstad (2011) indicate that congruent collocations are reacted to faster than incongruent ones, which suggests that learners' L1 heavily influences the processing of L2 collocations. The difference may be the result of lexical transfer, which facilitates the use of L2 words with direct equivalents in L1 (Jiang 2002: 634). Importantly, L1 transfer turns out to be more detrimental in the case of incongruent collocations. Thus, in the case of incongruence, heavy reliance on a mother tongue may be a hindrance, unlike in congruence when L1 could facilitate the use of collocations. Wolter (2006: 742) likened the mechanism to the concept of false friends and pinpointed that L1 lexical structure may misinform a learner about acceptable word combinations in L2. In brief, L1 does play a role in processing collocations and it is a dual role: it can be a help or a hindrance.

In the present project, half of the test collocations are congruent, composed of the words of the same grammatical class, i.e. a verb + noun collocation in English is a verb + noun collocation in Polish. The other half of the test collocations are incongruent, made up of the words of different grammatical classes, i.e. a verb + noun collocation in English is translated as a verb + preposition + noun collocation in Polish, which leads to the lack of direct translational equivalents.

1.4. Collocation in pedagogical lexicography

When approached from a phraseological perspective, collocation lies in-between idioms and free combinations, and as such deserves lexicographic attention. However, as Siepmann notes (2008: 193), lexicographers working for monolingual dictionaries may not easily recognise the fact that such relatively transparent combinations do exhibit a level of idiomaticity and should be given treatment in dictionaries. Here is where pedagogical lexicography may gain the edge, because, as designed with foreign language learners in mind, it should be aware of the difficulty collocations cause for learners. Further, bearing in mind that collocations are arbitrary and language-specific (Lewis 1997: 25f.) in the sense that they are combinations of words, not concepts, pedagogical dictionaries stand a reasonable chance of drawing learners' attention to typical collocations used in a given language.

Previous research into collocation in pedagogical lexicography could be roughly divided into two branches. One concerns *what* is included in dictionaries, whereas the other deals with *how* collocational knowledge is passed on to users.

The selection of collocations to be included in dictionaries constitutes the first stage lexicographers enter. As Alonso et al. note (2017: 43), collocations which find their place in dictionaries form "a very restricted group of syntactically classifiable groupings of words that can be easily collected and described in dictionaries". In terms of the fixedness of collocations, Alonso et al. observe that only some word combinations get fixed over time and these are present in dictionaries (2017: 71f.). Schmid (2003: 247), in turn, notes that more idiomatised collocations (restricted collocations) require more attention in dictionaries, since they can cause more problems for foreign learners, especially in production. Walker (2009) concentrated on the nature of the word combinations presented

in dictionaries. He observed that the three analysed learners' dictionaries (*OALD, LDOCE, COBUILD*) differed in the selection of collocates. Their inclusion in dictionaries depended on how well they exemplified the polysemous meanings of a given headword. Moreover, Walker noted that the collocates included in the dictionaries were typically the most frequent ones, yet it did not mean that they were most characteristic. According to Walker, unlike the most frequently occurring collocates, the most characteristic collocates have an advantage as they can effectively emphasise the differences between near synonyms. Walker gives an example of the characteristic collocation *contentious issue* contrasting it with the frequent item *key/main issue*. The former example could bring into the spotlight the differences between *issue*, *aspect* and *factor*. In a similar vein, Mittmann (2013) contrasted the two approaches towards collocation and their stances on what type of collocations should be included in dictionaries. She pinpointed that from a phraseological point of view, learners' dictionaries ought to provide users with unpredictable, semantically specific collocations, such as *a knotty problem*. Nonetheless, learners' productive needs do not have to concern only such specific collocations, they may well look for more standardised combinations, such as *a difficult problem*. On the other hand, from a statistical perspective, frequent collocates should not be neglected. Hence, what is included in learners' dictionaries is the result of these two different (not necessarily opposing) views on collocation.

Having selected collocations worthy of inclusion in dictionaries, lexicographers reach the stage of specifying the way(s) of presenting collocations. The treatment of collocational information in learners' dictionaries has been investigated by, for example, Nesi (1996), Moon (2008) and Walker (2009), who have focused on different aspects of dictionary treatment. Upon the analysis of collocational groups in the 1995 editions of dictionaries from Collins, Longman, Oxford and Cambridge, Nesi identified as many as eight different approaches towards presenting collocations:

- the collocational group is given headword status,
- the collocational group is listed as a subentry, possibly with a symbol to indicate that it is a compound or idiom,
- collocational groups are defined within the main entry,
- indication of collocational range is given in the definition,
- typical collocates are printed in dark type within examples,
- typical collocates occur within examples,

- collocates are grouped in boxes,
- sections outside the A-Z dictionary are set aside for the study of collocation.

Mittmann (1999) investigated the same dictionaries and observed that bold face was used to typographically mark certain phrases; however, there were considerable differences between the dictionaries in what they considered worthy of being marked this way; while the *Collins COBUILD* used bold face only occasionally, Longman was more generous in this respect. Moon (2008) compared the treatment of *river, rivet* and *riven* in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* in its 7th edition, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* in its 4th edition and the second edition of the *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*. In terms of collocates, the dictionaries seemed to focus exclusively on verbal and prepositional selections, disregarding adjectives. However, Moon observed that even though the typography employed by the dictionaries may have pointed to different information levels and types, collocation fixedness and frequency, "the distinctions may be oversubtle in places for users who have not familiarized themselves fully with the front matter and its explanations" (Moon 2008: 324). Herbst and Mittmann (2008: 106f.), having analysed the treatment of collocations in the British learners' dictionaries published between 2003 and 2009, pinpointed nine modes of presenting collocations:

- collocation given as an example but not marked in any special way,
- collocation highlighted in bold type in an example of a particular use without explanation,
- collocation highlighted in bold type in an example of a particular use with explanation,
- collocation highlighted in bold type under a particular use without explanation,
- collocation highlighted in bold type under a particular use with explanation,
- collocation highlighted in bold type in explanation of the headword with a separate explanation,
- collocation highlighted in bold type or in colour as a separate use with explanation,
- box with collocations,
- box contrasting synonyms and listing collocations.

The variation in the presentation strategies may have rested on sound foundations; yet, in the case of no typographical marking, collocations were not visibly distinguished from other insignificant word combinations, thus leaving a user with no clue as to which

expressions were noteworthy. On the other hand, the use of boxes deserved credit, though the dictionaries seemed inconsistent in terms of the contents of such boxes and the amount of linguistic terminology needed (Herbst and Mittmann 2008: 107ff.). Further, Mittmann (2013: 504f.) took notice of the employment of collocation boxes in English learners' dictionaries. She noted their potential as dictionary tools reflecting current advances in linguistic theory, by drawing users' attention to combinatorial properties of language. Not surprisingly and in line with previous research, she also spotted inconsistencies in highlighting collocations in learners' dictionaries. Handl (2008) also focused on the presentation techniques implemented in learners' dictionaries. She observed that even though dictionaries claimed to acknowledge the importance of word combinations for EFL learners, the modes of presenting collocations were inconsistent and unclear; she wondered "how is the learner to know if a co-occurrence in an example sentence is just a chance combination or a recurrent collocation that is worth remembering?". Likewise, in monolingual dictionaries, as Heid (2004: 733f.,737) noted, collocational data were not visibly marked within examples, leaving the user unaware of the status of certain word combinations. Therefore Handl (2008: 62f.) proposed that learners' dictionaries could visually provide information on the strength of attraction between elements of a collocation in the form of square dots differing in size and number. However, interesting as it was, the suggestion has not been adopted in learners' dictionaries.

In lexicographic considerations about how to present collocational information, dictionary users have had their say. One branch of lexicographic studies into collocation has concentrated on dictionary consultation and the use of collocations. Atkins and Varantola (1997) found that seeking collocational information was not particularly common among the learners as only 10 percent of all look-ups concerned collocations. This finding could suggest that raising learners' awareness in terms of lexicographic tools aiding collocation use might be useful.

Laufer (2011) investigated the effect of dictionary consultation on the production of collocations. The participants were asked to complete English sentences by translating verbal collocates presented to them in Hebrew or Arabic. They were allowed the use of dictionary entries from one bilingualised and two monolingual dictionaries. The dictionary entries did turn out to be helpful as their use contributed to 150% more correct collocations provided by the intermediate learners and 96% in the case of pre-intermediate learners in comparison with what they had supplied without the dictionaries.

Nevertheless, the intermediate participants provided 44.2% of the correct answers, while for the pre-intermediate group the rate was 34.9%. Such results could by no means be considered satisfactory. Interestingly, quite frequently (in nearly half of the look-ups) the learners thought they had found a correct collocate, while in reality they had not. Further, the learners reported they could not find certain collocates even though these were present in the entries in example sentences (though in a different form). Additionally, Laufer remarked on various treatment collocations receive within one dictionary (LDOCE). For example, some pairings were present in the collocation box, while others were not; some were bolded, while others did not receive any special typographical marking. The study demonstrates that awareness of what collocations are is potentially helpful, as is reliable instruction on the part of a teacher. Further, Laufer made a case for lexicographic presentation techniques which give collocations "both prominence and easy access" (2011: 45).

In the era of technology playing a major role in second language acquisition, Dziemianko (2010) investigated to what extent electronic and paper dictionaries were useful in L2 production and reception. To explore that, upper-intermediate and advanced English learners were asked to explain the meaning of selected single words and fill in missing prepositions in collocations. During the main test, 30 participants used a paper version of the *Collins COBUILD* dictionary and 34 consulted its electronic version. The results turned out to be quite optimistic since both groups scored over 92% in both tasks, yet an electronic medium proved more advantageous (in the productive task the success rate was 92.2% in the paper dictionary group and 98.5% in the electronic dictionary group). In both tasks (receptive and productive) and a delayed retention test, the electronic dictionary proved to be more useful. In a replication study, Dziemianko (2011) used the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* in its paper and electronic versions. The success rate exceeded 95%; however, the difference between the dictionary formats was not significant (in the productive task it was 96% in the paper dictionary group and 95.4% in the electronic dictionary group). Dziemianko (2011: 97f.) attributed the difference to excessive noise in the digital *Longman* dictionary (animations, advertisements etc.). In another replication, Dziemianko (2012) employed the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* in paper and CD-ROM versions. Once more, the mean score was high, exceeding 93%. The difference due to dictionary form did not prove significant (in the productive task the paper dictionary group obtained 95.2% of the correct answers and the electronic dictionary group 93.1%). From the point of view of the present project, what is positive

though is the high scores achieved in both studies, which show that dictionaries could be useful to learners in productive tasks involving collocations.

Chen (2017) also investigated the contribution of a learner's dictionary to the production of collocations. In the study, 52 Chinese university students were asked to provide the missing verbs in verb + noun collocations. In the main test, the participants could consult the electronic version of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary*. Importantly, the dictionary offered three different modes of presentation of collocational information, i.e. "[f]or the 12 target collocations, three were given as examples and placed right after the definition of the base; four were included and explained in the IDM [Idiom] section of the base entry and five were explained in the IDM section of the collocate entry which can be retrieved by clicking on the hyperlink label provided in the base entry" (Chen 2017: 234). Chen's results showed that the dictionary significantly improved the scores obtained by the participants: they successfully completed 49.1% of the verbal collocates compared to just 2.1% of correct answers without any dictionary. However, this result was still considered unsatisfactory; indeed, having the dictionary at their disposal, the participants provided correct answers only half the time. What is interesting (in the context of the present project) is that the hyperlink function was rarely used, the mean being 0.29 words. Such low usage is disappointing, given that the participants were familiar with the dictionary and the author had instructed the students on how to use the dictionary. Chen (2017: 246) suggested that the participants' dictionary use skills were inadequate, the participants were found to be careless, impatient and unwilling to dig deeper. One of the conclusions is then a pressing need for a teacher's guidance in terms of the use of a learner's dictionary, especially in an electronic version.

The results obtained by Chen (2017) were better than those observed by Laufer (2011), but worse than those seen by Dziemianko (2010, 2011, 2012). Chen (2017: 244) attempted to explain the differences by referring to the nature of collocations selected in the studies, "the collocations used in the present study were low frequency combinations of high frequency verbs and nouns, so the participants may have processed them by combining individual words; on the contrary, Dziemianko used prep. + n collocations in which the nouns were totally new to the participants, so they may have treated the target collocations holistically like single words. In addition, the proficiency level of the participants in Dziemianko was higher than those in the present study, which may imply, though not necessarily, that they were more skilful dictionary users".

In yet another study, Dziemianko (2014) investigated the effects of lexicographic presentation and positioning of collocations. Intermediate learners were asked to fill in English sentences with missing translations of Polish collocations with the assistance of specially designed dictionary entries, in which the position (two levels: entry-initial or entry-final) and presentation (three levels: box or bold before examples or bold within examples) of collocations were manipulated. When it comes to the position of the target collocations, it was observed that the entry-final condition proved more successful, the participants correctly completed the sentences in 63.8%, whereas in the entry-initial condition the success rate was 50%. Taking presentation into account, the box condition proved relatively less successful with 44.6% correct answers, the success rates for collocations bolded before examples was 62.5% and for collocations bolded within examples - 63.6%. However, the interaction of conditions showed that in entry-initial collocations, the presentation mode did not significantly influence the percentage of correct answers (roughly 50%). On the other hand, in entry-final collocations, the box condition was considerably less useful, leading to success in 41% of the gapped sentences. In the case of collocations bolded before examples, the participants were successful in 76.4% of the sentences and with collocation bolded within examples – in 73.9%. On the whole, the treatment of collocations in dictionaries influenced their use. While it depended both on the positioning and presentation of collocations within entries, the effect of presentation was stronger.

A major issue arising from user studies is acquiring dictionary skills needed to look up collocations. It could have happened that unsatisfactory results participants achieved resulted (at least partially) from their inability to make the most of dictionary entries. Consequently, some researchers have focused on dictionary skills needed to find and use collocations. In her study, Kim (2017) investigated the effects of teaching collocation dictionary skills on the learners' ability to extract collocational information from dictionaries. Indeed, after the training sessions their performance improved: for the low-intermediate group the success rate in providing collocates rose from 39% to 88% and for the advanced group from 51% to 89%. Hence, the research shows that learners can benefit from dictionary skills instruction. The students' comments collected by Kim also demonstrate that learners view such teaching positively and it is a teacher's job to equip learners with competence for using dictionaries to the fullest.

One of the underlying components of reference skills is the ability to locate collocations within entries, which is what Lew and Radłowska (2010) investigated. In their study, they concentrated on the findability of collocations in a general-purpose learner's dictionary and a dictionary of collocations. More specifically, the learners were asked to complete translations of Polish sentences into English with the help of dictionary entries. With the assistance of a dictionary of collocations, the learners provided 49% of the correct answers, in the case of a general-purpose dictionary, the success rate was 68%. However, the difference did not reach statistical significance, one of the possible factors being small sample size (18 students). Nevertheless, Lew and Radłowska (2010) noted that a general-purpose dictionary may have turned out to be more helpful in locating collocations because of its example sentences and occasional glosses. Both these elements may have reassured the learners that they had found the right collocate.

In her study, Chen (2022) focused on the effect of teaching dictionary skills on students' performance. The participants were asked to complete English sentences with missing verbs whose translation equivalents in Chinese they were provided with. The participants were divided into three groups: group A could use a dictionary (*LDOCE*) after receiving a training session on how to search for collocations in the dictionary, group B could use a dictionary without prior instruction and group C did not use a dictionary; instead they were explicitly taught the target collocations. In the main test, group A, on average, obtained 6.21 correct answers (out of 10), in group B the mean result was 3.63, while in Group C it was 4.37. The difference between groups A and B reached statistical significance. Screen recordings enabled Chen to examine more closely lookup skills of these two groups. As a result, Chen noted that the participants in group B were more likely to search equivalent verbs to the ones presented in Chinese, instead of looking up noun bases of the collocations. Even when the participants found an appropriate entry, they were confused by the microstructure, e.g. they unnecessarily focused on parts of an entry irrelevant from the point of view of the task in question. It cannot be left unnoticed (in the context of the present project) that a majority of the students who were not instructed on the design of the dictionary did not click on hyperlinked labels. These observations led Chen to conclude that efficiency of dictionary use among those not trained beforehand left much to be desired. Insufficient levels of conscientiousness, patience and attentiveness contributed to an unsatisfactory score of 62.1% in the previously-trained

group. Nevertheless, Chen believed in future improvements by pinning her hopes on "systematic and comprehensive dictionary use instruction" (2022: 25).

Alonso-Ramos (2008) concentrated on whether semantic and syntactic details on collocations help learners identify correct word combinations. She asked 25 intermediate learners of Spanish to choose one collocation of the three provided as endings of Spanish sentences. She compared the learners' performance without any dictionary and with two types of collocation dictionaries: one with semantic labels and syntactic tags and the other without these types of information. All in all, because of small sample size, Alonso-Ramos (2008) could not draw any statistically significant conclusions; yet, she did observe better results when the learners consulted a collocation dictionary providing semantic and syntactic information on collocates. However, there were also cases when the use of a dictionary did not help the learner at all. Nevertheless, Alonso-Ramos (2008: 1221ff.) included a couple of concluding remarks, one of which concerns the need of a teacher's guidance in terms of dictionary skills.

What the above-mentioned studies show is that dictionary treatment of collocations may be varied and inconsistent. Dictionary users may not realise the rationale behind the use of certain techniques, even though these might be conceived of by lexicographers as meaningful. Another inescapable conclusion is that while dictionaries may be helpful in collocation reception and production, users do not always exploit the full potential of dictionary entries. Such an observation may be attributed to users' insufficient dictionary skills.

1.4.1. Collocation explained in dictionaries

It seems interesting to analyse how the five most prestigious British learners' dictionaries explain the idea of collocation to their users. The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (*OALD*) appears to be quite economical. In most entries, collocations are present in examples (with various forms of typographical marking, see more in 3.1.1) and there is a section on collocation from the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*. However, upon unfolding, only the beginning of the entry is visible, an access code is needed to gain full access. Yet, on its website, the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* offers to "help you to express your ideas naturally and convincingly", which is in line with the current state of

knowledge. The dictionary shows "which words work together" and it knows this thanks to the use of the Oxford English Corpus (consisting of three billion words). Unfortunately, from regular *OALD* entries there is no direct hyperlink to this explanatory site, so users may not realise the value of information presented in sections on collocations. The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (*LDOCE*) only states that there are collocations in the dictionary. Apart from this information, there is no further guide or explanation of what a user may find in the sections on collocations. The *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary* (*COBUILD*) for most headwords offers a section on collocations, marking it as a beta version. What is particularly useful is a sign asking the question "[w]hat's a collocation?". It is a hyperlink to a Collins blog post in which there are five paragraphs explaining the concept. From this description, a user can learn that collocations are "words that are often used together". There are a few examples offered with different colours marking collocates and bases (only collocates are named as such). The collocations featured in the dictionary are based on the Collins "corpus, linguistic algorithms and lexicographic expertise". All these sources are meant to help identify "the most common and significant collocations", so apparently some statistical association measures are computed from corpus data. The next section provides a rationale for the use of collocations along with further examples. When the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (*CALD*) explicitly offers collocations with the headword, it states that these are "words often used in combination with *the headword*". It does not offer any further explanation. Yet, from the main website of Cambridge dictionaries, a user can choose a tab on grammar and find there a web adaptation of the publication of *English Grammar Today: An A–Z of Spoken and Written Grammar*. In the section *Using English* collocation is given some treatment. "Collocation refers to how words go together or form fixed relationships" points to the phraseological view of collocation, especially that a user further learns that strong collocations are "quite fixed and restricted". The description offers multiple examples of strong and weak collocations and discusses the differences between them. Within regular entries in sections on collocations the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (*MEDAL*) includes a hyperlink to the website about the *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary*. From a few paragraphs offered there, a user can learn that collocations are "words that are often used together", but attention is brought to their unpredictability, an aspect raised by, for instance, Herbst (1996b) in his considerations about the difference between *sandy beaches* and *false teeth*. Additionally, the role of collocation in naturalness,

typicality and fluency as well as word sense disambiguation is stressed. Summarising what the learners' dictionaries present in an attempt to explain what collocation is, it needs to be concluded that *COBUILD* and *MEDAL* stand out. The important factor is that both these dictionaries provide hyperlinks to explanatory sites within their sections on collocations. In addition, the supplied information seems to be precise and simultaneously not overwhelming for users. Thus, it stands a realistic chance of being user-friendly and helpful.

1.5. Languages for Specific Purposes

English Language Teaching (ELT) remains a vast area of research and practice. Such a large field is further divided into teaching English as a Mother Tongue and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or more restrictively: English as a Second Language (ESL). EFL then could be further subdivided into General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Here is where one can find numerous specialised varieties of English, such as English for Medical Studies or English for Psychology and here is where what could be called Legal English belongs. The existence of such subtypes implicates that "language is used for specific purposes", which, however, "does not imply that it is a special form of the language (…)" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 18f.). Therefore, specialised languages cannot be entirely separated from general language (Bajčić 2017: 33). Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 18f.) rather insist that ESP should be understood as an approach to language teaching in which the learner's needs are in the centre of attention. Even though this statement is not particularly specific, there can be listed several key issues in ESP. Dudley-Evans and St John (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998), influenced by Strevens (1988), enumerate absolute and variable characteristics of ESP. The absolute characteristics mainly revolve around the belief that in ESP specific needs of the learner and the specificity of the discipline are prioritised. Hyland (2022: 216) summarises the idea by pointing out that ESP is about "real people communicating in real contexts". As a result, the language taught (grammar, lexis, register, skills etc.) is adjusted to the two above-mentioned central factors of ESP. The variable characteristics, in turn, concern the issues of the learner's age and level of proficiency and specific methodologies which may be used in ESP (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 4f.). All in all, ESP is a learner-centred

approach (Anthony 2018: 16), which assumes that non-native learners of English use it for particular reasons. Different learners will need English in different situations, for different reasons. As a result, the English they will need might differ. In view of the fact that "there are some features which can be identified as 'typical' of a particular context of use and which, therefore, the learner is more likely to meet in the target situation" (Hutchinson and Waters 1987: 18), it is believed that these features should be taught to the learner.

1.5.1. Legal English

Legal English (LE) is one area of ESP. As Northcott (2013: 213) points out, the term itself may not be unambiguous as some believe that LE refers to legalese ("turgid, complex, traditional style" difficult to understand for laypeople) and others treat LE as Anglo-American law. Hence, the use of the label English for legal purposes (ELP) has been preferred as a clearer referent. Its subtypes include English for academic legal purposes (EALP), English for occupational legal purposes (EOLP) and English for general legal purposes (EGLP). However, Northcott herself decides to stick to the term Legal English and such a label will be used in the present work to refer to the use of English in legal discourse. Importantly though, defining legal discourse is not easy. This type of discourse includes a variety of texts, such as judicial decisions, law reports or witness examination (Goźdź-Roszkowski 2013).

For L2 learners, Legal English may present a number of challenges due to the fact that "[e]ach national legal system uses terminology that does not necessarily correspond with the legal languages of other countries" (Brand 2009: 22). As a result, concepts in an English legal system and terms to name these concepts that function in an English language do not have to exist in other systems. Unique legal concepts may render themselves untranslatable. The situation aggravates when several languages come into play (Kischel 2009: 10f.). For example, there are 24 official languages of the European Union and there need to be 24 language versions of the EU international law, which leads to unavoidable approximation in translation (McAuliffe 2013: 880ff.). Additionally, legal English does have its characteristic features which may be challenging for foreign language learners.

1.5.1.1. Lexical features

Cao (2007: 20f.) points to lexicon as a characteristic of legal language. Having analysed one sentence (20-line-long) from a Citibank loan form, Danet (1980) identified a number of lexical features characterising LE, among which there are: technical terms (e.g. *distraint*), common terms with an uncommon meaning (e.g. *action* for *lawsuit*), words of Latin, French and Old English origin (e.g. *subpoena*), polysyllabic words (e.g. *obligation*), unusual prepositional phrases (e.g. *in the event of default* for *if the borrower defaults*), doublets (e.g. *rights and remedies*) or - how Mattila (2013: 321f.) puts it – repetitions (e.g. *null and void*, *fit and proper*), formality (the use of *shall*), (over-)precision. Polysemy is noticeable too. For example, Fillmore (1982: 127) sheds some light on the use of the noun *suspect*. He points out that in the legal doctrine the term is used to denote a person accused of a crime but not held guilty. However, journalists seem to use the term even when there is nobody accused of committing a crime, such as in the sentence "[p]olice investigating the murder have found no clues as to the identity of the suspect". The difficulty of LE then lies in vocabulary which is, to a considerable extent, system-bound and culture-specific (Biel 2008: 22f.). Legal vocabulary faces the challenge of being precise and flexible at the same time (Riley 1996: 72). On the one hand, words need to be precise to clearly refer to legal concepts. On the other hand, the same words should allow for a certain level of generalisation so that they could be used in different contexts (Wagner and Gémar 2013: 739). Bajčić calls it "the paradox of legal language" (2017: 52).

Among characteristic lexical features of legal English, the role of phraseology cannot be overlooked. Legal phraseology remains affected by the structure and nature of legal terminology (Biel 2014a: 42; Mroczyńska 2020: 131). Hence, "phraseology, and specifically collocations, act as a tool to express complex interrelations between legal concepts"(Mroczyńska 2020: 131).

To recapitulate, Alcaraz and Hughes (2002: 6-18) enumerate the leading features of legal English, which are: Latinisms (e.g. *prima facie*), terms of French and Norman origin (e.g. *salvage*), archaic adverbs and prepositional phrases (e.g. *hereinafter*, *without prejudice to*), redundancy (doublets and triplets; e.g. *alter and change*), frequency of performative verbs (e.g. *agree*), euphemisms and contemporary colloquialism (e.g. *gross indecency* and *money laundering*). All these above-mentioned features make legal English

specific inasmuch as while it is not a different language from general English, it is a specific type of language use.

1.5.1.2. Syntactic features

Apart from lexical features, while describing what legal English is like, it should be stated that characteristic legal syntax is formal and impersonal (Cao 2007: 21). Sentences are long and structurally complex with occasional absence of punctuation (Salmi-Tolonen 2004: 1173f.; Williams 2005: 33f.). More specific syntactic features include nominalisations, passives and conditionals (Goźdź-Roszkowski (2013: 4) labels it "the excessive use of the passive voice, conditionals"), unusual anaphora, prepositional phrases, unique determiners, impersonality, negatives, parallel structures (Danet 1980: 477-481). The use of such complex syntactic features leads to wordiness (and, consequently, size) of legal documents (Mattila 2013: 322f.), which may be actually intended, since as Mattila summarises, old and often wordy phrases are appreciated more. As a result, legal texts maintain an adequate level of formality (Alcaraz Varó and Hughes 2002: 8f.)

1.5.2. English Eurolect

English is an official language of the European Union. Most EU documents are drafted in English and subsequently translated into all the EU languages (Somssich et al. 2010). As Mori pinpoints (2018: 63), the choice of English, which is intertwined with the common law traditions, is problematic, because EU legal concepts are based on the civil law. As a result, EU English (known as an English Eurolect) is a variety of English used for the EU purposes. As such, it may differ from legal English used for domestic purposes.

EU English is known for its vocabulary which needs to serve the purpose(s) of EU legislation. As Gardner indicates, EU vocabulary, among others, "includes words that do not exist or are relatively unknown to native English speakers outside the EU institutions" (2016: 3). As such, they are very much context-specific. Similarly to legal English (without further specification), there are words which apart from their common meaning acquire a specific EU legal meaning (Sandrelli 2018: 71). Examples include words such

as *regulation* or *accession*. Additionally, archaisms (e.g. *thereof*) and Latinisms (e.g. *inter alia*), loanwords (e.g. *force majeure*), calques (e.g. *competent authorities* from French), compounds (e.g. with the prefix *inter-*) are also frequent in EU English (Sandrelli 2018). Robertson (2010a: 158) also takes notice of neologisms (e.g. *pigmeat*) which distinguish EU English from more traditional English. Formality as well is a trademark of EU English. Apart from terminology, the use of the modal verb *shall*, which still holds its firm position (Biel 2014b), increases the level of formality of a text.

In terms of syntactic features, it is recommended that EU English should make use of "sentence structures which respect the multilingual nature of union legislation" (Joint practical guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission for persons involved in the drafting of European Union legislation 2015: 16). In practice, as Robertson (2010b: 3) pinpoints, "EU language (…) is drafted with an eye to translation", which calls for simple, clear sentences which facilitate understanding and translation. For example, Sandrelli (2018: 84f.) observes that impersonal structures *it is* + adjective are avoided. However, subjunctives are quite frequently used, which shows that on the one hand, EU English is conservative (archaisms, Latinisms, *shall*); on the other hand, it is considerably influenced by the multilingual environment of the EU (loanwords, neologisms).

There are certain recommendations concerning the use of English as a lingua franca in the EU. In principle, legal acts should be drafted in a clear, simple and precise manner (Joint practical guide of the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission for persons involved in the drafting of European Union legislation 2015: 10). Consistency of terminology and avoidance of over-specificity are recommended too. Such a way of preparing documents may ideally lead to fewer problems in translation.

1.5.3. Legal Polish

Within the Polish tradition of research into the relationship between law and language, Wróblewski (1948: 140) initiated making a distinction into the language of legal acts (*język prawny*) and the language of legal practice (*język prawniczy*) used to discuss what has been included in legal acts . However, there have been suggestions as to a more general label to cover the two branches of studies. The suggested name *język prawa* (Pieńkos

1999: 14; Wronkowska 2005: 62; Jopek-Bosiacka 2006: 18) could be literally translated as *the language of the law*. Nevertheless, since *The EUR-Lex Corpus* used in the selection of test items in the study collects texts of European Union law in the form of, among others, agreements and treaties as well as opinions and recommendations and to directly juxtapose it with legal English (as a branch of the Language for Specific Purposes framework), in the present project such a general name for language used for legal purposes will be *legal Polish*.

1.5.3.1. Lexical features

Polish legal texts are characterised by the inclusion of specialised terminology, which increases the level of precision (Jopek-Bosiacka 2006: 30). As in the case of legal English, in legal Polish there can be found terms which are freely used in common speech, yet within the field of law they acquire uncommon (specialised) meanings through the process of terminologisation (Buttler 1979). Hałas (1995: 25) provides an example of different types of loans (*loan* and *lending for use*). This is why legal texts frequently include definitions so that common terms are unambiguously characterised within their legal setting (Zieliński 2012: 160f.; Gębka-Wolak and Moroz 2019: 30). Moreover, even specialised terms are polysemous. For example, Zieliński (1999: 58f.) points out that the meaning of *wina* (*guilt*) in criminal law and civil law may differ. Furthermore, similarly to legal English, precision needs to be balanced with generalisability (Zieliński 1999: 59). This is why certain expressions, such as *high* or *exceptional*, have to be viewed from the perspective of specific situations in which the terms are used. Interestingly, word combinations (or rather term combinations) are frequent in legal Polish (Moroz 2020: 165f.; Jopek-Bosiacka 2006: 31). The reasons include language economy, strive for precision and the fact that Polish is an inflectional language. The result is, for example, *warunkowe zawieszenie wykonania kary* (*conditional suspension of the execution of a sentence*). Euphemisms (e.g. *obcowanie płciowe* (*intimacy*) for *stosunek płciowy* (*sexual intercourse*)) and Latinisms are quite common as well (Jopek-Bosiacka 2006: 33-35). Zieliński (2012: 190f.) draws attention to neologisms and their types, out of which, in the context of the present project, phraseological neologisms seem relevant. Zieliński points out that such neologisms are new from the point of view of common speech. He gives an example of

wina domyślna (*intentional guilt*), arguing that in everyday language guilt is inextricably linked with intentionality. Another important aspect in legal Polish is the use of conjunctions *lub* and *albo*, which are both translated in English as *or*. However, as Jopek-Bosiacka (2006: 35-38) warns, *lub* joins conditions which can co-exist, while *albo* introduces conditions which cannot happen jointly. Thus, care is needed while translating conjunctions, although one can find numerous examples of their incorrect use in legal texts (Malinowski 2020: 83-90).

1.5.3.2. Syntactic features

According to Zieliński (1999: 60f.), at the surface level the syntax of legal Polish and everyday Polish does not differ. Gębka-Wolak and Moroz (2019: 31) also note that syntactic rules of general, everyday Polish are applied in legal Polish. Yet, semantically legal sentences are treated not only as carriers of information (be it prohibition or entitlement), but they are interpreted as legal norms and principles. This is why the syntax of legal texts may be considered specific, for example because of numerous nominalisations (Gębka-Wolak and Moroz 2019: 31) and gerunds (Moroz 2014: 69f.).

Polish legal texts strive to be concise, which is reflected in the fact that sentences serve more than one function, e.g. introducing prohibition and indicating adequate punishment (Zieliński 1999: 55f.). Such an emphasis on conciseness leads to avoidance of syntactic redundancy: whenever possible, repetitions, referents etc. are not stated again. This approach should result in lack of wordiness, although sentence length increases.

Sentences in legal Polish are frequently written in the indicative mood (stating that something is the case), which is meant to convey the binding power of legal norms (Jopek-Bosiacka 2006: 39). Modal verbs and constructions (e.g. *powinien* (*should*), *jest obowiązany* (*is obliged to*), *nie może/nie wolno* (*must not*)) also find their place within legal Polish. Jopek-Bosiacka (2006: 42) emphasises the use of *mieć prawo* (*have the right to*) and its English equivalent with the modal verb *shall* (*shall have the right to*).

1.5.4. Polish Eurolect

Since 2004, Polish has been an official and working language of the EU. In fact, it is the largest Slavonic language of the EU. Legal Polish used within EU contexts differs from the Polish used in national legislation. In her analysis, Biel (2018b) scrutinises the Polish Eurolect and indicates its characteristic features, among which there can be found EU-rooted phenomena, contact-induced features and intra-linguistic variability.

In terms of EU-rooted phenomena, semantic Europeisms are frequently used in the Polish Eurolect. They exist in the form of noun phrases naming EU institutions (e.g. *Komisja Europejska* for *European Commission*) and EU-specific legal concepts (e.g. *państwo członkowskie* for *Member State*). Additionally, there are also adjectives referring to the EU (e.g. *wspólnotowy* for *of the Community*). As regards morphology, international prefixes of Greek and Latin are commonly encountered (e.g. *bio-*), which leads to a greater use of prefixes (e.g. *biodostępność* for *bioavailability*) in lieu of analytical patterns (*dostępność biologiczna*) characteristic of Polish. Furthermore, within the Polish Eurolect there function numerous lexical bundles composed of 3 or 4 words (e.g. *w odniesieniu do* for *in relation to*. However, as Biel (2018b: 305f.) observes, these multi-word patterns are atypical and/or uncommon in the national legislation genre.

Contact-induced features include loanwords and borrowings which may be domesticated and acquire characteristics of Polish, such as inflection and derivation (e.g. *interfejs* for *interface*). Morphologically, *-ing* suffix may replace more typical for Polish nominalisation suffix *-anie/-enie* (e.g. *monitoring* instead of *monitorowanie*). Calques are also a sign of direct contact between English and Polish versions of EU documents. Polish texts become punctuated in the same ways English texts are; capitalisation in Polish reflects English conventions; lexical structures become translated literally. In the Polish Eurolect there may also be found unnatural syntactic features, such as increased frequency of the passive voice and subordinate clauses or even errors in case government rules of verbs.

As for intra-linguistic variability, register mixing is typical of the Polish Eurolect, since while in places lexically it resembles everyday language (e.g. *zoo* instead of *zoological garden*; frequent metaphors), grammatical structures show a high level of formality (e.g. the passive voice, Latinisms).

On the whole, the above-mentioned features are more frequent in Polish-language versions of EU law rather than Polish domestic legislation and, as Biel (2018b: 318) states, it is because of EU law that they are more common in Polish.

1.6. Legal translation

Language used in legal discourse is inextricably linked to the legal environment it describes. Consequently, legal translation is a very complex endeavour. In fact, there can be identified several sources of difficulty. Cao (2007: 23-28) points out that the differences between legal systems (and their historical and cultural development) in the source language and target language lead to the difficulties the translator faces. She mainly contrasts the Common Law and the Civil Law traditions. Common Law (characteristic of Anglo-Saxon countries) as a case-based system operates on the basis of precedents and former judicial decisions. Civil Law, in contrast, is based on legal doctrine, codified norms and pre-determined rules of conduct.

Biel (2008: 24) also stresses the issue of intertextuality of legal concepts, understood as the influence of various sources (legislation, case law) on how the meaning is constructed. The fact that legal language is used in diverse areas of social life adds to its multifunctionality and makes it tightly connected with the lexicons of other fields, such as economy, education or medicine (Mattila 2013: 1f.; Prieto Ramos 2019: 30,33). As a result of the above-mentioned factors, finding translation equivalents appears to be a Sisyphean task. In practice, because of the fact that literal translation may not refer to the same concepts (Brand 2009: 22), translators are forced to use functional equivalents, close (but not identical) to what is expressed in the source text (Šarčević 1989: 278). Consequently, as Šarčević (1989: 277ff.) notes, due to "the inherent incongruency of the terminology of different legal systems", the bilingual dictionary is not the best tool the translator has at their disposal. A list of possible translation equivalents may not necessarily come in handy. On the contrary, the monolingual dictionary providing definitions of legal vocabulary at a conceptual level can serve the translator better. An important aspect in translation becomes then entrenchment (Biel 2008: 26). Some equivalents become conventionalised, they are used and willingly accepted in a given community and their status

is so established that the use of a novel translation equivalent could be considered unprofessional of a translator.

Another difficulty of legal translation is establishing a legal system in which the translated text will operate. It is especially demanding in the case of EU documents, where English serves as a lingua franca and target audiences function in diverse legal environments (Biel 2008: 25). Further, legal translation becomes troublesome because of linguistic differences between the source language and target language (Cao 2007: 28-31). Linguistic differences stem from historical and cultural differences of legal systems and are reflections of the style of legislation. As Cao notes, the Common Law system consists of long, elaborate judicial opinions, whereas Civil Law prefers concise and more formalised documents (Cao 2007: 29; Kischel 2009: 13f.). As a result, there are certain adopted conventions characteristic of legal language.

Last but not least, cultural differences also play a significant role in legal translation since "[l]aw is an expression of the culture" (Cao 2007: 31f.; see also Sierocka 2023: 1630f.). Cultural context is so influential in constructing the meaning of a legal concept that people from different legal cultures may find it difficult to understand the other perspective (Engberg 2016: 39f.). It may happen that some languages do not have terminologies developed to the extent that others have, because of the non-existence of legal concepts (Burukina 2012: 580).

Matulewska (2008) aptly summarises possible sources of difficulty in legal translation between Polish and English. She mentions the following aspects of legal English and Polish: archaisms (e.g. *plaintiff* as archaic in the UK), euphemisms (e.g. *cohabitation* instead of *sexual intercourse*), polysemy and homonymy (e.g. *claim* as a noun), vulgarisms, metaphors (e.g. *God's truth*), false friends (e.g. *verdict* and *werdykt*), neologisms (e.g. *know-how*), synonymy (in the form of binomials; e.g. *agree and covenant*), vague terms (e.g. *władza rodzicielska*), legal definitions (e.g. *ryby wód słodkowodnych* needs to be translated as *fish and crayfish of inland waters*), common terms with uncommon (legal) meaning (e.g. *trial*). In brief, the abundance of obstacles may be worrying for a translator.

What adds to the problem is, as Cheng and Sin (2008: 37f.) note, the fact that the role of legal translation is twofold. First, the translated text needs to perform its legal function assumed in the original text. Second, the translated text has to fulfil its communicative purpose. Hence, law and language go hand in hand: linguistic knowledge needs

to accompanied by legal knowledge (Bajčić 2017: 39). Reflecting on all the above-mentioned challenges of legal translation, it seems that there may be more than a grain of truth in Kischel's observation that "the translation of legal texts remains a myth, a sublime aim never to be truly achieved" (2009: 7). It may well remain a myth because of collocations. As Newmark warns, the translator "will be 'caught' every time, not by his grammar, (…), not by his vocabulary, (…), but by his unacceptable or improbable collocations"(1988: 180). In order not to face such a perspective, emphasis needs to be placed on collocation in LSP contexts.

1.7. Collocation in legal language

Realising that collocation performs a significant role in any language, one should also acknowledge its central importance in specialised fields. As Prieto Ramos (2021: 175) summarises, "terminology and phraseology are key features of legal discourses". Having conducted a number of studies, Biel (2018a: 24) also concludes that phraseology "is central to legal language". Likewise, numerous corpus-based studies in phraseology confirm the formulaic nature of legal language (Goźdź-Roszkowski and Pontrandolfo 2015). Goźdź-Roszkowski and Pontrandolfo further add that "phraseology is possibly the element that more than any other (syntax, terminology, etc.) gives the text its 'legal flavour', by fulfilling the expectations of the intended readers" (2015: 134), which is why it is crucial in translation. Phraseology may be crucial in legal translation because of the tendency of terms to combine with other units, creating multi-word terms (e.g. *managing director*) and eventually collocations (Biel 2012: 227). Nevertheless, the grim reality is that word combinations in translated texts diverge from the ones used in actual texts (Mauranen 2006: 97). More specifically, word combinations in translations lack typicality. This suggests that in translation, collocation presents a considerable challenge. Collocational knowledge, however, is an ultimate sign of a person's familiarity with the language; as Mroczyńska (2020: 135) puts it, "the ability to use collocations in a correct and natural manner represents the user's mastering of the language within a given specific genre".

Collocations function not only in everyday, common speech, but also in specialist discourse. Gębka-Wolak and Moroz (2016: 230) further state that particular sets of

collocations are characteristic of particular legal contexts. Likewise, Lorente et al. (2017: 202-208) argue that within specialised discourse there are specialised collocations which are characteristic of and are frequently used in a certain field of knowledge. Their role is to disseminate specialised information; this is why such collocations as their bases or collocates have items with specialised meanings. Specialised collocations are remarkable for "their compositional meaning, their lack of lexicalization, and their conformity to morphological and syntactic rules" (Lorente et al. 2017: 207). Yet, their crucial feature is occurrence within a specialised field (Gębka-Wolak and Moroz 2016: 231f.).

1.8. Summary

The aim of Chapter One has been to lay foundations for the present study of the treatment of collocations in dictionaries. Thus, the first part of Chapter One has brought collocation into the spotlight. Two prominent approaches to collocation have been summarised, with special importance attached to the role of collocation in foreign language teaching and learning. Previous studies into collocational knowledge of learners have been enumerated, leading to the conclusion that collocation is challenging. Attention has been drawn to lexicography-oriented studies. They have been discussed in two strands. The first strand has concerned studies dealing with the question of which collocations (or more generally word combinations) should be present in dictionaries. The second strand of research has concentrated on collocation and dictionary use. There have been mentioned both the studies on the treatment of collocations within dictionary entries and the studies investigating dictionary skills helpful in extracting collocational information.

The second part of Chapter One has revolved around the language used in legal discourse. First, the characteristic features of legal English have been described, highlighting its lexical and syntactic aspects. The existence of the English for EU purposes has also been acknowledged. Secondly, the description of legal Polish and its lexical and syntactic details has been provided. The EU version of Polish has also been looked at. Various sources of difficulty in legal translation have been identified. Obstacles resulting from different legal cultures have been underlined.

Chapter One ends with a conclusion that collocation is central to legal language. Juxtaposing the results of previous research into collocational knowledge among foreign

language learners, their dictionary skills and dictionary use with the specificity of legal languages and the difficulty of legal translation, it may be interesting to combine the two areas in one study, which is what the present project is about.

Chapter 2: The study

Chapter Two provides the details of the conducted study, with special attention given to the aims of the study, research questions and method. Chapter Two also described the process of test items selection as well as test design. Furthermore, Chapter Two includes details about the study participants and the procedure they followed.

2.1. Aims of the study

The aim of the study is twofold. First, an analysis will be carried out of the treatment of collocations of selected headwords in a number of leading monolingual dictionaries for learners of English. The comparison will be concerned with:

(1)   position of collocations within an entry;

(2)   access to collocations;

(3)   exemplification.

The aim of the analysis is to indicate any lexicographic patterns of the treatment of collocations in online monolingual learners' dictionaries. The examination also attempts to reveal any systematic similarities and differences between the selected dictionaries.

Another aim of the study is to investigate the influence of various elements of the microstructure of a dictionary on the use of the selected collocations of legal language. In the experiment, the author's manipulations within the content of a dictionary entry concern position of collocations within an entry, access to collocations and exemplification.

2.2. Research questions

The study will endeavour to address the following research questions:

(1)   How are collocations of legal language presented in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries?

a. What is the usual position of collocations within an entry?

b. How can a user access collocations?

c. Are collocations accompanied by examples?

(2)   Is the accuracy of use of legal language collocations influenced by:

a. their position in an entry?

b. access to collocations?

c. presence of examples?

d. congruence or incongruence between English collocations and their Polish equivalents

e. collocation pattern (verb + noun or modifier + noun)?

(3)   Is the look-up time influenced by:

a. position of collocations in an entry?

b. access to collocations?

c. presence of examples?

2.3. Method

With a view to investigating the treatment of legal language collocations in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries, an analysis of the entries for the selected headwords was carried out. The treatment of collocations was given prominence, with respect to their position, access, and exemplification.

To fulfil the second aim of the study, an experiment was designed. Five independent variables were selected:

(1) position of collocations;

(2) access to collocations;

(3) exemplification;

(4) congruence between English collocations and their Polish equivalents;

(5) collocation pattern.

Two levels of position of collocations were specified, i.e. collocations appeared either after each sense of a headword or entry-finally. Access to collocations was either clickable or non-clickable. Clickable access required some action from a study participant, i.e. a participant had to click on a hyperlink *Collocations* to access a separate page with word combinations listed. Next, each collocation was either accompanied by an

example sentence or not. Congruence between English and Polish collocations was illustrated by the formal similarity of the word classes of their components. Therefore, a verb + noun collocation in English *adopt a resolution* and its Polish verb + noun equivalent collocation *przyjąć rezolucję* were considered congruent on the grounds that the parts of speech of the respective elements were the same in both languages. On the other hand, an English verb + noun collocation *waive a claim* and its Polish equivalent collocation *zrezygnować z roszczenia* were considered incongruent for the addition of a preposition *z* in the Polish equivalent. All the collocations used in the study had nouns as bases. Half of the collocates (eight) constituted verbs and half were adjectives or participles, both of which acted as modifiers. The above-mentioned design led to eight dictionary versions used in the study (see Table 1), with each participant working with one dictionary version only for the three variables (position, access, exemplification), so in this respect a between-subjects study design was adopted (Rasinger 2010: 59f.). For the variable of congruence and pattern a within-subjects design was used.

Table 1. Dictionary versions

Version	Position	Access	Exemplification
1	after sense	clickable	present
2	after sense	clickable	absent
3	after sense	non-clickable	present
4	after sense	non-clickable	absent
5	final	clickable	present
6	final	clickable	absent
7	final	non-clickable	present
8	final	non-clickable	absent

2.4. The selected dictionaries

The study was conducted with upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English in mind, hence the dictionaries used in the study are all online monolingual learners' dictionaries (MLDs). It remains true that it is not a matter of *good* and *bad* dictionaries when one contrasts monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and the latter are perfectly able to meet the standards set by the former (Adamska-Sałaciak and Kernerman 2016); yet, historically speaking, MLDs set the scene for the further development of dictionaries targeted at language learners.

Monolingual learners' dictionaries owe their existence (and popularity) to A.S. Hornby, Harold Palmer and Michael West, who themselves were teachers of English as a foreign language, and were therefore familiar with what language learners struggle with most. Their endeavours, especially in the 1930s and 1940s, led to the creation of the first learner's dictionary: the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* edited by A.S. Hornby and published in 1942. As the name suggested, it was primarily meant to offer help to learners in terms of idioms and syntax. Additionally, the dictionary attempted to feature a selected vocabulary and simple definitions. Undoubtedly, these characteristics laid the foundations for learners' dictionaries to come (Bogaards 2013: 401ff.). In 1948, on the basis of the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary,* the first edition of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (*OALD*) was published. The *OALD* turned out to be particularly successful and remained the only such dictionary for the next 30 years. It was not until 1978 that the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (*LDOCE*) was published. It marked its contribution to the field by applying grammar codes aiming to convey the syntactic behaviour of headwords (Jackson 2002: 130). The third dictionary to join the new genre in 1987 was the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (COBUILD)*. It, indeed, brought innovation to EFL lexicography, since it was based on corpus data. Furthermore, it employed full-sentence definitions, corpus-driven examples, as well as an extra column with information on synonyms and antonyms (Jackson 2002: 131f.). The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (later published as the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary – CALD*) entered the market in 1995, and introduced a new solution, with each sense of a polysemous word given a separate entry. Further, it included a Phrase Index, which listed frequent word combinations covered in the dictionary itself. In 2002, the last to arrive on stage was the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (MEDAL).* As Ostermann (2015: 18) states, *MEDAL* (as well as *CALD*) did not bring about a revolution, but it aptly "complemented the market". The above-mentioned five British learners' dictionaries are often jointly referred to as 'the Big Five'.

Even though each MLD attempted to offer new features in pedagogical lexicography, altogether they are part of a common generation of dictionaries and thus all share certain characteristics. According to Bogaards (2013: 404-410), these are: "selected vocabulary, simple definitions and explicit information about use". Firstly, since the founding fathers of MLDs were language teachers, they strived to include those lexical items that might be useful to foreign language learners. Secondly, the concept of a 'simple

definition' may sound elusive, especially taking into account various defining styles. One of the main problems with defining in dictionaries is the difficulty of a definition as compared to a headword (Adamska-Sałaciak 2012: 326). Using a restricted vocabulary appeared to be a move in the right direction. It was first employed in 1935 in *A New Method English Dictionary* by Michael West and James Endicott. Although it might seem tempting to embrace the idea wholeheartedly, Yamada (2013) points out that using a defining vocabulary may increase the length and unnaturalness of definitions. Thirdly, MLDs have adopted a double role. On the one hand, simple definitions are primarily meant to satisfy learners' decoding needs; yet, on the other hand, their encoding needs should not be neglected. Consequently, MLDs include grammatical information, such as (un)countability of nouns, inflection and/or syntactic position of adjectives as well as verb patterns (Jackson 2002: 135-139). Importantly, as Bogaards (2013: 409f.) notes, collocation receives special attention, which is of particular relevance in the present project.

At the time of the analysis of dictionary treatment of collocations, all the above-mentioned MLDs were available online for free[1] with the exception of detailed information on collocations in *OALD* (see more in 3.1.1). Interestingly, in 2012 Michael Rundell, the editor of *MEDAL*, announced that in the future Macmillan was not going to publish any print dictionaries. The decision was justified by the belief that "[t]he digital medium is the best platform for a dictionary" (excerpt from Macmillan Dictionary Blog). In fact, nowadays, the MLDs regularly update their macrostructures in their online versions and the present study focuses on the online MLDs exclusively.

2.5. Test items

Test item selection was central to the whole empirical study. Several steps of the procedure can be enumerated. First, thematic groups in the Big Five online served as sources of legal English words. From *OALD* the following topic groups were taken into account: committing crime, criminals, prison, punishment, solving crime, types of crime, justice, legal documents, legal processes, people in law, the law, the police. *LDOCE* offered the

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[1] In June 2023, Macmillan Education Ltd announced its decision to close the *Macmillan English Dictionary* and the *Macmillan English Thesaurus*. Hence, the analysis includes the data from the dictionary no longer available online.

following groups: crime & law, jail & punishment, law. *COBUILD* provided word lists titled: criminal law terms, law terms, property law terms, Scots law terms. *MEDAL* grouped semantically-related words in its *Macmillan Thesaurus*. The resource contained a list of several topics collectively titled *Law and crime*. The list included topics, such as: crimes, criminals, law enforcement, law courts and court cases. Most of these were further subdivided into a few components. *CALD*, in turn, presented a user with *SMART Vocabulary* clouds, which consisted of words and phrases belonging to a given topic. Example topics included: law courts, judges & juries, legal & illegal, court cases, orders & decisions. All these collections served as starting points for further steps of the item selection procedure.

As a second stage, relevant entries from the dictionaries were analysed in search of collocations. For a collocation to be accepted to subsequent stages of selection, it had to be present in the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English*. Such a step constituted the first check on the nature of a given word combination in English.

Next, with the aim of finding Polish translation equivalents for English collocations, three different bilingual dictionaries were employed, two of which are dictionaries of legal terminology and one is a general-purpose dictionary. Namely, *Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej* and *Słownik terminologii prawniczej* served as specialised dictionaries and acted not only as sources of translation equivalents, but they were to ensure that the word combinations in question belonged to the realm of legal language. It is worth noting that if neither of these dictionaries featured a given collocation, the collocation was dismissed. *The New Kosciuszko Foundation Dictionary* was a third source of translation equivalents. Additionally, a monolingual Polish dictionary *Wielki słownik języka polskiego* was employed for its lists of collocates to a given headword, which was considered valuable insofar as in the study it was intended for Polish translation equivalents to be collocations as well. All the possible Polish translations for a given unit were collected at that point.

Following that, a parallel corpus *The EUR-Lex Corpus* with English as a primary language and Polish aligned was used for its potential for performing two functions in the selection procedure. Firstly, it served as a source of test sentences to be used in the study. Importantly, the corpus consists of official documents created for the purposes of the European Union. Hence, it ensures a legal context in which the collocations are placed. Secondly, parallel concordance acted as a translation tool. Results for an English collocation

were filtered using GDEX. Good Dictionary Examples tool evaluates sentences on the basis of their potential as dictionary examples, it takes into consideration several factors, such as sentence length or key word (in this case a collocation) position (preferably in the middle of a sentence) (Kilgarriff et al. 2008). Needless to say, few concordance lines could not satisfy all the requirements of GDEX. Thus, it was sometimes necessary to accept sentences with low scores and edit them to ensure a maximum level of homogeneity between all the test sentences.

Having collected possible Polish collocation equivalents from the above-mentioned dictionaries and having chosen a test sentence from *The EUR-Lex Corpus*, a question arose as to which equivalent should be a target Polish collocation in the study. Bearing in mind a pivotal role of context in meaning construction (Evans and Green 2006: 161), the Polish translation of an English collocation as featured in *The EUR-Lex Corpus* was the point of departure in determining which Polish equivalent to use in the study. Following that, there could be a few possible scenarios:

1) if a Polish equivalent from the parallel corpus was identical to at least one equivalent from the four above-mentioned dictionaries, this translation equivalent was accepted as a target equivalent in the study;

2) if a Polish equivalent from the parallel corpus was not identical to any of the equivalents from the dictionaries *and* each collected equivalent was different, the translation equivalent from the parallel corpus was accepted as a target equivalent in the study;

3) if a Polish equivalent from the parallel corpus was not identical to any of the equivalents from the dictionaries, *but* there were at least two identical equivalents extracted from the dictionaries, this translation equivalent was accepted as a target equivalent in the study.

It is worth noting that out of sixteen collocations used in the study eleven translation equivalents were determined following scenario no. 1, two – following scenario no. 2 and three – following scenario no. 3. Hence, three test sentences from the parallel corpus were edited in terms of the translation equivalent. For a list of collected translation equivalents see Appendix A. The test sentences and their translations are presented in Appendix B.

Subsequently, collocations which reached this stage were analysed in terms of congruence of English-Polish pairs. For instance, multi-word units such as *napad z bronią*

w ręku as an equivalent of *armed robbery* were dismissed since a Polish equivalent was a multi-word unit. *Evade responsibility* translated as *uchylić się od odpowiedzialności* was not accepted either on the grounds of the use of a reflexive pronoun *się*, which is not present in the English collocation. Collocation pairs which only differed in their word order were dismissed. For example, *statutory duty* could be translated into Polish as either *obowiązek ustawowy* or *ustawowy obowiązek* with no difference in meaning. For the purposes of the study, word order exclusively did not constitute a source of incongruence.

Next, word combinations gathered so far were assessed in terms of their association scores, which "quantify the "attraction" between two words, i.e. their statistical association" (Evert 2008: 1228) and thus reflect the statistically-oriented view of collocation inasmuch as various scores aim to capture more frequent co-occurrence of items than could be expected by chance. *Sketch Engine* offers three association measures when a user is interested in the strength of a given word combination. These are: T-score, MI (Mutual Information) and logDice. T-score expresses "certainty of collocation" (Hunston 2002: 73) or, in other words, it is a "measure of significance" (Evert 2008: 1228), which indicates whether there is an association between the words. MI, on the other hand, is a measure of the strength of association (Hunston 2002). LogDice is a measure similar to MI, but, most importantly, it has a theoretical maximum value of 14. As a result, comparisons between corpora of different sizes become feasible and thus *Sketch Engine* in its *Glossary* in an entry for *collocation* recommends using logDice on the basis of its remaining unaffected by corpus size. Simultaneously, *Sketch Engine* warns that T-score and MI score rely on frequency and thus make comparisons between corpora challenging. With a view to offering a comprehensive account of the level of collocability of the combinations gathered, Table 2 presents the minimum, maximum, mean and median of all three association scores for the English items as calculated on the basis of *The English Web Corpus 2018*. Importantly, for a word combination to be categorised as a collocation, T-score should be at least 2, MI score at least 3 (Dąbrowska 2014: 404) and logDice needs to be a positive value (Rychlý 2008: 9). For Polish collocations, the same association measures were extracted from *The Polish Web Corpus 2012*. Additionally, since the nature of the English word combinations was also verified in the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*, the strength of association of the Polish word combinations was, in turn, verified in the *National Corpus of Polish* using its search engine *PELCRA* and chi-squared values provided there. For $p > 0.001$ significant word combinations start with the value of 10,828

(Pęzik 2012: 269f.) For the Polish equivalent collocations all the aforementioned association scores are collected in Table 2.

Table 2. Association scores for the collocations

ENG collocation	T-score	MI	logDice	PL collocation	T-score	MI	log-Dice	chi-squared
adopt a resolution	144.34	9.68	8.3	przyjąć rezolucję	45.85	10.88	5.31	32075.62
hear a case	180.69	5.79	7.06	rozpoznawać sprawę	34.03	6.44	5.52	146.87
lodge an appeal	65.7	6.62	7.55	wnieść odwołanie	48.2	11.97	8.08	8176.6
incur a penalty	82.85	10.72	8.44	ponosić karę	38.89	8.22	6.72	319.19
stand trial	123.89	7.24	6.6	stanąć przed sądem	93.95	10.02	7.92	410366.3
waive a claim	45.49	8.56	5.83	zrezygnować z roszczenia	15.67	10.65	4.48	11665.62
join a company	161.68	5.84	6.95	przystąpić do spółki	30.49	10.35	6.41	23250.2
enjoy a right	125.09	5.09	6.2	korzystać z prawa	91.54	8.72	6.89	15458.88
diminished responsibility	33.1	9.35	5.22	ograniczona poczytalność	14.83	13,68	4.65	992289.5
grave violation	64.07	9.07	7.24	poważne naruszenie	34.25	9.42	5.2	10418.51
malicious damage	38.16	7.64	5.04	celowe uszkodzenie	11.79	7.07	4.51	7233.49
reasonable care	98.29	6.27	6.35	należyta staranność	100.96	15.05	11.34	45531630.21
attempted fraud	28.77	9.67	6.22	próba oszustwa	12.13	5.27	2.16	9844.99
juvenile court	110.29	9.53	7.85	sąd dla nieletnich	49.41	16.41	9.78	21058327.03
libel action	46.37	8.62	4.67	proces o zniesławienie	11.14	17.84	8.7	4069344.58
premeditated murder	17.4	11.18	5.4	morderstwo z premedytacją	25.04	17.37	9.46	1009542.01
MIN	**17.4**	**5.09**	**4.67**	**MIN**	**11.14**	**5.27**	**2.16**	**146.87**
MAX	**180.69**	**11.18**	**8.44**	**MAX**	**100.96**	**17.84**	**11.34**	**45531630.21**
MEAN	**85.39**	**8.18**	**6.56**	**MEAN**	**41.01**	**11.21**	**6.7**	**4574380.54**
MEDIAN	**74.28**	**8.59**	**6.48**	**MEDIAN**	**33.14**	**10.5**	**6.57**	**19354.56**

Last but not least, entries from the Big Five online were looked up in order to identify monosemous and polysemous base words of collocations. To be better able to observe the effect of position of collocation within an entry (one of the independent variables in the study), only those base words with at least three senses were accepted.

All in all, the selected collocations satisfied all the criteria of the test item selection procedure, which led to sixteen test collocations in total. Eight of them are verb + noun

collocations, out of which four are congruent and four are incongruent. There are also eight modifier + noun collocations with four congruent and four incongruent collocations. Table 3 presents a list of the selected English collocations along with their Polish equivalents.

Table 3. The selected collocations

Components		English	Polish
verb + noun	congruent	adopt a resolution	przyjąć rezolucję
		hear a case	rozpoznawać sprawę
		lodge an appeal	wnieść odwołanie
		incur a penalty	ponosić karę
	incongruent	stand trial	stanąć przed sądem
		waive a claim	zrezygnować z roszczenia
		join a company	przystąpić do spółki
		enjoy a right	korzystać z prawa
modifier + noun	congruent	diminished responsibility	ograniczona poczytalność
		grave violation	poważne naruszenie
		malicious damage	celowe uszkodzenie
		reasonable care	należyta staranność
	incongruent	attempted fraud	próba oszustwa
		juvenile court	sąd dla nieletnich
		libel action	proces o zniesławienie
		premeditated murder	morderstwo z premedytacją

2.6. Online test design

In an attempt to achieve the second aim of the study and answer Research Questions 2 and 3, an online test was designed. Moodle LMS platform was used mainly for two reasons. On the one hand, Moodle platform is widely used at the Faculty of English of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań and since study participants are mainly students of the Faculty, they all have active accounts on the platform and are familiar with the environment. On the other hand, Moodle offers activity logs, which is a way of verifying whether course participants access certain materials. Thus, this function enables a course teacher to see which materials participants viewed. In the present study, clickability is an independent variable and four out of eight dictionary versions require a participant to click on a link to access collocations, so activity logs provide a real insight into what participants view. Additionally, MoodleCloud platform was used to obtain access to the results of participants from the University of Łódź.

Following the details of dictionary versions as presented in Table 1, eight tests were prepared. The tests consisted of sixteen test questions, i.e. one question for one test sentence. A participant was exposed to one test sentence in Polish with a target collocation in bold at a time (see Fig. 1). The task was to complete a partial translation in English. Study participants were asked to complete the translation and if they needed help, they were advised to click a caption *See dictionary*. Once they did so, a new tab opened in their search engine (see Fig. 2). They could see there an entry for a base word of the collocation in question. In dictionary versions 1, 2, 5, 6 they could find there additional hyperlinks to collocations with a headword.

Fig. 1. An example test question

Fig. 2. Part of an example dictionary entry

The dictionary entries in the study were prepared manually on the basis of the existing definitions and examples in the Big Five online. For each headword three senses were selected, taking into consideration those senses which appeared in the majority of the dictionaries. The only grammatical pieces of information stated explicitly were a part

of speech of a headword and countability of a headword in a specific sense. Each of the three definitions in an entry were followed by examples. Following Frankenberg-García's findings (2012; 2014) that multiple examples help dictionary users more than single examples, each sense was accompanied by three examples in the form of full sentences in italics. Attention was paid not to include any of the target collocations in these examples. The entries for the headwords are collected in Appendix C.

All prepared dictionary entries were three-sense entries, following the divisions presented in the Big Five online. The target sense position in the study was calculated on the basis of the target sense position in the Big Five online. First, the target sense in each MLD was identified and the total number of senses was noted down. Importantly, all main senses were taken into account and in *COBUILD* only senses of the target part of speech were paid attention to. Next, relative target sense position was calculated for each dictionary by dividing the target sense number by the total number of senses and subtracting -1 to account for original one- and two-sense entries. Subsequently, a mean position of the target sense was calculated with multiplying it by 3 (because of target 3-sense entries) and adding 1 to reverse the previous subtraction of -1. Table 4 lists the final target sense positions for the test items.

Table 4. Target sense position

Headword	Target sense position (out of three)
resolution	1
case	2
appeal	3
penalty	1
trial	1
claim	2
company	1
right	2
responsibility	2
violation	1
damage	1
care	2
fraud	1
court	1
action	2
murder	1

In compiling collocation sets among which a target collocation could be found, three primary sources were used. Namely, these were: the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*, the *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary* in its online form as hyperlinked webpages in entries from *MEDAL* and collocations boxes in the relevant entries in *LDOCE*. All the

base nouns of the selected collocations were looked up in these sources and the numbers of collocations present were noted down (separately for each sense) with further division into collocations consisting of modifier + noun, verb + noun and preposition + noun. Importantly, the category modifier + noun in the online test was assigned a heading *adjective*s *frequently used with* in order to keep the headings homogenous (with the other two being *verbs frequently used with* and *prepositions frequently used with*). Even though some collocates in the group of adjectives were not adjectives *sensu stricto* and instead they were nouns, they functioned as adjectives in that they premodified the base nouns. Bearing in mind the level of linguistic knowledge among upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English, in the study these were all subsumed under the heading *adjectives*. The lowest number of collocations gathered (from the three above-mentioned sources) under an appropriate part of speech was four (in the entry for *action* in its legal sense). This number coincided closely with limitations of working memory (Miller 1956; Cowan 2008) and thus it was decided to present no more than four collocations in one section. It needs to be noted that care was taken to include exactly four collocations in *adjectives frequently used with* and *verbs frequently used with* sections in the target senses of the headwords. The collocations were selected on the basis of the three sources, taking notice of recurring collocations and dismissing those which might be used synonymously with the target collocation. Nevertheless, with some infrequent senses, e.g. *murder* as a murder of crows, additional sources of collocations were employed, i.e. *Sketch Engine for Language Learning* and *The English Web Corpus 2018*. Inside the subsections, collocations were order alphabetically. In dictionary versions with examples present, example sentences were extracted either from the three primary sources or (if necessary) from the two secondary sources. Appendix D presents all the selected collocations along with example sentences.

2.7. Procedure

An invitation to participate in the study was first published on a Moodle site for students of the Faculty of English of Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. The study was also advertised among students of English philology at the University of Łódź via a Moodle site. Willing students reported directly to the researcher for further information. They all

received the informed consent form. Having read the form, the participants agreed to take part in the study. Next, the participants were informed about the steps they had to take, which were roughly divided into three stages. First, the participants completed the trial test, identical in format to the main test. Each participant received access codes to only one version of the test. In the trial test, the participants were asked four test questions. Following the trial, the participants completed the main test, consisting of sixteen test items. As a final stage, the participants answered several demographic questions and took a language test meant to verify their level of English.

In December 2021, a pilot study was conducted with sixteen participants, who were assigned to two dictionary versions (1 or 3). The pilot study did not reveal any procedural problems. However, after the pilot study, a third stage of the study (a language test and demographic questions) was added. With a view to increasing the number of participants, it was decided to invite English students from both BA and MA programmes to participate in the study. A language test and demographic questions served the purpose of obtaining more details on homogeneity of the participants.

2.8. Participants

Ninety participants volunteered to take part in the study. Table 5 shows the number of participants who were assigned each of eight dictionary versions. Eighty-two were students at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań and eight studied at the University of Łódź (they account for less than 10% of the data). Forty participants (44%) were 1st year BA students, 14 (16%) were 2nd year BA students, 33 (37%) were 3rd year BA students and one participant (1%) was 2nd year MA student. Two students did not give their year of study. Fifty-five participants (61%) majored in English philology, 18 (20%) – in English and Russian philology, 5 (5%) – in English Studies on Literature and Culture, 5 (5%) – in English and Celtic philology 4 (4%) – in English Linguistics, 1(1%) – in English and Chinese philology. Irrespective of their study major, all the participants during their studies attend EFL classes at an upper-intermediate level. All participants were native speakers of Polish and had not participated in formal training/workshops/classes on legal translation.

Table 5. Number of participants per dictionary version

dictionary version	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
number of participants	12	11	13	12	10	11	11	10

As a final stage data collection, the students were asked to complete a test measuring their level of English using LexTALE, a computer-based lexical test which consists of 60 trials of lexical decision task (Lemhöfer and Broersma 2012). The authors suggest the following interpretation of LexTALE scores: 80%-100% - upper and lower advanced level (C1-C2 according to CEFR (Council of Europe 2001)), 60%-80% - upper-intermediate (B2), below 60% - lower intermediate and lower (B1 and lower). The mean LexTALE of the participants is 82.03 and the median is 83.75%. The interquartile range covers values between 72.19% and 92.50%. There were 5 students who scored between 50% and 59%. Thus, more than 94% of the participants obtained the results that classified them as upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English. For details on the LexTALE scores achieved by the participants see Fig. 3.
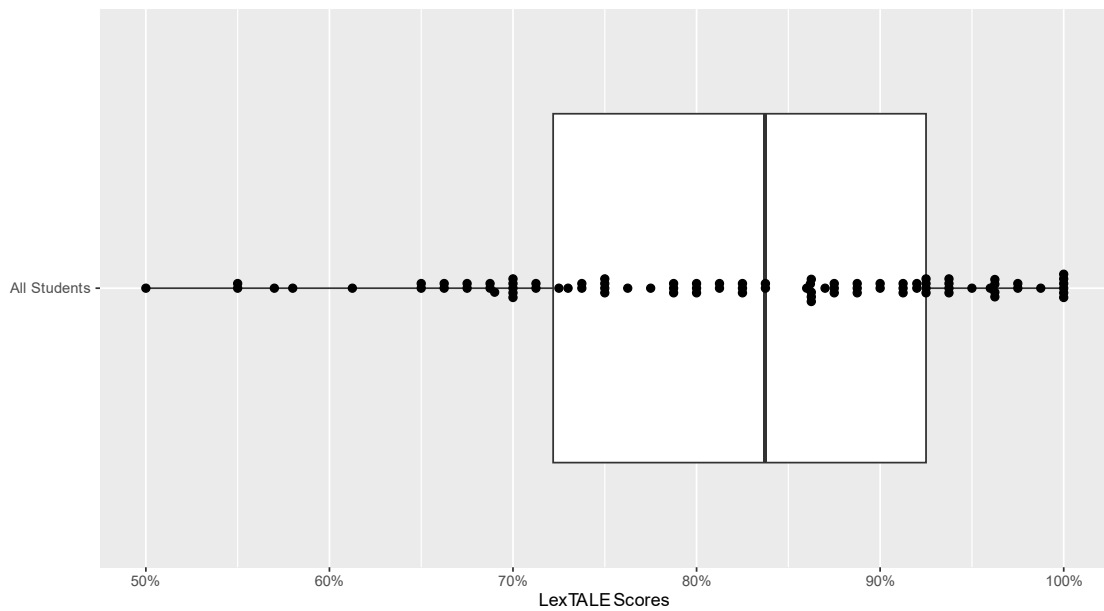
Fig. 3. The LexTALE scores (individual data points are indicated for all the participants; the box indicates the interquartile range of scores and the horizontal line shows the median; the whiskers are calculated using the following formulas: lower whisker = 1st quartile – 1.5*interquartile range, upper whisker = 3rd + 1.5*interquartile range).

2.9. Summary

Chapter Two has concentrated on the details of the study conducted. It has presented the aims of the study, drawing attention to its two-fold nature, which has been reflected in the research questions.

Chapter Two has also introduced the process of test items selection and test design. Prominence has been given to successive steps of the selection of collocations for the study. Their fixed status in English and Polish has been confirmed. In Chapter Two, the development of dictionary entries has also been reported.

Chapter Two has specified what the participation in the project looked like from the perspective of the participants. Demographic details about the participants have also been provided.

Chapter 3: Results and discussion

Chapter Three presents the results of the study, taking into account its two-fold nature. First, it focuses on an analysis of the treatment of collocations in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries. Second, the results of a collocation provision test are presented. A discussion with general conclusions is offered.

3.1. Dictionary treatment of collocations

In order to answer Research Question 2, an analysis of the treatment of collocations in the selected MLDs was carried out. The following sections present the results of the analysis by first examining each dictionary separately and afterwards by comparing and contrasting the existing practices.

3.1.1. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary online

In *OALD* in its free online version, treatment of headwords consists of information on (un)countability, a definition and examples, which together comprise basic elements of the microstructure of the dictionary. Additionally, in most senses one can see a hyperlink to the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* and *Extra Examples* section. To fit the purposes of the present project, the subsequent sections are going to focus on primary examples, *Extra Examples* and hyperlinks to the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* as these serve as potential sources of collocations.

Apparently, one can find collocations among examples presented right after definitions. Examples come in one of the following forms:

1) phrases in italics, e.g. *serious/severe damage*;
2) phrases in italics with some parts in bold, e.g. *to defend your **basic rights***;
3) phrases in italics and in bold (excluding the article), e.g. *a **murder/criminal trial***;

4) phrases in bold followed by partial sentences in italics, e.g. **in action** *soldiers killed in action*;

5) phrases in bold followed by full sentences in italics, e.g. **by right** *The property belongs to her by right.*;

6) phrases in bold followed by full sentences in italics with parts in bold, e.g. **responsibility to do something** *I think we have a **moral responsibility** to help these countries.*;

7) full sentences in italics, e.g. *The UN Security Council unanimously adopted a resolution calling for a halt to hostilities.*;

8) full sentences in italics with parts in bold, e.g. *What should be done **in such cases**?*.

Occasionally, glosses are added within brackets to further elucidate the meaning, e.g. **in the right** *He wouldn't apologize. He knew he was in the right* (= had justice on his side) or *all rights reserved* (= protected or kept for the owners of the book, film, etc.). Although *OALD* offers eight different forms of examples, there seems to be some kind of consistency as patterns number 4, 5 and 6 are used for introducing either verb patterns or prepositional phrases. They are all then first shown in bold. However, it remains unclear why some word combinations presented according to patterns 1-3 and 7-8 are in bold and others not. This lack of uniformity may even be noticed within one entry. More precisely, one can see two similar examples following each other, but presented differently, e.g. *a **company executive/director*** and *a company pension*. It is also puzzling why within phrases such as *to defend your **basic rights*** part of it is in bold. In practice, the phrase is a complex collocation consisting of two simpler ones, i.e. *to defend rights* and *basic rights*. It seems that only an adjective + noun collocation receives a typographical marking. Yet another example *The children **suffered** psychological and emotional **damage*** shows a reverse of the previous phrase, in that here a verb + noun collocation is in bold. Needless to say, emboldening some elements attracts more attention and thus makes them more salient than others. As a result, should one conclude that only words in bold form collocations or that they form stronger collocations? Assuming that there are solid foundations for such choices, the rationale behind a given presentation form might not be immediately grasped by a user and clearly, these primary examples provide many frequent word combinations that a user could benefit from.

In some senses, a user can click on a heading *Extra Examples* (or a plus icon). The name of the section being pretty straightforward, this way one sees more examples. Here, the level of consistency is definitely increased as only strategies no. 1 or 7 are available. Hence, no elements are marked.

In *OALD* there is one more source of collocations. Namely, a user can click on a heading *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (or a plus icon). On doing so, one can see the beginning of an entry from the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*, but a full entry is only available with an access code, i.e. it is not a free option.

Interestingly, in some entries under some senses there are additional sections, such as *Collocations **Crime***. Upon clicking, one can see several subheadings, e.g. *Committing a crime* or *Fighting crime*. In each subsection, there are a number of collocations, with collocates in bold, but not accompanied by example sentences. Yet, the presentation form is highly regular. Clearly, these are not only collocations with a headword, but collocations pertaining to a given semantic field, so this section acts as an onomasiological dictionary tool.

All in all, in *OALD* it is examples that provide most information on collocations. With frequent senses, the dictionary can feature as many as fifteen primary examples and a lot more as extra examples. Nevertheless, some word combinations are not as salient as others and consequently a user may be confused as to the nature of the differences between some items.

3.1.2. Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English online

In *LDOCE* online, one can have three sources of collocations: primary examples after each sense, collocation boxes and an entry-final section *Examples from the Corpus*. Out of these three elements of the microstructure only primary examples after each sense are present in every dictionary entry.

Examples featured after each sense take one of the following forms:

1) phrases, e.g. case endings;
2) phrases in bold (excluding the article), e.g. a **theatre company**;
3) phrases in bold followed by partial sentences (in the next line). e.g. **resolution of** a forum for the resolution of commercial disputes;

4) phrases in bold followed by full sentences (in the next line), e.g. **action on** Environmental groups want tougher action on pollution from cars.;

5) phrases in bold followed by full sentences with parts in bold, e.g. **responsibility for** No one wants to **take responsibility** for the problem.;

6) full sentences, e.g. Which company do you work for?;

7) full sentences with parts in bold, e.g. On the night the **murder** was **committed**, he was out of the country.

On occasion, *LDOCE* adds glosses within brackets. Additionally, one can click on a speaker icon and listen to each example. Among the seven forms of examples, there appears to be some logic behind the use of bold type. In forms 2, 3, 4, 5, new patterns are introduced in bold. Moving one step further, in forms 3, 4, 5, if an example sentence (or part of it) repeats the pattern presented above, no bold type is used. However, new patterns are sometimes emboldened and sometimes left unmarked (see an example in Fig. 4).

pass/adopt/approve a resolution

🔊 The resolution was passed by a two-thirds majority.

🔊 a **resolution calling for** a ban on dumping nuclear waste

🔊 They have failed to comply with the resolution.

Fig. 4. Bold type in *LDOCE*

It remains unclear why some parts of full sentences are in bold, i.e. why there exist forms no. 6 and 7 and what the rationale behind differentiating between the two is. It is difficult to unambiguously state the reason for the use of bold type. The same doubts hold true for strategies no. 1 and 2.

More often than not, *LDOCE* makes use of collocation boxes which are presented entry-finally (but before *Examples from the Corpus*). Some entries include separate collocation boxes for particular senses, while some entries feature one collocation box with no indication to which sense of a headword it refers to. Occasionally, the dictionary indicates that collocations correspond to a specific sense by including a heading like *Meaning 7a* or *Meanings 1 & 2*. However, at times one can see a repetition of the definition of a relevant sense, e.g. *Meaning 4: a chance to kick the ball or hit the puck into the goal in a game of football, rugby, or ice hockey, given because the other team has broken a rule*. Even though there is lack of uniformity in addressing which sense of a headword is at work, the treatment of collocations inside collocation boxes seems to be pretty regular.

Namely, collocates are grouped according to their part of speech, which means that there are headings, such as *verbs*, *nouns*, *adjectives*. At times there is a category heading, e.g. *adjectives/noun + right*, which might emphasise the attributive use of a set of adjectives and nouns collected in this section. In all sections, though, each collocation is first presented in bold. Some collocations are grouped together, but all appear in bold. Next, most collocations are followed by one example sentence. There are some collocations which are not further accompanied by examples, but this practice is rather infrequent. From time to time, glosses are added within brackets (usually with more advanced units).

In fifteen out of sixteen analysed entries, there is an additional section titled *Examples from the Corpus*. The first subsection has a headword as its heading. It is in bold, as are all instantiations of it within examples. Next subsections feature specific collocations, emboldened as headings and within examples. Importantly though, these examples do not introduce new patterns, so it is reasonable to consider them as entirely additional examples.

On the whole, *LDOCE* takes care of collocations in a few ways, it presents them either among primary examples after each sense or entry-finally in collocations boxes. Collocation boxes usually include more collocations than primary examples. Admittedly, there is some level of inconsistency while referring to specific senses within collocation boxes; yet, the use of bold type appears to follow certain rules.

3.1.3. Collins COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary online

The website from Collins is, in fact, an institutional dictionary set, which means that on one website while typing in any headword, content from various dictionaries from the publisher is provided (Lew 2011: 231), with the *Collins COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary* being presented first. Within *COBUILD* collocations can possibly be found in examples following each sense. Further down the page there are also sections: *Examples of 'a headword' in a sentence* and *COBUILD Collocations* (with a disclaimer that it is a beta version).

Examples following each sense are either partial sentences or full sentences. They are all in italics, with no further typographical marking. Occasionally, there is a grammatical code within brackets following the example, e.g. relatively simple [+ *of*] or more

complex [*VERB pronoun-reflexive*]. With the aim of helping a user understand what is meant by a particular code, all such codes are hyperlinked and upon clicking one sees an explanation of a particular grammar pattern.

Examples of 'a headword' in a sentence offer additional full-sentence examples extracted from the Collins Corpus. All these sentences appear in italics and no bold type is used. Instead, some elements are hyperlinked in such a way that one can see a dotted line under some words and hovering over it opens a caption *Definition of a word*. On clicking, an entry for a word opens. Even though the role of a dotted line is to direct a user to dictionary entries, it may unintentionally draw attention to collocates of a head-word, as shown in Fig. 5.

The draft resolution was backed by 11 countries including Britain.
TIMES, SUNDAY TIMES (2016)

Fig. 5. The use of a dotted line in *COBUILD*

In *COBUILD Collocations* section, there is a list of collocations with a headword, all of which are hyperlinked. Once clicking, one accesses a page with example sentences, in which the collocation in question is not marked in any way. Moreover, there are also shortened entries for both elements of the collocation with hyperlinks to full entries. At the time of writing, *COBUILD Collocations* is in its beta version and there is no further information on which stage the project is in[2].

In brief, in regular entries *COBUILD* does not include many collocations nor it makes them salient by using a different font style. Admittedly, *COBUILD*'s presentation form is remarkably consistent, not adding to a user's confusion. However, such a treatment may not make collocations easily retrievable.

3.1.4. Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online

Cambridge is similar to Collins in that it is also an example of a dictionary set, i.e. it presents content from various sources on one page. In entries from *CALD*, after each sense there are examples, which might be potential sources of collocations. After some senses there is also an option to click *More examples*. There might also be a section titled

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[2] The analysis was conducted in 2021. The information on beta version status disappeared most probably in 2023. However, the treatment of collocations seems not to have changed.

Examples of a headword. Additionally, on some pages a penultimate section is a section *Collocations with a headword*. All these sources of collocations are closely scrutinised in the following paragraphs.

In *CALD* examples may take one of the following forms:

1) phrases in italics, e.g. *a murder case*;

2) phrases in italics with some parts in bold, e.g. *to **approve/adopt** a resolution*;

3) grammatical codes in brackets followed by full sentences in italics with parts in bold, e.g. [+ to infinitive] *It's her responsibility **to** ensure the project finishes on time.*;

4) full sentences in italics, e.g. *Over a hundred people were injured, in several cases seriously.*;

5) full sentences in italics with parts in bold, e.g. *Margot came to stay for a week as company **for** my mother while I was away.*

Additional glosses, if present, are added within brackets. Seemingly, in form no. 3 what is in bold within a sentence is a preposition or conjunction from the grammatical code and any new collocate introduced in the sentence, e.g. [+ to infinitive] *The United Nations **passed** (= voted to support) a resolution **to** increase aid to developing nations.* Why there is a difference between strategies 1 and 2 or 4 and 5 apparently remains unclear (see Fig. 6). On the other hand, *More examples* sections are very predictable, i.e. all examples are full sentences presented in italics with no further emboldening.

- *The case went to the **court of** appeal/the appeal **court**.*

- *He won his appeal and the sentence was halved.*

- *She has **lodged** (= made) an appeal **against** the severity of the fine.*

Fig. 6. Bold type in *CALD*

In eleven analysed entries there is a section given a heading *Examples of a headword*, which is a collection of full sentences from the *Cambridge English Corpus*. Within sentences, a headword appears in italics. No further typographical changes are introduced. Occasionally, underneath is a button *See all examples of a headword*. Interestingly, when all examples are presented on a page, they are all in italics.

Exactly half of the analysed entries feature a section *Collocations with a headword*. Typically, three or four collocations are presented on the page, for more one needs

to click *See all collocations with a headword*. Once doing so, a new page opens with a list of alphabetically-ordered collocations in bold and one example sentence in italics following each collocation. All collocations are hyperlinked and by clicking on any, one is directed to a new page with plenty of examples of this particular collocation. Strikingly, all collocates are either adjectives, nouns or prepositional phrases. There are no verbal collocates in these sections.

To sum up, *CALD* offers maximally three sources of collocations. One of them *Collocations with a headword* appears to be misleading since it does not include verb + noun collocations at all. Within examples (primary or extra) verbal collocates are present. Yet, the reasons for using bold type seem somewhat imprecise.

3.1.5. Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners online

Dictionary entries in the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners online* offer several possible sources of collocations, out of which clickable sections *Collocations and examples* seem to be most easily identified. However, primary examples should not be overlooked.

Examples presented after each sense may take one of the following forms:

1) phrases in italics, e.g. *a murder investigation/charge/conviction*;
2) phrases in bold followed by full sentences in italics, e.g. **appear in court**: *Duggan will appear in court on Monday.*;
3) full sentences in italics, e.g. *Officials are not planning any drastic action.*

Additional glosses are provided within brackets. Three (only three) forms of examples definitely contribute to less confusion on the part of users. The only elements which are in bold are word combinations if followed by an example sentence. On the other hand, it is not clear enough why only some collocations are first introduced in bold and then followed by an example. In Fig. 7, the collocation *cause damage* is not as salient as all the subsequent collocations, among which one can even find *do damage*. In fact, in *The English Web Corpus 2018 cause* is the strongest verbal collocate of *damage*. *Do damage* is also a significant collocation; yet, it is the 68th verbal collocate on the list. Why the strongest collocate is unmarked raises serious doubts.

Mr Charlton surveyed the damage caused by the bulldozer.
damage to: *Damage to the building could take six months to repair.*
do damage: *No damage had been done, and we pushed the van back onto the road.*
suffer damage: *The house suffered only superficial damage in the fire.*
serious/severe/extensive damage: *A fire had caused serious damage to their flat.*
permanent/irreparable/irreversible damage: *Mining in the area was doing irreparable damage to the environment.*
brain/liver/nerve damage: *a new drug to treat nerve damage*
storm/flood/fire/bomb damage (=damage caused by a storm, fire etc): *Experts have been assessing the level of flood damage.*

Fig. 7. Bold type in *MEDAL*

In some senses[3] there is a section with a heading *Collocations and examples*. Upon clicking, the section unfolds and shows three example collocates and a button *Explore Collocations* →. On doing so, a new page opens. It may refer just to one sense of a head-word (in which case a definition of this sense is in bold at the top of the page) or to several senses which are either grouped together and their definitions joined by *or* or presented separately as numbered senses. This difference implies that if definitions are joined, all the collocates may be used with a headword in both senses. Otherwise, collocates become specific insomuch as they are used with a headword in a particular sense. Further, on such a page typically there are a number of sections titled e.g. *Adjectives frequently used with penalty*, *Nouns frequently used before penalty*, *Verbs frequently used with penalty*. Next, several semantically-related collocates are grouped and introduced by one of the collocates in question, e.g. in an entry for *penalty* one can see the first group of adjectival collocates presented this way: *severe: draconian, harsh, heavy, hefty, severe, stiff, tough*. Such a group is followed by one full-sentence example with one of the collocates. How-ever, sometimes an introducing collocation need not be present within the group, e.g. among verbs frequently used with *resolution* one can see the following presentation form: *accept a resolution: approve, endorse, enforce, pass, sign up to, vote for*. It may also happen that a group of collocates has no introductory word, e.g. in nouns frequently used with *trial* one can see a list of the following collocates: *basis, copy, design, period, pro-gramme, project, result, scheme, service, session, version*. Interestingly, some collocates appear in isolation, but they are preceded by the very same collocate, e.g. among adjec-tives frequently used with *penalty* one can see a bullet point: *fixed: fixed*. This repetition could illustrate the insistence on achieving the same presentation form for all collocates,

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[3] In one entry (out of the sixteen analysed) *Collocations and examples* section is presented entry-finally. It does not differ in any other way from the rest of such sections in the other entries.

irrespective of whether grouped or isolated. However, there are some items which receive no introduction whatsoever. Hence, the hypothesis of consistency cannot hold true. When it comes to the use of bold type, it appears to be fairly regular, i.e. all collocates are in bold when presented for the first time. Within example sentences, some parts may occur in bold; yet, these are collocates not introduced above. As exemplified in Fig. 8, *of* is presented in bold because the section introduces verbal collocates and not prepositional ones.

Verbs frequently used with **claim**

• make a claim: **bring, lodge, make, pursue, stake**
 *The employees brought a claim **of** unfair dismissal against the company.*

Fig. 8. Bold type in the *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary*

In four entries (*appeal, responsibility, damage, action*), in some senses there are small sections titled *Collocations* which present a fraction of those dealt with on separate pages through links *Collocations and examples*. The choice seems to be rather arbitrary since adjectives are presented in three of such cases and once verbs can be seen. Notably, such collocates do not have to be semantically-related, e.g. in an entry for *responsibility* in the section *Collocations* there are verbs frequently used with responsibility as the object: *abdicate, accept, assume, bear, evade, exercise, fulfil, shirk, shoulder, take*. None of the elements in such a section is hyperlinked, so a user does not obtain any further information on the use of such collocates. What the exact role of these sections is remains an unresolved issue.

Generally, *MEDAL* features up to three sources of collocations. Although the use of bold type inside entries from the *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary* is consistent, primary examples may introduce some confusion, especially when taking into account particularly strong collocations which are not given prominence in comparison to weaker (but not weak) collocations which are made salient.

3.1.6. Collocations in existing MLDs: a general picture

Having analysed separately strategies for presenting collocations in each MLD, it needs to be pointed out that in all the dictionaries definitions also act as potential sources of

significant word combinations. However, none of the dictionaries makes collocations within definitions salient in any way.

Turning attention to primary examples, quite predictably, in all the MLDs these are present after each sense and they are displayed by default. Table 6 indicates which MLDs use particular forms of examples. Although as many as ten strategies can be found in the MLDs, two of them are present in all the dictionaries; these are: phrases and full sentences. There are also two forms which are unique inasmuch as they are only used in one dictionary. These are versions of introducing grammatical codes in *COBUILD* and *CALD*. It needs to be borne in mind that having a great variety of forms of examples might help differentiate between examples of different nature. On the other hand, though, the reasons for using one form and not the other may not be easily comprehensible for a user.

Table 6. Forms of primary examples

example form	*OALD*	*LDOCE*	*COBUILD*	*CALD*	*MEDAL*
phrases	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
phrases with parts in bold	✓			✓	
phrases in bold	✓	✓			
phrases in bold followed by partial sentences	✓	✓			
phrases in bold followed by full sentences	✓	✓			✓
phrases in bold followed by full sentences with parts in bold	✓	✓			
full sentences	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
full sentences with parts in bold	✓	✓		✓	
full sentences followed by a grammatical code			✓		
full sentences with parts in bold preceded by a grammatical code				✓	

Gouws (2015: 172f.) criticises dictionaries for not differentiating between example sentences and collocations. This is in line with Herbst's suggestion (1996a: 336) that

if collocations are presented in example sentences, their "special character [should be] pointed out by giving them typographical prominence of some sort". Such a view is also shared by Heid (2004: 734), who notes that "collocational data [should be] distinguish[ed] from other example sentences". In practice, this could be achieved by using bold type, which might increase the level of findability and awareness about the typicality of a collocation (Mittmann 1999: 106). However, in the MLDs the use of bold type appears to perform various functions as Table 7 presents. Even though the functions of bold type may seem transparent, it ought to be stressed that within one dictionary several functions of bold type are used and at times it is next to impossible to comprehend why some units are marked in bold and some are not (cf. *a **company executive/director*** and *a company pension* from *OALD*).

Table 7. Functions of bold type

functions of bold type	*OALD*	*LDOCE*	*COBUILD*	*CALD*	*MEDAL*
to mark a unit when presented as a phrase	✓	✓			
to mark a unit within a longer phrase	✓			✓	
to mark a unit before an example	✓	✓			✓
to mark a unit within an example	✓	✓		✓	

In sum, in the MLDs, primary examples stand a good chance of including collocations with a headword. In relation to Research Question 1, it ought to be admitted that all primary examples are present after each sense of polysemous entries and they are all visible by default. Table 8 presents the methods of marking collocations within primary examples in the dictionaries. It is reasonable to conclude that the strategies employed in individual dictionaries may differ a lot. In fact, while *OALD* uses five methods of marking collocations, *COBUILD* gives no prominence to collocations at all. In fact, *MEDAL* is the only[4] dictionary in which the use of bold type appears to be systematic (i.e. all word combinations if followed by an example sentence).

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[4] *COBUILD* has no bold type within examples.

Table 8. Collocations within primary examples

collocations within primary examples	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
unmarked	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
in bold within phrases	✓			✓	
in bold as phrases	✓	✓			
in bold before an example phrase or sentence	✓	✓			✓
in bold within an example sentence	✓	✓		✓	

When it comes to extra examples sections, these are present in *OALD, LDOCE, COBUILD* and *CALD*. In *MEDAL* there are sections titled *Collocations and examples*, yet one cannot separate the two as all examples include collocations and the aim is to present collocations within sentences. In Collins dictionaries and Cambridge dictionaries though, extra examples sections are not parts of the microstructure of one of their products. Since the websites function as dictionary sets, extra examples do not pertain to one dictionary only (apart from extra examples present after each sense in *CALD*). As can be seen in Table 9, position and access to extra examples vary to some extent, yet the dictionaries are more economical insofar as they use fewer presentation techniques as compared to primary examples (see Table 10). Unfortunately, it does take its toll since it is only *LDOCE* that makes collocations salient within extra examples (see Table 11).

Table 9. Extra examples in MLDs: position and access

extra examples	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
position	after each sense	after all senses	after all senses	both after each sense and after all senses	-
access	clickable	non-clickable	non-clickable	after each sense: clickable after all senses: non-clickable	-

Table 10. Forms of extra examples

example form	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
phrases	✓				
phrases with parts in bold					

	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
phrases in bold					
phrases in bold followed by partial sentences					
phrases in bold followed by full sentences					
phrases in bold followed by full sentences with parts in bold					
full sentences	✓		✓	✓	
full sentences with parts in bold		✓			
full sentences followed by a grammatical code					
full sentences with parts in bold preceded by a grammatical code					

Table 11. Collocations within extra examples

collocations within primary examples	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
unmarked	✓		✓	✓	
in bold within phrases					
in bold as phrases					
in bold before an example phrase or sentence					
in bold within an example sentence		✓			

Speaking of additional sources of collocations, i.e. collocation boxes in *LDOCE*, a beta version of *COBUILD Collocations,* collocation sets in *CALD* and entries from the *Macmillan Collocations Dictionary* in *MEDAL* (*OALD* is not taken into consideration due to its paid access to entries from the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary*), it should be pointed out that the treatment of collocations/collocates in one specific source appears to be much more regular than that within primary examples. Within these collocation-

oriented elements of microstructure, the use of bold type is systematic, even though there are other inconsistencies and shortcomings (e.g. no verb + noun collocations in *CALD*). As in the case of extra examples, Collins dictionaries and Cambridge dictionaries do not state that their collocations sections are connected only to one of their products. Taking into consideration position and access, all the MLDs feature sections directed at collocations after all senses and access is mainly non-clickable (see Table 12). The range of example forms is limited (see Table 14), typically a dictionary adopts just one strategy, which stands in stark contrast to what the dictionaries do within primary examples. When it comes to marking collocations in collocation sets, two of the existing MLDs use bold type and two leave collocations unmarked (see Table 14). Curiously, those which leave them unmarked are *COBUILD* and *CALD*, which are not in fact exclusive parts of the flagship products of the two publishers.

Table 12. Collocation sets in MLDs: position and access

collocation sets	*OALD*	*LDOCE*	*COBUILD*	*CALD*	*MEDAL*
position		after all senses	after all senses	after all senses	after all senses
access		non-clickable	non-clickable	many examples displayed by default, clicking possible to access all	clickable

Table 13. Forms of examples in collocation sets

example form	*OALD*	*LDOCE*	*COBUILD*	*CALD*	*MEDAL*
phrases					
phrases with parts in bold					
phrases in bold					
phrases in bold followed by partial sentences					
phrases in bold followed by full sentences		✓			✓
phrases in bold followed by full sentences with parts in bold					
full sentences			✓	✓	

					✓
full sentences with parts in bold					✓
full sentences followed by a grammatical code					
full sentences with parts in bold preceded by a grammatical code					

Table 14. Collocations in collocation sets

collocations within collocation sets	OALD	LDOCE	COBUILD	CALD	MEDAL
unmarked			✓	✓	
in bold within phrases					
in bold as phrases					
in bold before an example phrase or sentence		✓			✓
in bold within an example sentence					✓ (those not targeted at)

All things considered, in an attempt to answer Research Question 1, one needs to consider various sources of collocations separately. When it comes to position of collocations:

- within primary examples: collocations are typically present after each sense,
- within extra examples: collocations are equally frequently present after each sense and after all senses,
- within collocation sets: collocations are typically present entry-finally.

Speaking of access to collocations:

- within primary examples: collocations are typically displayed by default,
- within extra examples: collocation are equally frequently displayed by default and upon clicking,
- within collocation sets: collocation are equally frequently displayed by default and upon clicking.

In terms of exemplification:

- within primary examples: phrases and full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are the most typical forms of examples,

- within extra examples: full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are most typical,
- within collocations sets: phrases in bold followed by full sentences and full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are equally frequent.

Examining each dictionary separately one cannot possibly escape the conclusion that some lexicographical strategies are not transparent and dictionaries are at times not consistent enough, be it in terms of forms of examples, marking of collocations or the use of bold type. Admittedly, throughout the previous sections one could find many critical points of the treatment of collocations in the MLDs. However, it ought to be emphasised that these are all fine dictionaries and the criticism is related exclusively to their weaker points and not the whole products. What follows from the analysis is that it seems reasonable to state that it does not have to be a mistaken idea to bear in mind that less is more.

3.2. Collocation provision test

In order to answer Research Questions 2 and 3, all the translations submitted by the participants as responses to test questions in a collocation provision test were judged as correct (1 point) or incorrect (0 points). The desired translation equivalents are the ones presented in Table 3. However, even though the Moodle platform assigned points automatically, all the submissions were scrutinised manually and with typographic errors or grammatical mistakes (wrong tense) were accepted as correct. There were several translations which were different from the ones in Table 3, but they are listed in at least one of the bilingual dictionaries used to determine translation equivalents, so these were judged as correct. There were 15 such translations. The total number of observations is 1440 (90 participants multiplied by 16 test items).

3.2.1. Dictionary consultations

Activity logs on the platform show that in 1113 observations out of 1440 (which amounts to 77%) the dictionary entry was accessed. The participants were encouraged to consult

dictionary entries if they did not know how to complete a partial translation of a test item. Further, the participants who worked with clickable collocation sets (dictionary versions 1, 2, 5, 6) clicked on a hyperlink to collocations 205 times out of 704 possible (29%). Participants with dictionary versions 1 and 2 also had to decide which collocation sets they wanted to consult (the sets were placed following each of the three senses of a headword). They clicked on a target collocation set in 121 cases out of 368 (33%).

The participants had not been given a pre-test checking their knowledge of the target collocations in English so as not to cause the priming effect. That is why they were first asked to complete a translation and consult a dictionary only if needed. However, in 130 responses out of 1440 (9%), the participants were awarded points for correct answers without dictionary consultation.

The data show that while the participants were moderately willing to consult the dictionary entries, in the versions requiring clicking on hyperlinks to access collocations, they did so only in 29% of the time. It is difficult to speculate on the reasons for such low usage of the hyperlinks. Jumping to the conclusion that some participants were not invested in the task is a tempting explanation; yet, it may have happened that some participants did not notice hyperlinks to collocations or did not believe that they could find there anything useful. In addition, when the participants did click on hyperlinks, success in locating the right set of collocations was achieved in a little over 30% of the attempts. The dictionary versions were prepared manually and were not fragments of existing online dictionaries. Information on whether the participants used any of the MLDs on a daily basis was not collected. Thus, it would be naïve to state unequivocally what led to the situation. It should be noted, however, that overall the participants were not eager to explore the dictionary entries, which might be alarming for lexicographers.

3.2.2. Data analysis

Analyses were conducted using the R Environment for Statistical Computation (version 4.1.2; (R Core Team 2021)) on Windows 10 x64 (build 19045), using the packages: lme4 (version 1.1.27.1; (Bates et al. 2015)), Matrix (version 1.3.4; (Bates and Mächler 2021)), effects (version 4.2.1; (Fox and Weisberg 2019, 2018; Fox and Hong 2009; Fox 2003)), carData (version 3.0.5; (Fox et al. 2022)), ggeffects (version 1.3.1; (Lüdecke 2018)), purrr

(version 0.3.4; (Wickham and Henry 2020)), report (version 0.5.7; (Makowski et al. 2023)), tibble (version 3.1.6; (Wickham and Müller 2021)), openxlsx (version 4.2.5; (Schauberger and Walker 2021)), ggplot2 (version 3.3.5;(Wickham 2016)), stringr (version 1.4.0; (Wickham 2019)), forcats (version 0.5.1; (Wickham 2021)), tidyverse (version 1.3.1; (Wickham et al. 2019)), dplyr (version 1.0.7; (Wickham et al. 2021)), tidyr (version 1.2.0; (Wickham and Girlich 2022)) and readr (version 2.1.2; (Wickham et al. 2022)).

Mixed-effects logistic regression models were run using the glmer function from the lmer package. In order to answer Research Question 2, a number of models were fitted, with the Correct answer as a response variable.

Linear regression models were fitted using the lm function from the stats R package. Linear regression models allow analyses of the relationship between a response variable (Time) and predictor variables: Position, Access, Exemplification. The linear regression models answer Research Question 3.

3.2.3. Accuracy of collocation provision

The accuracy of use of legal language collocations was operationalised as a score obtained by the participants in the collocation provision test. The participants could get 1 point for each correct answer. The grand mean rate of correct answers was 45.3% (corresponding to a points score of 7.25 points out of 16). Table 15 shows the mean score for each dictionary version.

Table 15. Mean accuracy rate and score by dictionary version

dictionary version	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
mean score	46.1% 7.3 pts	37.7% 6 pts	51.9% 8.3 pts	54.7% 8.8 pts	36.5% 5.8 pts	31.8% 5.1 pts	58.4% 9.2 pts	45.3% 7.2 pts

With the aim of assessing the influence of predictor variables on accuracy of collocation provision, a series of logistic regression models were fitted, in which accuracy was the response variable. Model selection followed the procedure in Zuur et al. (2009). The procedure led to the following optimal model:

```
Correct ~ Access + Pattern + Access:Pattern + (1|Item) + (1|Par-
ticipant)
```

In the formula, Correct refers to accuracy rate: Correct or Incorrect, Access refers to how collocation sets are accessed in a dictionary entry: in clickable entries participants had to click on a hyperlink to access collocation sets, in non-clickable entries collocation sets were displayed by default. Pattern refers to the elements of a collocation: verb + noun collocations (e.g. *adopt a resolution*) or modifier + noun collocations (e.g. *grave violation*). The selected model includes the fixed effects of Access, Pattern and their interaction, as well as Item and Participant as random intercepts.

The model selected (m6) is not significantly different by log Likelihood from the slightly more complex model that includes also Congruence as a fixed effect (m5b). The usual model diagnostics (AIC, BIC) of the two models pointed in different directions: BIC was lower for m6, while AIC was slightly lower for m5b (see Table 16 for details).

Table 16. Model diagnostics of the best models

model	AIC	BIC	logLik	deviance
m6	1550.1	1581.7	-769.04	1538.1
m5b	1549.0	1585.9	-767.52	1535.0

A decision was made to choose a simpler model of the two (m6). A summary of the selected model is shown in Fig. 9. The model displays a dispersion parameter of 0.97, so there is no evidence of overdispersion.

```
summary(m6 <- glmer(Correct ~ Access + Pattern + Access:Pattern +
(1|Item) + (1|Participant), results, family='binomial', glmerCon-
trol(optimizer='bobyqa')), correlation = F)
Generalized linear mixed model fit by maximum likelihood (Laplace
  Approximation) [glmerMod]
 Family: binomial  ( logit )
Formula: Correct ~ Access + Pattern + Access:Pattern + (1 | Item) + (1
|
    Participant)
   Data: results
Control: glmerControl(optimizer = "bobyqa")

    AIC      BIC   logLik deviance df.resid
  1550.1   1581.7   -769.0   1538.1     1427

Scaled residuals:
    Min      1Q  Median      3Q     Max
-5.8619 -0.5757 -0.2302  0.5959  4.0317

Random effects:
 Groups      Name         Variance Std.Dev.
 Participant (Intercept) 1.510    1.229
 Item        (Intercept) 1.674    1.294
Number of obs: 1433, groups:  Participant, 90; Item, 16

Fixed effects:
                             Estimate Std. Error z value Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)                   -0.3542     0.5119  -0.692   0.4890
Accessnon-clickable            0.6089     0.3194   1.907   0.0565 .
```

```
PatternM+N                            -0.7590       0.6769  -1.121    0.2622
Accessnon-clickable:PatternM+N    0.6557       0.2699   2.429    0.0151 *
---
Signif. codes:  0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
```

Fig. 9. Summary of the selected model predicting Accuracy of collocation provision

Given the parameter estimates, it becomes evident that the interaction effect is significant ($z = 2.429$, $p = 0.0151$). Random effects of Participant and Item display similar variances of 1.5 and 1.7, respectively, so the variability of the two is at the same level. Looking at R^2c (conditional coefficient of determination), which is 0.46, it can be concluded that the entire model explains nearly 50% of the variance of the outcome. R^2m (marginal coefficient of determination) of 0.039 indicates that the fixed effects alone explain about 4% of the variance, which is a fairly small amount.

The predicted probabilities of accuracy rate predicted by this model are as follows:

- in the Verb + Noun Pattern, clickable Access predicts a 41% probability of accuracy rate (95% CI [0.20, 0.66]), while non-clickable Access has a 56% predicted probability (95% CI [0.32, 0.78]),
- in the Modifier + Noun Pattern, clickable Access leads to an accuracy rate of 25% (95% CI [0.11, 0.47]), while non-clickable Access corresponds to a predicted probability of 54% (95% CI [0.30, 0.76]).

As also visible in Fig. 10, the effect of Pattern manifests itself in clickable entries rather than in non-clickable entries. The Verb + Noun Pattern results in higher probability of correct answers in clickable entries. The difference between clickable and non-clickable Access is significantly greater in the Modifier + Noun Pattern.
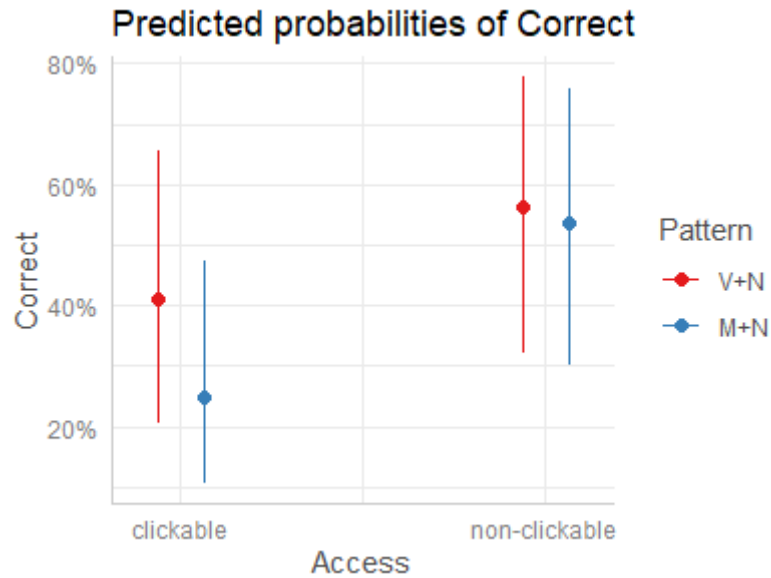
Fig. 10. Predicted probabilities of a Correct answer by the interaction of Access and Pattern, with 95% Confidence Intervals

Analysing Fig. 9, it should also be noted that the effect of Access is marginally significant ($p = 0.0565$). The predicted probability of accuracy rate based on clickable Access amounts to 32% (95% CI [0.18, 0.51]). In the case of non-clickable Access, the predicted probability is 55% (95% CI [0.37, 0.72]). In brief, non-clickable Access might result in higher accuracy (see Fig. 11).
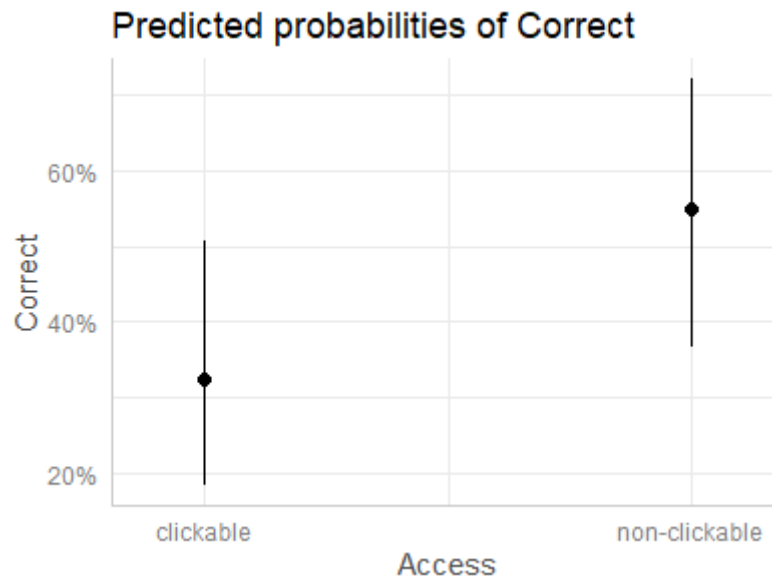
Fig. 11. Predicted probabilities of a Correct answer by Access with 95% Confidence Intervals

The difference may be understandable, given the relative low frequency of accessing collocations through hyperlinks (in 29% of the cases). It may have been the case that

they did not notice the hyperlinks or remained unaware of the functionality offered. Fig. 2 in the section on the test design (2.6) shows that the caption *Collocations* was displayed in blue, following the tradition of marking hypertext. Additionally, when hovered over, a mouse cursor changed into a hand and the caption became underlined. Nevertheless, whatever the reasons, when the participants were not required to click on hyperlinks, they were more likely to find and correctly use the information provided to them by default.

3.2.4. Time

The mean time needed to complete the test was 889 sec (14 min 49 sec). The time was measured from accessing the first test question (having typed in an access code) till submitting the test. Table 17 shows the mean time for dictionary versions.

Table 17. Mean time by dictionary version

dictionary version	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
mean time	10 min 57 sec	14 min 20 sec	17 min 17 sec	15 min 16 sec	12 min 37 sec	12 min 34 sec	19 min 22 sec	15 min 36 sec

In order to assess the influence of predictor variables on time, a series of linear regression models were fitted in which Time was the response variable. A backwards selection process was used to arrive at an optimal model, which was left with Access as the only predictor variable. In the model, the effect of Access is statistically significant ($t = 2.936$, $p = 0.00426$).

The selected model predicts 755 sec (12 min 35 sec) for clickable Access (95% CI [628.98, 880.83]) and 1014 sec (16 min 54 s) for non-clickable Access (95% CI [891.88, 1135.38]), that is 34 percent longer on average.

Access effect plot
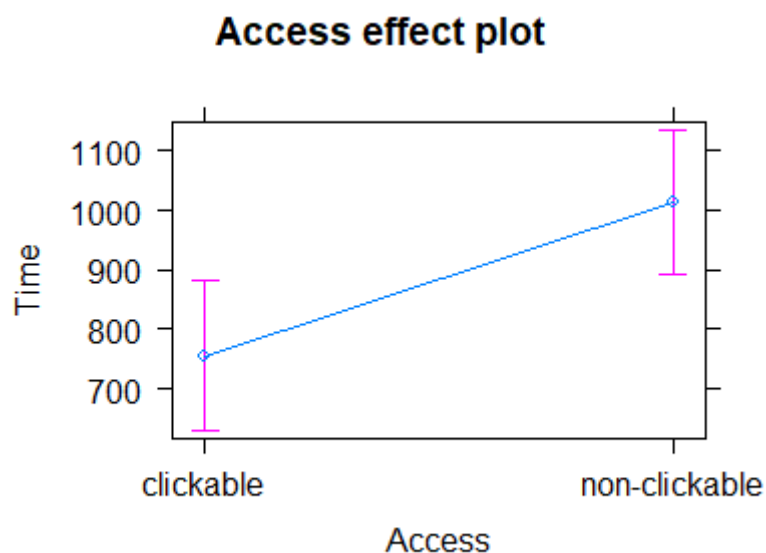
Fig. 12. Time by Access plot (the vertical lines show 95% Confidence Intervals; the dots on the vertical lines indicate the predicted means)

One tentative explanation of the difference may be that the participants may have taken longer to scroll down entries full of information. It should be borne in mind that all the headwords used in the study had three senses. Thus, it may have happened that locating an appropriate sense took longer when collocations were presented in entries by default. On the other hand, presumably, clickable collocation sets did not obscure the content of pedagogical general-purpose dictionary entries and its more fundamental elements of microstructure, i.e. definitions and primary examples. Additionally, it might have been the case that fully-packed entries imposed a high cognitive load on the participants. According to cognitive load theory (for an introduction to the theory see Sweller 1988), the human brain is capable of processing a limited amount of new information. In the case of non-clickable dictionary versions, the design of the entries might have made the participants look for information longer by increasing one type of cognitive load, namely extrinsic load, generated by the way in which information was presented in entries.

3.2.5. Limitations of the study

The present study has several limitations that need to be taken into consideration. Firstly, the study was conducted online, with no physical presence of the researcher. This means that the participants were not supervised during the test. We cannot be sure that the

participants had carefully read the email from the researcher and the instructions. Although the participants were asked to complete the test in one sitting, we cannot be certain that they acted accordingly. On the other hand, such a design allowed the participants to perform more naturally, possibly reducing the Hawthorne effect (Cohen et al. 2007: 159f.). Even though the participants knew that their performance was being observed, they did not experience it directly.

Another issue connected with the platform used to conduct the study is that the participants had to be logged in. They participated in the test from their own accounts. This could have made the participants consult dictionary entries less frequently than they would normally have. The participants may have thought that they were expected to know the collocations and, as a result, could have decided to attempt to translate the sentence fragments without the help of a dictionary.

Furthermore, we cannot be certain that the participants did not use external sources to complete the test questions. The participants were explicitly asked not do so, yet their behaviour was not being observed.

Further, the participants were not explicitly taught the structure of the dictionary entries they consulted. As a way of implicit learning, they were asked to complete the trial test which in the format mirrored the main test and the dictionary entries. Further, the information on whether the participants used dictionaries on a daily basis has not been collected. Consequently, the level of familiarity with a typical learner's dictionary entry may have varied across participants.

Finally, the platform used measures the total time a participant spent completing the test. Thus, it was not possible to divide the time into separate test items. With a more advanced software it could have been possible to include Congruence and Pattern as potential predictors of Time.

Conclusion

The thesis concerns the topic of collocations in legal language and their treatment in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries. The theoretical background outlined in Chapter One suggests that the concept of collocation is a matter of debate among scholars and delineating its boundaries is challenging, as is listing its defining features. Collocations may be viewed from different perspectives and when doing so, an emphasis may be placed on its different aspects. From the phraseological point of view, collocation needs to be contrasted with other types of multi-word combinations (free combinations and idioms), while from the statistical point of view, collocation needs proof in the form of association scores calculated on the basis of language corpora. Notwithstanding the foregoing, scholars agree that the concept of collocation is an important one that should be paid attention to, especially in the context of foreign language learning. In a number of studies, language learners, when compared to native speakers, have shown deficiencies in collocational knowledge (e.g. Granger 1998; Erman 2009). Lexicography-oriented studies have also suggested inadequate behavior of learners in search of collocations in dictionaries (e.g. Laufer 2011; Chen 2017).

Among studies on collocation in language, it has been suggested that it is frequent in legal discourse. Investigating legal English and legal Polish, it can be concluded that the use of collocations is one of their characteristic features. Such a feature may turn out to be especially problematic in translation. Given the fact that English remains one of the official languages of the European Union and it is commonly used in preparation of legal acts in the European context, accurate use of collocations both in English and in Polish seems to be utmost importance.

With foreign language learners in mind, the first aim of the study was to investigate the treatment of legal language collocations in online monolingual English learners' dictionaries (Research Question 1). The selection of collocations consisted of a number of steps. English legal words served as a starting point, which preceded the selection of collocations. In the selection procedure, special care was taken to ensure the relatively fixed status of the word combinations. Polish equivalent collocations were also selected, taking into consideration their fixedness. The corpora of European legal texts were used as sources of the information on the significance and strength of association between

elements of collocations within legal discourse. In terms of the elements of a collocation, it was decided to include nouns as bases of collocations and verbs as well as adjectives or participles (acting as modifiers) as collocates. Another fundamental aspect in the selection procedure was congruence, understood as similarity between an English collocation and its Polish equivalent. In the present project, congruent collocations were composed of words of the same word class, as opposed to incongruent collocations which included words of different word classes in their English and Polish versions. A final criterion in the selection procedure was polysemy of a base of a collocation. With a view to investigating the position of collocations within a dictionary entry, only polysemous headwords (with three sense at least) were accepted as bases of collocations. Such a careful selection procedure resulted in shortlisting sixteen collocations, out of which eight were verb + noun collocations and eight were modifier + noun collocations. Among each pattern, four collocations were congruent and four were incongruent.

The noun bases of the selected collocations were looked up in the five British monolingual learners' dictionaries and the treatment of collocations in entries was analysed. The analysis concentrated on three aspects: the position of collocations, access to collocations and the presence of example sentences illustrating the use of collocations. The findings of the investigation show that there are three elements of microstructure typical of including collocations and these are: primary examples, extra examples and collocation sets. In terms of the position of collocations, within primary examples, collocations are present after each sense of polysemous entries. Within extra examples, collocations are equally frequently present after each sense and entry-finally. Collocation sets are typically featured entry-finally. Access to collocations is provided either by default or upon clicking. Within primary examples, collocations are typically displayed by default. Within extra examples and collocation sets, collocations are equally frequently displayed by default and upon clicking. Taking exemplification into account, within primary examples, phrases and full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are the most typical forms of examples. Within extra examples, full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are most typical. Within collocation sets, phrases in bold followed by full sentences and full sentences (with no further typographical marking) are equally frequent. However, a general conclusion drawn from the analysis suggests that the MLDs can be at times inconsistent, especially in the typographical marking of collocations. The rationale behind the use of bold type is sometimes mysterious.

On the basis of the analysis of the dictionary treatment of collocations in legal language, the study investigating the use of such collocations was prepared. It was decided that the study would explore the influence of the position of collocations in an entry (following each sense or all senses), access to collocations (presented by default or upon clicking), presence of examples, collocation congruence and pattern on the accuracy of the use of collocations and time needed to complete the test. The test consisted of sixteen Polish sentences and their English translations in which collocations were missing. The study participants (upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English) were asked to complete the translations and, if needed, consult dictionary entries for the headwords. Eight dictionary versions were manually prepared on the basis of the content of the existing MLDs. The test was created on Moodle LMS platform. The participants were students of English at Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań and the University of Łódź (10% of the participants). The platform used to conduct the study recorded activity logs. Thus, it was observed that in the dictionary versions requiring clicking on hyperlinks to access collocations, the participants did so only in 29% of the time. Such a relatively rare use of a hyperlink function is in line with Chen's observation (2017).

The influence of predictor variables on accuracy rate of collocation provision was assessed using mixed-effects logistic regression models. The selection procedure led to the optimal model in which Access and Pattern as well as their interaction function as predictor variables. In the model, the interaction reaches statistical significance. The model predicts that the Verb + Noun Pattern displays a higher probability of correct answers in clickable entries rather than non-clickable entries. The model predicts an accuracy rate of 41% in clickable entries, while in non-clickable entries predicted probability is 56%. In the Modifier + Noun Pattern, clickable Access leads to an accuracy rate of 25%, while non-clickable Access corresponds to a predicted probability of 54%. The data show that the difference between clickable and non-clickable Access is significantly greater in the Modifier + Noun Pattern. In the selected model, the effect of Access is marginally significant. The predicted probability of accuracy rate in clickable entries is 32%, while in non-clickable entries, it is 55%. On the whole, in order to answer Research Question 2, it was demonstrated that the interaction of Access and Pattern statistically significantly influences accuracy of use of collocations in legal language. Additionally, the findings also suggest that non-clickable Access might lead to a higher accuracy rate irrespective of the collocation pattern.

With the aim of answering Research Question 3, the influence of predictor variables on time was assessed by running a series of linear regression models. The backwards model selection procedure led to the optimal model, in which Access is the only retained predictor variable. The selected model predicts 34% longer time for non-clickable Access than for clickable Access.

Altogether the results of the experimental study suggest that non-clickable access to collocations leads to longer time needed to complete the test, but simultaneously it leads to higher accuracy of use of collocations in legal language. In the context of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), the study suggests that foreign language learners may not be particularly willing to make use of hyperlinks; instead, they might prefer to have essential information provided to them by default, even though it might increase the time they spend on a task. The conclusions drawn from the study may be generalisable only to some extent, bearing in mind the limitations of the study, arising from its setup (the study was conducted online).

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COBUILD = Collins *COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary Online.* https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/

LDOCE = Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online. https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/

MEDAL = Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners Online. https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/

OALD = Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary Online. https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/

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Appendix A

Appendix A: The Polish translation equivalents to the English collocations

adopt a resolution

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
adopt a resolution	powziąć uchwałę, przyjąć rezolucję	powziąć, podjąć uchwałę	-	podjąć/podejmować uchwałę; przyjąć/przyjmować rezolucję

hear a case

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
hear a case	rozpoznawać sprawę	-	rozpoznać sprawę	-

lodge an appeal

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
lodge an appeal	złożyć apelację, wnieść odwołanie	-	-	wnieść/wnosić odwołanie

incur a penalty

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
incur a penalty	podlegać karze	-	-	podlegać, ponieść karę

stand trial

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
stand trial	stanąć przed sądem	-	stanąć przed sądem	-

waive a claim

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
waive a claim	zrezygnować z żądania <roszczenia, reklamacji>	-	rezygnować z, odstępować od (*żądania, roszczenia*)	zrezygnować z roszczeń

join a company

ENG	PL

	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
join a company	-	przystąpić do spółki	-	przystąpić do spółki

enjoy a right

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
enjoy a right	korzystać z uprawnienia, korzystać z prawa, mieć prawo	to enjoy civil rights - korzystać z praw publicznych	-	korzystać z prawa, mieć prawo

diminished responsibility

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej *WP*	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
diminished responsibility	zmniejszona odpowiedzialność	ograniczona poczytalność	ograniczona poczytalność; zmniejszona odpowiedzialność	ograniczona poczytalność; zmniejszać odpowiedzialność

grave violation

ENG	PL

	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck	The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary	Wielki słownik języka polskiego
grave violation	-	ciężkie naruszenie	-	-

malicious damage

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck	The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary	Wielki słownik języka polskiego
malicious damage	złośliwe uszkodzenie	rozmyślne zniszczenie mienia	-	-

reasonable care

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck	The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary	Wielki słownik języka polskiego
reasonable care	należyta <dostateczna> staranność <troska>	należyta troska	-	należyta staranność

attempted fraud

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck	The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary	Wielki słownik języka polskiego
attempted fraud	usiłowanie dokonania oszustwa;	-	-	usiłowanie oszustwa;

| | | | | próba oszu-stwa |
| | usiłowanie oszu-stwa | | | |

juvenile court

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
juvenile court	sąd dla nieletnich	-	sąd dla nie-letnich	sąd dla nie-letnich

libel action

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
libel action	action for libel - sprawa o zniesławienie	-	sprawa o zniesławienie	proces o zniesławienie

premeditated murder

ENG	PL			
	Słownik terminologii prawniczej i ekonomicznej WP	*Słownik terminologii prawniczej C.H. Beck*	*The New Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary*	*Wielki słownik języka polskiego*
premeditated murder	morderstwo z pre-medytacją; zabójstwo z premedytacją	morderstwo z premedytacją	-	morderstwo z premedytacją; zabójstwo z pre-medytacją

Appendix B

Appendix B: The test sentences

Parliament may hold a debate and **adopt a resolution** at the December session.
Parlament może przeprowadzić debatę i **przyjąć rezolucję** na grudniowej sesji.

The Grand Board **hears a case** in the presence of only eight of its members.
Wielka Izba **rozpoznaje sprawę** w obecności jedynie ośmiu członków.

The Dutch exporter **lodged an appeal** against that decision.
Holenderski eksporter **wniósł odwołanie** od tej decyzji.

Thirty is the maximum percentage allowed annually as a prepayment without **incurring a penalty.**
Trzydzieści to maksymalny procent dozwolony rocznie jako przedterminowa spłata bez **ponoszenia kary**.

The suspect is unable to **stand trial** due to mental illness.
Podejrzany nie może **stanąć przed sądem** z powodu choroby psychicznej.

The State can **waive a claim** by converting that claim into capital of an equivalent amount.
Państwo może **zrezygnować z roszczenia**, przekształcając je, w odpowiadającej mu kwocie, na kapitał.

A new shareholder **joined the company** in 2008.
Nowy wspólnik **przystąpił do spółki** w 2008 r.

Citizens of the Union shall **enjoy the rights** provided for in the Constitution.
Obywatele Unii **korzystają z praw** przewidzianych w Konstytucji.

Exemption from criminal responsibility includes insanity or **diminished responsibility**.

Wyłączenie odpowiedzialności karnej obejmuje niepoczytalność lub **ograniczoną poczytalność**.

Simon was complicit in **grave violations** of the right to due process.

Simon brał udział w **poważnych naruszeniach** prawa do rzetelnego procesu sądowego.

Member States shall ensure the data collected are protected against **malicious damage.**

Państwa członkowskie gwarantują, że zgromadzone dane są chronione przed **celowym uszkodzeniem**.

If he fails to exercise **reasonable care**, he can be held liable.

Jeżeli nie dochowa **należytej staranności**, może być pociągnięty do odpowiedzialności.

Fraud or **attempted fraud** may render you liable to penalty.

Każde oszustwo lub **próba oszustwa** będą podlegały sankcjom.

Additional **juvenile courts** need to be established.

Należy również ustanowić dodatkowe **sądy dla nieletnich**.

The newspaper calls for efforts to avoid abuse of **libel actions**.

Gazeta wzywa do wysiłków zmierzających do unikania wytaczania **procesów o zniesławienie**.

Eighteen people were executed in Tripoli after being convicted of **premeditated murder**.

W Trypolisie przeprowadzono egzekucje 18 osób, po ich skazaniu za **morderstwo z premedytacją**.

Appendix C

Appendix C: The dictionary entries

resolution

noun

1   [countable] **a formal decision or statement agreed on by a group of people, especially after a vote**

The resolution called for the resumption of negotiations.

The General Assembly rejected the resolution on the subject of arms control.

They have failed to comply with the resolution.

2   [uncountable] **the act of solving or ending a problem, difficulty etc.**

Both countries called for the peaceful resolution of the border dispute.

Diplomats are hoping for a speedy resolution to the crisis.

The government is pressing for an early resolution of the dispute.

3   [countable] **a definite decision to do or not to do something**

She made a resolution to visit her relatives more often.

I made a New Year resolution to give up smoking.

What happened to your resolution to be nice to Barbara?

case

noun

1   [countable] **a particular situation or example of something**

There were 16 cases of damage to cars in the area.

In some cases people have had to wait several weeks for an appointment.

I wouldn't normally agree but I'll make an exception in this case.

2   [countable] **a question or matter to be decided in court**

When does her case come before the court?

The lawyers will only be paid if they win the case.

The case involved charges of police corruption.

3   [countable] **a set of facts or arguments that support one side in a discussion etc.**

There is a strong case for getting parents more involved in the school's activities.

The report makes out a strong case for spending more money on hospitals.

She was being offered a chance to state her case.

appeal

noun

1   [countable] **an urgent request for money, information, or help**

The police have issued a new appeal for information.

The appeal for people to donate blood was very successful.

His main message was an appeal for unity in the face of the great weather challenge.

2   [uncountable] **a quality that makes somebody/something attractive or interesting**

The programme has a very wide appeal.

The Beatles have never really lost their appeal.

How do you explain the appeal of horror films.

3   [countable, uncountable] **a formal request to a court or to somebody in authority to change its decision**

He won his appeal and the sentence was halved.

The sentence was reduced to three years on appeal.

The court dismissed his appeal against the verdict.

penalty

noun

1   [countable] **a punishment for breaking a rule or law**

The penalty for travelling without a ticket is £200.

The maximum penalty for the offence is two years' imprisonment.

The protesters were told to clear the area around the building, on penalty of arrest if they did not.

2   [countable] **a disadvantage in sports given to a player or team for breaking a rule**

Woodson received a penalty.

Referee Michael Reed had no hesitation in awarding a penalty.

> *Hysen handled the ball and conceded the penalty that gave Manchester United the lead.*

3 [countable] **a disadvantage brought about as a result of a situation or action**

> *One of the penalties of fame is loss of privacy.*

Why should I pay the penalty for somebody else's mistake?

Increased risk of skin cancer is one of the penalties of sunbathing.

trial

noun

1 [countable, uncountable] **a formal examination of evidence in court by a judge and often a jury, to decide whether someone somebody guilty of a crime**

> *It was a very complicated trial that went on for months.*
> *He did not receive a fair trial.*
> *He remains in prison awaiting trial on major fraud charges.*

2 [countable, uncountable] **the process of testing the ability, quality of performance of somebody/something**

A new drug is undergoing clinical trials.

The system will operate for a six-month trial period.

Australia and the US have conducted joint trials of the drone.

3 [countable] **an experience or a person that is annoying and causes difficulties for somebody**

> *She was a real trial to her parents when she was younger.*
> *The book is all about the trials of growing up.*
> *She writes about the trials of life on the American frontier.*

claim

noun

1 [countable] **a statement that something is true although it has not been proved**

The company had made false claims about its products.

> *Gould rejected claims that he had acted irresponsibly.*
> *The victim's claims were ignored by the police.*

2 [countable] **an official request for money that you believe you have a right to**

You can make a claim on your insurance policy.

Fill in and return the claim form as soon as it arrives.

Your claim should reach us no later than 31 January.

3   [countable, uncountable] **a right that somebody believes they have to something**

They had no claim on the land.

Philip feared Edward would lay claim to the Scottish crown.

Tottenham's goalkeeper has a valid claim to the title of Britain's best.

company

noun

1   [countable] **a business organization that makes money for selling goods or services**

Company profits were 5 per cent lower than last year.

The company was set up just after the war.

Sheila found some work as a secretary in an insurance company.

2   [uncountable] **the fact of being with somebody else and not alone**

The two men enjoy each other's company.

I didn't realize you had company.

I'm not in the mood for company.

3   [uncountable] **a group of people together**

She told the assembled company what had happened.

Parents should teach their children how to behave in company.

Things started to go wrong when he got into bad company.

right

noun

1   [uncountable] **what is morally good or correct**

Do children of that age really know the difference between right and wrong?

The protesters believe that they have right on their side.

He wouldn't apologize. He knew he was in the right.

2 [countable] **something that you are morally or legally allowed to do or have**

Workers' rights are practically non-existent in many clothing factories here.

You have no right to stop me from going in there.

You must stand up for your rights.

3 **rights** [plural] **the authority to perform, publish, film, etc. a particular work, event, etc.**

He sold the rights for $2 million.

She got $1.5 million for the film rights to her book.

The company paid £5 million for the television rights to the Olympic Games.

responsibility

noun

1 [countable, uncountable] **a duty to be in charge of someone or something, so that you may be blamed if something bad happens**

It is their responsibility to ensure the rules are enforced.

The Minister has responsibility for the National Health Service.

She takes her responsibilities as a nurse very seriously.

2 [uncountable] **blame for something bad that has happened**

The surgeon accepted full responsibility for the error that led to her death.

Nobody has claimed responsibility for the bombing.

We take full responsibility for any errors in the text.

3 [countable, uncountable] **a moral duty to behave in a particular way**

We want to instil a sense of personal responsibility in children.

What is the individual's responsibility to others in modern society?

The company saw it as part of its social responsibility to provide education for its workers.

violation

noun

1 [countable] **the act of not respecting somebody's rights, peace, privacy, etc.**

Several soldiers were suspected of committing human rights violations.

This is a clear violation of privacy rights.

He claimed that the way he'd been treated was a violation of his constitutional rights.

2   [countable, uncountable] **the act of going against or refusing to obey a law, an agreement, etc.**

They were in open violation of the treaty.

Several students left the class early, in violation of school rules.

Troops crossed the border in violation of the agreement.

3   [countable] **the act of entering an area without permission or damaging a holy or special place**

This was a violation of a sacred space.

Pilots witnessed a violation of US airspace.

The violation of a cemetery was outrageous.

damage

noun

1   [uncountable] **physical harm caused to something so that it is broken, spoiled, or injured**

The building suffered extensive damage by fire in 1925.

There may be permanent brain damage.

Strong winds had caused serious damage to the roof.

2   [uncountable] **harmful effects on somebody/something**

The children suffered psychological and emotional damage.

The damage to the bank's image is extremely serious.

Incidents of this type cause irreparable damage to relations with the community.

3   **damages** [plural] **money that is paid to someone by a person or organization who has been responsible for causing them some injury or loss**

He was ordered to pay damages totalling £30 000.

The court awarded him £15,000 in damages.

The injured party needs to prove the extent of the harm in order to obtain damages.

care

noun

1 [uncountable] **the process of looking after someone/something and providing what they need for their health or protection**

They shared the care of the children.

Mira's going to be very weak for a long time after the operation, so she'll need a lot of care.

The couple relied on informal care from relatives.

2 [uncountable] **attention or thought that you give to something, especially to the details of a situation or thing**

Great care is needed when choosing a used car.

The note on the box said 'Fragile – handle with care'.

I can see that a lot of care has gone into your work.

3 [countable, uncountable] **a feeling of worry; something that causes problems or worries**

At last I felt free from my cares.

Sam looked as if he didn't have a care in the world.

Lean back in a hot bath and forget all the cares of the day.

fraud

noun

1 [countable, uncountable] **the crime of deceiving someone in order to get money or goods**

She was charged with credit card fraud.

She was found guilty of fraud.

He was jailed for two years for fraud and deception.

2 [countable] **person who pretends to have qualities, abilities, etc. that they do not really have in order to cheat other people**

He's nothing but a liar and a fraud.

She felt a fraud accepting their sympathy.

She was a psychic who was later revealed to be a fraud.

3   [countable] **something that is not as good, useful, etc. as people claim it is**

What happens if the investment turns out to be a fraud?

The whole research programme was an elaborate fraud.

Unfortunately the portraits were frauds.

court

noun

1   [countable, uncountable] **the place where legal trials take place and where crimes, etc. are judged**

Her lawyer made a statement outside the court.

The 28-year-old striker was in court last week for breaking a rival player's jaw.

It could not be proved in a court of law.

2   [countable] **an area made for playing games such as tennis and baseball**

Can you book a squash court for tomorrow?

He won after only 52 minutes on court.

She watched a few of the games while waiting to go on court.

3   [countable, uncountable] **the place where a king or queen lives and/or a king or queen, together with their family and their servants, advisers etc.**

The painting shows the emperor with his court.

He quickly lost his popularity at court.

She came to visit England, where she was presented at the court of James I.

action

noun

1   [uncountable] **the process of doing something in order to make something happen or to deal with a situation**

The time has come for action if these beautiful animals are to survive.

The government must take action now to stop the rise in violent crime.

Officials are not planning any drastic action.

2   [countable, uncountable] **a legal process to stop a person or company from doing something, or to make them pay for a mistake, etc.**

He is considering taking legal action against the hospital.

The director faces disciplinary action.

A criminal action was brought against him.

3   [uncountable] **fighting in a battle or war**

The possibility of taking military action has not been ruled out.

There have been reports of widespread enemy action in the area.

13 soldiers were killed and 10 wounded in action.

murder

noun

1   [countable, uncountable] **the crime of killing someone deliberately**

He was found guilty of murder.

On the night the murder was committed, he was out of the country.

There were three murders in the town last year.

2   [uncountable] **used to describe something that is difficult or unpleasant**

It's murder trying to get to the airport at this time of day.

It was murder in the office today.

The traffic was murder this morning.

3   [countable] **a group or flock of crows**

He loves collective nouns such as "a bed of oysters, a host of angels, a flood of tears, a murder of crows".

Why do we refer to a flock of crows as a "murder of crows"?

A murder of crows brutally collides with the building's windowpanes.

Appendix D

Appendix D: The collocations for the headwords

resolution

1   formal decision

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

draft: On 10 January 1989 the draft resolution was put to a vote.

joint: This should be done in the form of a joint resolution of the Congress.

ordinary: The motion was carried on a show of hands as an ordinary resolution.

special: The directors were advised that a special resolution was necessary to permit the transaction.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

adopt: Labour also adopted a resolution favouring unilateral disarmament.

reject: We strongly urge the subcommittee members to reject the resolutions.

table: Siddall tabled a resolution asking for the Board's approval of the Five Year Business Plan.

vote on: Are there any comments you wish to make before we vote on this resolution?

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

under (a/the) ~: Under the resolution, the city will pay back these bonds in 2043.

~ on: The General Assembly rejected the resolution on the subject of arms control.

2   solving a problem

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

amicable: In order to settle, or for there to be an amicable resolution, cases of this kind require objective assessments.

peaceful: Hopes of a peaceful resolution to the conflict were fading.

quick: I hope you find a quick resolution to your matter.

ultimate: The ultimate resolution can bring growth and greater resilience.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

achieve: This study describes how mediators' perspectives can achieve conflict resolution.

facilitate: How can I help facilitate a harmonious resolution for all concerned?

press for: The government is pressing for an early resolution of the hostage crisis.

require: Ending the occupation requires a resolution of the conflict.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

~ to: Governments can create peaceful resolutions to seemingly intractable problems.

3   decision to do/not to do something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

attainable: Read more on setting attainable resolutions and tips to sticking to it.

firm: The essence of stable society is people who make firm resolutions.

good: He felt resentful, and his good resolutions vanished.

New Year/ New Year's: For once I was determined to meet the requirements of a New Year's resolution.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESOLUTION**:

carry out: Only about 8 percent of people actually carry out their resolutions.

keep: You're already having trouble keeping the resolutions you just made.

make: I made a New Year resolution to give up smoking.

set: What about setting some work resolutions for 2022?

case

1   example

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

exceptional: But shipments as big as the latest case are exceptional.

extreme: She was suffering from an extreme case of sunburn.

rare: Except in a few rare cases, bee stings are not dangerous.

typical: We shall limit our consideration to the simplest typical case.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

document: Between 1984 and 1991, only four cases were documented.

highlight: He highlighted the case of Harry Farr, 25, who was executed for cowardice in 1916.

illustrate: This article illustrates a case of delayed vocal cord paralysis.

show: In it he shows a case of a patient with an abnormal pulse.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

in sb's/this ~: Jobs are hard to find but in his case that's not the problem because he has so much experience.

~ of: *There were 16 cases of damage to cars in the area.*

2 in court

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

civil: He is involved with civil cases, not criminal ones.

criminal: It was the longest and most expensive criminal case in US history.

court: Statements, reports and other documents may eventually be used as evidence in court cases.

test: This is a test case which will influence what other judges decide.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

dismiss: Later that month both cases were dismissed.

hear: The case will be heard in the Court of Appeal.

lose: She lost the case and was ordered to pay legal fees.

settle: The case against the newspaper was settled out of court.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

in a/the ~: Much of the evidence in the case came from company e-mails.

~ against: *The case against her collapsed when a key witness was proved to have lied.*

3 arguments for/against something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

convincing: Permission will only be granted if a convincing case is made by the student.

good: There's a good case for/against bringing in new regulations.

strong: There is a strong case for getting parents more involved in the school's activities.

weak: The case against her was weak, to say the least.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

argue: *I thought she argued her case very well.*

bolster: *He's deliberately using fake confirmation links to bolster his case.*

make: *He sat there while I made the case for his dismissal.*

overstate: *She's very busy so don't overstate the case - just give her the facts.*

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CASE**:

~ against: *Is there a case against wearing school uniforms?*

~ for: *The ruling strengthens the case for equal pension and sickness pay rights for part-timers.*

appeal

1   urgent request for something you need

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

direct: *The police have issued a direct appeal to the witness to come forward with information.*

emotional: The child's mother made an emotional appeal on TV for his return.

fresh: *The growing instability in the country has led to fresh appeals for calm.*

urgent: *The fire service has made an urgent appeal for more part-time firefighters.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

back: *Anyone can back the appeal and donations can be made below.*

issue: *A UK Christian Aid organization has issued an appeal for help here.*

renew: *The police have renewed their appeal for help from the public.*

send: *All the organizations involved have sent urgent appeals to the government, asking for extra funding.*

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

~ for: *Again the appeal for funds had a great result.*

~ to: *The police have issued an appeal to the public to stay away from the area over the weekend.*

2   quality, being attractive

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

great: The film has great appeal for young audiences.

popular: Football has popular appeal.

sex: She's definitely got sex appeal.

wide: Spielberg's movies have a wide appeal.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

broaden: We are trying to broaden the appeal of classical music.

hold: His views hold no appeal for me.

lose: This used to be a marvellous hotel but it has lost its appeal in recent years.

widen: If they want to attract new members, they will have to widen their appeal.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

~ for: School lost its appeal for her in the second year.

3   formal request to change a decision

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

formal: She decided to make a formal appeal through her lawyer.

personal: Once more the Supreme Commander's personal appeal brought results.

successful: Heath's appeal against the sentence was later successful.

unsuccessful: Bentley's appeal was unsuccessful on 13 January 1953.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

consider: The US Supreme Court could refuse to consider the appeal.

lodge: He's lodged an appeal against the size of the fine.

reject: The court thus rejected an appeal filed by the lawyers.

uphold: His appeal was upheld and he was released immediately.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **APPEAL**:

on ~: The jury agreed with her, but she lost the case on appeal.

under ~: The Panama case, meanwhile, is under appeal.

~ against: An appeal against his sentence is being considered.

~ for: A new legal team has won an appeal for McPherson.

penalty

1   punishment

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

financial: In one country energy regulators have imposed financial penalties when investment commitments were not fulfilled.

fixed: Fixed penalties for various crimes are widely accepted.

harsh: Prosecutors had unsuccessfully sought a harsher penalty.

maximum: The maximum penalty for the offence is now three years' imprisonment.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

avoid: Filing online could help you to avoid late-payment penalties.

impose: Severe penalties are imposed for election fraud.

increase: Despite moves to increase penalties for gun crime, the illegal possession of firearms is becoming a significant threat.

incur: If you fail to comply with these responsibilities, you are likely to incur financial penalties.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

on/under ~ of: They made him promise, under penalty of death.
~ for: They asked for the maximum penalty for hoax calls to be increased to one year.
~ on: He threatened stiffer penalties on young offenders.

2   in sports

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

disputed: By virtue of a hotly disputed penalty, Brazil led 2-1 deep into stoppage time.

winning: Eric Dier scored the winning penalty for England.

first-half: They were narrowly beaten by a first-half penalty.

early: An early penalty for the home team was converted by Joe Herbert.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

award: We were awarded a penalty after a late tackle.

kick: Fox kicked a last-minute penalty to give the All-Blacks a sensational victory.

miss: He missed that penalty against France.

take: The skipper told me I had to take the penalty and I was delighted.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

~ by/from: Thet won, thanks to a late penalty from Fry.

3   disadvantage

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

heavy: *She has paid a heavy penalty for speaking the truth.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

accept: In so doing they accept the penalties which follow such action.

face: He wants her to face the penalties of being a heretic.

pay: If you don't do the job right, you will pay the penalty.

suffer: People who lose their jobs are suffering the penalties for longer periods.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **PENALTY**:

~ for: You must accept the penalty for your rash behaviour.

~ of: It's just one of the penalties of fame.

trial

1   in court

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

civil: In civil trials, the jury's decision need not be unanimous.

criminal: She has experience of handling long serious criminal trials in the Crown Court.

fair: The men claim they did not receive a fair trial.

public: Famous Communists were forced to admit to crimes in public trials.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

adjourn: The trial was adjourned until November.

hold: The trial was held at Newcastle Crown Court.

put sb on: The terrorists were put on trial six years after the bombing.

stand: He is due to stand trial for murder later this month.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

at the ~: More than a hundred witnesses gave evidence at the trial.

on ~: She is presently on trial at the Old Bailey.

~ by: The president faces trial by television tonight when he takes part in a live debate.

~ for: She faces trial for murder.

2   testing somebody/something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

clinical: Clinical trials of the new drug may take five years.

controlled: The controlled trial enrolled 160 patients (81 control; 79 intervention).

large-scale: Some large-scale trials have also yielded encouraging results.

double-blind: However, a 12-month double-blind trial of 42 postmenopausal women found no benefit.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

carry out: This information is to be obtained by carrying out experimental trials.

conduct: Several trials were conducted to investigate vitamin therapies.

plan: The researchers are now planning a small human trial to test the effects of the vaccine.

undergo: A new drug is undergoing clinical trials.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

under ~: A new stocktaking system is currently under trial at the supermarket.

3   difficult experience/person

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

real: My brothers and I were always a real trial to my parents.

sore: She was a sore trial to her family at times.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

be: Learning to live with blindness was a major trial for the young girl.

have: He had a trial with Chelsea when he was young.

endure: They are filled with great strength and can endure sore trials that would break any mortal man.

write about: She writes about the trials of life on the American frontier.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **TRIAL**:

~ to: She was a real trial to her parents when she was younger.

claim

1 statement without proof

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

conflicting: There are conflicting claims about the cause of the fire.

extravagant: Some manufacturers make extravagant claims for their products.

false: His claims were later found to be false.

unfounded: These claims of discrimination are completely unfounded.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

deny: Government officials denied claims that the country possessed chemical weapons.

make: He made wild claims about being able to cure cancer.

reject: He rejected claims that he had affairs with six women.

support: There is a growing body of evidence to support their claim.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

~ about: Claims about American guns smuggled into Mexico are greatly exaggerated.

~ of: Claims of corruption within the police force were denied.

2 request for money

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

civil: Time limitation periods for civil claims can be extended rather easily.

excessive: Are we to go back to the bad old days of excessive wage claims out of step with rises in productivity?

fraudulent: Police are investigating fraudulent claims for fire damage.

insurance: The insurance claim was approved a couple days later.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

investigate: How long can an insurance company investigate a claim legally?

meet: The insurance company cannot meet such enormous claims.

submit: Please submit your claim for travelling expenses to the accounts department.

waive: In this respect the organizer waives all claims of any kind.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

~ against: However, his claims against the State remain unresolved.

~ for: It's a claim for Social Security benefits.

~ on: You should make a claim on your insurance policy.

3   right to something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

competing: There are competing claims for access to these finite resources.

good: He has a good claim to the land.

prior: She had a prior claim on his affections.

rightful: She has no rightful claim to the title.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

have: Our neighbours have no claim to that strip of land between our houses.

lay: Four men laid claim to leadership of the country.

press: The Maldives pressed its claim to hold the summit.

prove: You will have to prove your claim to the property in a court of law.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CLAIM**:

~ on: His children have a claim on his estate.

~ to: Britain's claim to the territories was found to be unlawful.

company

1   business organization

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

commercial: The exhibitions present sponsorship opportunities for commercial companies.

international: She works for a major international company.

large: Large companies and government departments are considering decentralization.

private: There are many tiny private companies.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

acquire: Our organization is constantly acquiring new companies and their products.

found: The company was founded in 1972.

join: He joined the company as its chief operating officer.

run: He runs his own company, organising events for the IT industry.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

in a/the ~: He has shares in several companies.

within a/the ~: No single indicator is likely fully to uncover the structure of power within a company.

2   being with somebody else

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

convivial: This event should appeal to lovers of convivial company and good conversation.

good: He's very good company.

pleasant: Some of those guys were actually rather pleasant company.

poor: Better to be alone than in poor company.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

enjoy: Ross enjoyed the company of his colleagues.

have: I didn't realize you had company.

keep sb: I'll stay and keep you company.

need: When you're depressed you need company.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

for ~: I took my mother with me for company.

in sb's ~: He's nervous in the company of his colleagues.

3   group of people

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

assembled: He glanced round the assembled company.

bad: Things started to go wrong when he got into bad company.

mixed: Some jokes are just not appropriate to tell in mixed company.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

address: Indeed, I now had the courage to go to the front to address the assembled company.

entertain: Four excellent speakers have 5 minutes each to entertain the assembled company before a champion is chosen.

explain: Ann explained to the assembled company that 2008 was a special year.

keep: John's mother was worried about the company he kept.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COMPANY**:

in ~: Those children don't know how to behave in company.

right

1   morally good or correct

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHT**:

debate: Many will debate the rights and wrongs of this, and whether it is fair.

establish: It was difficult to establish the rights and wrongs of the matter.

have: They both had some right on their side.

know: Children of that age don't know right from wrong.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHT**:

in the ~: There's no doubt that he's in the right on this.

2   morally or legally allowed

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHT**:

contractual: The system provides effective means to enforce property and contractual rights.

fundamental: That statement proclaims that every child is unique and has a fundamental right to education.

human: This company always operates with respect for human rights.

women's: New laws have been passed to protect women's rights.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHT**:

defend: We should defend our right to demonstrate.

enjoy: Free members shall enjoy full rights of membership.

infringe: People have said that the measure has infringed constitutional rights.

respect: We respect your right to privacy.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHT**:

by ~: The property belongs to her by right.

~ of: The new charter establishes the rights and duties of citizens.

~ to: Do I have any right to compensation?

within your ~s: You're acting entirely within your rights.

3   rights: legal authority

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHTS**:

film: The company paid £2 million for film rights to the book.

property: Both object and property rights can be inherited.

television: The company paid £5 million for the television rights to the Olympic Games.

translation: Translation rights in all foreign languages are available.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHTS**:

acquire: He has acquired the film rights to the book.

buy: The studio bought the rights to his new book.

hold: I hold commercial rights to reproduce the design.

sell: He sold the film rights for $2 million.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RIGHTS**:

~ to: I hear that she sold the film rights to her book for a substantial sum.

responsibility

1   duty/job

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

managerial: Such courses strengthen students understanding of professional ethics and practice managerial responsibilities.

overall: The Department of Education has overall responsibility for schools and universities.

parental: The male and female share parental responsibilities.

statutory: Owners have a statutory responsibility to ensure that these signs are maintained.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

assume: Serrano immediately assumed temporary responsibility for foreign affairs.

have: The Council has responsibility for maintaining the streetlights.

shirk: He could not have been accused of shirking his responsibilities.

take: We need to take responsibility for looking after our own health.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

~ for: The heads of school departments have particular responsibilities for the curriculum.

~ to/towards: The club has a responsibility to its members.

2 blame

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

collective: *The cabinet must take collective responsibility for this disastrous decision.*

diminished: *He was found not guilty of murder on the grounds of diminished responsibility.*

full: I accept full responsibility for the failure of the plan.

personal: I take personal responsibility for what went wrong.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

bear: Developed countries must bear much of the responsibility for environmental problems.

claim: Terrorists have claimed responsibility for yesterday's bomb attack.

shift: They wanted to shift responsibility for the failure onto their employees.

take: Someone had to give orders and take responsibility for mistakes.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

~ for: Full responsibility for the fiasco lies with the PR department.

3 moral duty

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

collective: *The welfare of children is a collective responsibility.*

moral: *I think we have a moral responsibility to help these countries.*

personal: *We want to instil a sense of personal responsibility in children.*

social: *The company saw it as part of its social responsibility to provide education for its workers.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

abdicate: *The media has abdicated its responsibility to report the facts.*

have: *We have a responsibility to our shareholders and to our depositors.*

place: *The government of the time placed responsibility for the poor on the Church.*

shoulder: *She has to cope with her grief and shoulder the responsibility of bringing up children alone.*

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **RESPONSIBILITY**:

~ to/towards: *She feels a strong sense of responsibility towards her employees.*

violation

1   not respecting rights, peace, etc.

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

alleged: *Several lawsuits regarding the alleged privacy violations were settled out of court.*

clear: *This is a clear violation of privacy rights.*

grave: *The truth is that grave violations continue against the human rights of the world's indigenous peoples.*

widespread: *Saudi Arabia continues to commit widespread violations of basic human rights.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

constitute: *This clearly constitutes a violation of the country's sovereignty.*

investigate: *The Ombudsman is charged with the task of investigating alleged violations of human rights.*

perpetrate: The decision made it possible for authorities to perpetrate massive violations of fundamental rights**.**

prevent: *The new Copyright Act aims to prevent copyright violation in the digital age.*

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

~ of: *The verdict was a clear violation of justice.*

2   going against a law/agreement

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

flagrant: *The attack on civilians is a flagrant violation of the peace agreement.*

open: *They were in open violation of the treaty.*

rule: How often do rule violations lead to incidents or injuries that otherwise could have been prevented?

wilful: Any team in wilful violation of this rule may be subject to disciplinary action.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

commit: The army was accused of committing violations against the accord.

constitute: This action constitutes a violation of international law.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

in ~ of: There is plenty of evidence that her actions were in violation of an earlier contract.

*~ **against:** These are violations against minimum wage agreements.*

3   entering without permission, destroying a place

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

blatant: He confessed to his blatant violations of NATO airspace.

continuous: UNPROFOR never had the political or military support to respond effectively to the continuous violations of the areas.

incomprehensible: More than once he went upstairs, determined to put an end once and for all to this incomprehensible violation of his place of residence.

repeated: Repeated violations in an area will also bring more surveillance, and it is likely that these violators will be caught.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

capture: In order to check this property, we will again build a monitor that attempts to capture the violation of the property.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **VIOLATION**:

~ of: This was a violation of a sacred space.

damage

1   harm/injury

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

accidental: The insurance policy did not cover me for accidental damage to my computer.

irreversible: By smoking for so long, she may have suffered irreversible damage to her health.

malicious: Report any incident involving theft or malicious damage to the police.

severe: The earthquake caused severe damage to a number of buildings.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

cause: We surveyed the damage caused by the bomb.

inflict: Industry could inflict further damage on the island's ecology.

prevent: Prevent further damage by making emergency repairs.

suffer: Yvonne sadly suffered brain damage and she subsequently died.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

~ by: The palace suffered extensive damage by fire in 1825.

~ from: Crops are sprayed with chemicals to prevent damage from insects.

~ to: Strong winds had caused serious damage to the roof.

2   harmful effects

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

irreparable*: Incidents of this type cause irreparable damage to relations with the community.*

permanent: *The incident did permanent damage to relations between the two countries.*

psychological: *Had this innocent gesture caused major psychological damage?*

untold: *The revelations caused untold damage to his political reputation.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

cause: The death of a parent can cause long-lasting psychological damage.

do: Don't you think you've done enough damage already?

repair: It will be hard to repair the damage to his reputation.

suffer: The children suffered psychological and emotional damage.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**:

~ to: The closure of the factory will cause severe damage to the local economy.

3   damages: money

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGES**:

compensatory: Compensatory damages are different depending upon the hiring date.

consequential: Manager shall not be responsible for incidental or consequential damages.

heavy: It can be heavy damages in defamation suits.

substantial: Juries often award substantial damages when this occurs.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGE**S:

award: He was vindicated in court and damages were awarded.

obtain: The injured party needs to prove the extent of the harm in order to obtain damages.

pay: The police have been ordered to pay substantial damages to the families of the two dead boys.

seek: Brown is seeking damages of $1,500 for each day of his incarceration.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **DAMAGES**:

in ~: They are claiming £45 million in damages.

~ for: He received damages for personal injury.

~ of: She was awarded damages of £90,000.

care

1   looking after somebody/something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

intensive: Last night she was critically ill in intensive care. an intensive care unit.

medical: People expect good standards of medical care.

nursing: The PCT provides nursing care in patients' homes out of normal working hours.

tender: She's still very frail and will need lots of loving tender care.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

need: Mira's going to be very weak for a long time after the operation, so she'll need a lot of care.

provide: The charity provides care and shelter for homeless people.

receive: The elderly residents receive an excellent standard of care and treatment.

take: He left his job to take care of his sick wife.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

in ~: He had been in foster care since he was five.

in sb's ~: You won't come to any harm while you're in their care.

under the ~ of: He's under the care of Dr Parks.

2   attention/thought given to something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

great: She painted the window frames with great care so that no paint got onto the glass.

reasonable: You should use reasonable care when administering any medication.

special: We all need special care on occasion.

utmost: These delicate flowers must be treated with the utmost care.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

exercise: Consumers must exercise care when buying medicines online.

need: Great care is needed when choosing a used car.

require: This is an area where extreme care is required.

take: We'd taken enormous care in choosing the location.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

with ~: A label on the box read: 'Glass? handle with care'.

without ~: He was found guilty of driving without due care and attention.

3   worry/problem

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

everyday: Leave your everyday cares and responsibilities behind you.

normal: In addition, the normal cares of everyday life can add to this stress.

petty: My mind broke free from my petty cares.

superfluous: What should preserve us from superfluous cares?

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

escape: Come and escape the cares of everyday life while improving the quality of your own life.

forget: Lean back in a hot bath and forget all the cares of the day.

soothe: They were soothing their cares, their hearts oblivious of sorrows.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **CARE**:

without a ~: *Johnson seemed without a care in the world.*

fraud

1   crime

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

attempted: *The majority of attempted fraud against businesses involves checks.*

complex: *Police are investigating a complex fraud involving several bogus contractors.*

massive: *The company recently collapsed after an alleged massive fraud.*

outright: *Seniors are often victims of overbilling and outright fraud.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

allege: *Some workers alleged fraud during this card check election.*

combat: *We believe ID cards will not help to combat identity fraud.*

detect: *Internal auditors detected a possible fraud.*

perpetrate: *The computer is simply the mechanism for perpetrating the fraud.*

2   person who pretends

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

complete: She is a complete fraud and thief.

cynical: He is really a cynical fraud rather than a loon.

empty: *I will still maintain that your King is but an empty fraud from top to bottom.*

obvious: *I looked into DeVere, and he's an obvious fraud.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

be: *She believes her lawyer was a fraud.*

3   false thing

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

elaborate: The whole research programme was an elaborate fraud.

huge: *The status quo is a huge fraud.*

scientific: *It was a scientific fraud which was initially received as truth but eventually exposed for what it was.*

wholesale: *Within 18 months dedicated free-speech activists led by an amateur scholar show that "Printing America" was a wholesale fraud.*

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **FRAUD**:

be: What happens if the investment turns out to be a fraud?

court

1 court of law

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

civil: Eviction proceedings take place in a civil court.

high: This is the highest court in the land.

juvenile: Cepeda is still going through the legal process in juvenile court.

supreme: Thomas was the only African-American justice on the Supreme Court.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

appear in: He's due to appear in court again on Monday.

bring sb to: Three teenage girls were brought before the court for robbing an elderly woman.

go to: The case should never have gone to court.

satisfy: The newspaper must satisfy the court that there is a public interest in publication of the pictures.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

at ~: He was found guilty at Swindon Crown Court.

before the ~: This evidence was not put before the court.

in ~: Relatives of the dead girl were in court.

2 area for sport

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

badminton: Once on the badminton court, she becomes really aggressive.

basketball: A new basketball court has been built in the park.

squash: Can you book a squash court for tomorrow?

tennis: The hotel has two tennis courts.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

off (the) ~: Off court she is just as aggressive as she is on the court.

on (the) ~: The players have been on court for an hour.

3   (place for) kings/queens

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

aristocratic: Music was an important element in imperial and aristocratic courts.

itinerant: He does not seem to be describing an itinerant court, though he is describing a travelling king.

lavish: He influenced princes, governors and aristocrats by keeping them at his lavish court.

royal: Much of the intellectual life was centered around the royal court.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **COURT**:

at ~: He quickly lost his popularity at court.

action

1   process of doing something

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

corrective: Test results also identify deficiencies requiring corrective action.

decisive: What was needed, he said, was decisive action to halt what he called these savage crimes.

direct: In a bid to stop whale hunting, Greenpeace have threatened direct action.

swift: This problem calls for swift action from the government.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

call for: *The analyst's report called for proactive action more than reaction.*

put sth into: We need to put these ideas into action.

swing into: The complaints system swings into action as soon as a claim is made.

take: *We must take action to deal with the problem before it spreads to other areas.*

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

~ against: The authorities took no action against these outrages.

in ~: I have not yet seen the machines in action.

~ on: The government is taking strong action on refugees.

out of ~: He is out of action following an ankle injury.

2   legal process

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

court: The couple are still considering whether to take court action.

civil: Her husband brought a civil action against her after their divorce.

legal: Two leading law firms are to prepare legal actions against tobacco companies.

libel: Mediation has an extremely high success rate in libel actions.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

bring: A criminal action was brought against him.

face: The council demanded that we remove the posters or face legal action.

take: I considered taking legal action.

threaten: On what grounds is the client threatening legal action?

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

~ against: Her husband brought a civil action against her after their divorce.

3   fighting

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

combat: Only a handful of German tankers saw regular combat action.

enemy: He was killed during enemy action.

military: The possibility of taking military action has not been ruled out.

terrorist: Indeed, there is increasing evidence of desperation in terrorist actions.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

authorize: Congress authorized military action through a series of statutes.

be sent into: He declared that French soldiers will not be sent into action in Iraq.

go into: American soldiers are going into action against the Mujahadin.

see: I never saw action during the war.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **ACTION**:

in ~: He was reported missing in action.

murder

1   crime

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

horrific: After witnessing the horrific murder he experienced temporary loss of speech.

mass: Hitler was responsible for the largest mass murder in history.

premeditated: He was charged with premeditated murder.

unsolved: In various newspapers he was linked to other unsolved murders.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

commit: The murder was committed over five years ago.

implicate sb in: They were suspected of being implicated in the murder of the leader of the opposition.

investigate: Police investigating the murder of the 13-year-old girl have spoken to thousands of people in the area.

witness: The child had witnessed the brutal murder of two gang members.

2   something unpleasant

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

absolute: The journey home through the storm was absolute murder!

everyday: Who has the time to talk about boring old everyday murder anymore?

pure: I live right beside an Indian takeaway and it's pure murder in the summer when all I can smell is chicken!

sheer: Now they really get down to business - it's sheer murder.

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

be: The traffic out there is murder.

PREPOSITIONS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

~ on: These new shoes are murder on my feet.

3   group of crows

ADJECTIVES FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

giant: It's no secret that giant murders of crows have been gathering around the Bay Area in increasingly large numbers in recent years.

ominous: Tourists will slowly uncover more and more dark secrets about this tourist town as the encounter a stolen statue, an ominous murder of crows, and more.

perched: A chill wind ruffled the treetops and gained momentum, sending the perched murder of crows into a black frenzy of feathers as they took flight.

whole: One crow may not be very intimidating, but a whole murder of crows might make you think twice!

VERBS FREQUENTLY USED WITH **MURDER**:

abduct: When Prue McKeel's brother is abducted by a murder of crows, her life goes from ordinary to fantastical in a hurry.

attack: Patrick and Robert get into a fight, while Anna is standing on a ledge on the outside of the mansion and being attacked by a murder of crows.

descend: It's the murder of crows descending near the reservoir.

flock: She ran around with weird herbs and had murders of crows flocking around her.