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日本人英語学習者のコロケーション学習における
L1利用の効果について

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Key words : collocations, EFL Learners, phraseology, L1 interference, translation

1. Background

It is now widely acknowledged that second language learners should have an awareness of collocations in order to utilise the target language in a more fluent manner, both receptively and productively. This is because collocations constitute a significant percentage of both spoken and written language (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Erman and Warren, 2000; Foster, 2001; Hill, 2000). Therefore, it is impossible to fully comprehend the target language without understanding them.

One of the problems in terms of the acquisition of collocations by L2 learners, however, is that there is no clear definition about what kind of linguistic phenomena they encompass. In fact, Wray (2002) found that lexical units with more than a single word are referred to by 50 different names, which resulted in no conclusive theories as to how they are processed and acquired by L2 learners.

Another problem is that L2 learners process lexical items differently from native speakers. Sinclair (1991) explained that native speakers' lexical processing switches between the open-choice and idiom principles where the latter constitutes the fundamental part of their lexical processing. With the idiom principle, native speakers holistically access lexical items in their memory for accurate and quick retrieval. This type of processing can be achieved through a vast amount of exposure to the language as words are so entrenched in native speakers' memory as exemplars that they are no longer the subjects of grammatical analysis. On the other hand, L2 learners' production of language relies on grammatical rules because their exposure to the target language is usually more limited. Hence their attention is focused on understanding word-by-word syntactic and semantic information, which referred to the open-choice principle in Sinclair's terminology. Despite the apparent differences in terms of access and processing of lexical inputs by native speakers and L2 learners, the frequency-oriented approach is more prevalent in research.

This study aimed to assess the efficacy of focusing on collocations as a learning method for Japanese

learners of English within an EFL (English as a foreign language) environment; in particular, the benefit of categorising them in detail along the phraseological continuum model in overcoming the problem of having a limited exposure to the target language. Furthermore, the study aimed to address the impact of distinguishing collocations from the phraseological view in the area of memory retrieval with relation to lexical representations in L2 learners' memory.

2. Literature Review

This section gives an overview of the relevant concepts in the literature that is concerned with the establishment of an effective learning method of collocations by Japanese EFL learners. The review focuses on two areas: clarifying the type of collocations that causes most difficulty for Japanese EFL learners; and understanding the mechanism of how Japanese EFL learners process collocations.

2.1 Phraseological Definition of Collocations

A key difficulty with examining collocations is the absence of one exact definition as to their form and nature. Many researchers use the term collocations and other terms, such as formulaic sequences, interchangeably as to describe the various lexical phenomena that are comprised of more than two words. From the phraseological point of view, which focuses on the combinational aspects of multi-word units, collocations are divided into two major groups: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. Grammatical collocations are explained as a combination of one open and one closed class word, such as *in advance* and *fond of*. On the other hand, lexical collocations consist of basically two open class words such as nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Figure 1 describes how the phraseological framework categorises word combinations.

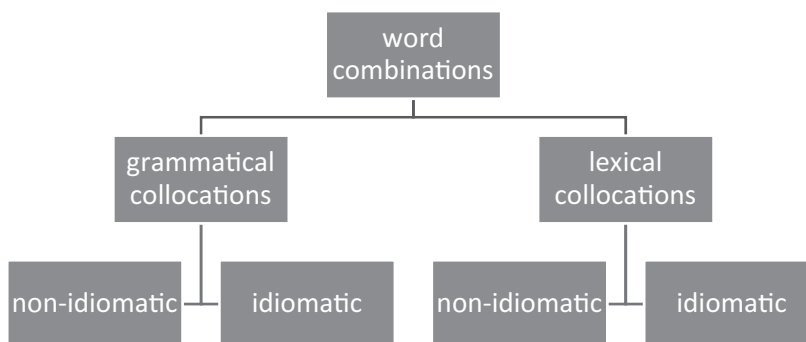


Fig. 1 This diagram shows the collocational categorisation based on the phraseological approach (Modified from Howarth, 1998: 27).

Given the absence of a consistent definition of collocations, Howarth (1998) attempted to apply more detailed categorisations to word combinations by taking into account the following criteria: restricted

collocability, semantic specialisation, and idiomaticity, each of which is gradable, and arranged them on a continuum scale. His model, the Phraseological Continuum Model, divided lexical collocations into 4 broad categories, namely free combinations (FC), restricted collocations (RC), figurative idioms (FI), and pure idioms (PI). To illustrate the distinctions among the four categories, consider the word *heavy*, for example. FCs, such as *heavy stone*, are the most straightforward type of word combination where each component is used in their literal sense and are therefore combinable again into other strings. RCs, such as *heavy rain*, form more fixed expressions than FCs, as one of the component words is used in a delexical sense while the other elements hold their literal meaning (*heavy* in this expression does not indicate the concept relating to weight, but rather amount and strength). FIs can be used in their exact sense depending on the context; however, they also possess a holistic metaphorical meaning. An example of this type is *heavy things* (physically heavy objects / difficult issues to discuss). The last category is PIs that are the most fixed and idiomatic expressions, such as *heavy handed* (to treat someone/something with unnecessary strength). Although Howarth's model attempts to categorise the different types of word combinations, the distinctions can be vague at times, especially between RCs and FIs as it is rather difficult to draw a line on what substitution is acceptable. Table 1 summarises the phraseological continuum model with the above examples.

Table 1 *Phraseological Continuum Model (Adopted from Howarth, 1998 : 28)*

	Free Combinations	Restricted Collocations	Figurative Idioms	Pure Idioms
Lexical Collocations	heavy stone	heavy rain	heavy things	heavy handed

The main difficulties associated with the learning of collocations are posed by lexical collocations, due to two reasons. Firstly, it is true that the component words in lexical collocations form a rather liberal relationship with each other, however, some combinations are not regarded as the norm from the perspective of native speakers. As in the examples above, the word *heavy* can be combined not only with *stone*, but also *traffic* and *smoker* to make different collocations separately. Therefore, the flexibility of a word combination can mislead L2 learners to believe that any combination is feasible. An illustration of this is that *busy traffic* would be regarded less favorably than *heavy traffic* as a native-like expression, indicated by a much higher raw frequency rate in the BNC corpus for the latter.

Another difficulty of lexical collocations is that they are, in most cases, cross-linguistic expressions. This means that generally speaking, there is usually a counterpart collocation in L1 that shares the same concept against what is expressed in L2. For example, there is a similar collocation to *strong wind* in Japanese as *tsuyoi kaze*. This is not the case for the grammatical collocations; for example, the expression *look forward to* is expressed by a longer sentence in Japanese rather than a lexical unit. Because collocations share the same concept between the two languages, L2 learners depend heavily on their L1 when combining words. Hence

this L1 reliance results in the construction of some unusual collocations (e.g., Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Laufer, 2003), where there are discrepancies in the choice of component words between their L1 and the L2. This problem is often referred as negative L1 transfer.

2.2 Lexical Representation in L2 Mental Lexicon

The negative L1 transfer mentioned above has been identified as the biggest problem in collocation learning in many studies (e.g., Bahns, 1993; Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Granger, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2003). The reason why such phenomena occur can be understood by examining how the lexical input is received and represented in L2 learners' mental lexicon as information for use. Mental lexicon is a metaphor for describing a part of one's long-term memory that contains information regarding a word's meaning, pronunciation, syntactic characteristics, and so on (Kadota, ed., 2003: 1). According to Levelt (1989, cited in Kadota, 2015: 7), lexical entries are represented in two separate components in L1 mental lexicon. The lemma component relates to semantic and syntactic aspects of lexical input; and the lexeme component concerns phonological, and morphological (orthographical) aspects of lexical entries.

Jiang (2000: 49) stated that the different kinds of information represented in L1 lexicon are highly integrated within each entry and they are all automatically available as required in the process of production. Such automated integration of different kinds of information can only be achieved by extensive, and highly contextualised exposure to the language, and that availability of all the represented information in the lexicon is "critical" for appropriate and efficient use of these lexical entries in natural speech. In this sense, it is easy to understand how the quality of the exposure that L2 learners receive would limit the acquisition of single words, let alone collocations. However, a more serious issue arises from the particular state of lexical representation in L2 learners' mental lexicon that causes the L1 interference. This problem occurs due to the fact that L2 learners, especially adult learners, usually possess an established concept network in their L1 that they would unconsciously apply in the learning of an additional language. This means that in the process of learning new vocabulary, learners mainly concentrate on remembering the external features of words, which are spelling and pronunciation, because the meaning is usually provided via L1 in the form of translation or definition. In other words, it could be understood that the lexical representations in most L2 learners' mental

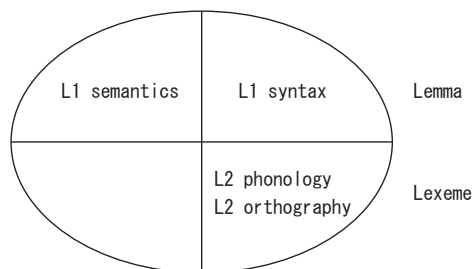


Fig. 2 The second stage of L2 lexical development consists of the L2-based lexeme / L1-based lemma information (Adopted from Jiang, 2000: 53).

lexicon consist of two separate components as in the Levelt's model mentioned earlier, but each of those stores information in different languages. This notion was proposed by Jiang (2000: 50) with the three stages of mental representation in L2 vocabulary acquisition development: (1) the formal stage; (2) the L1 lemma mediation stage; and (3) the L2 integration stage. Jiang (2000) explained the majority of L2 learners stay on the second stage for a long period. The lexical representation in this stage is described as that there is an established form representations in L2 and L1 equivalents of those entries are copied into the lemma space in the lexicon (Figure 2). L2 learners usually achieve this stage through repeated simultaneous activation of L2 lexical forms and L1 lemma information in L2 use, which may eventually lead learners to the next and final stage of development where the complete integration of L2 lexical representations in the lexicon takes place.

3. The Study

Given the indications from the literature review that L1 interference occurs in the learning of collocations for most L2 learners, the study attempted to verify if these issues also apply to Japanese EFL learners. It was an attempt to gain the basis for establishing a better collocation learning method for Japanese EFL learners by utilising L1 translations. With the advocacy of a communicative language teaching approach, translation has been regarded unfavorably. However, considering the fact that the interference of L1 is inevitable in L2 learners' processing of lexical inputs, it seems rather unnatural not to include L1 as a learning strategy, at least for the majority of intermediate learners, who can be assumed to be at the L1 lemma mediation stage of lexical development (Jiang, 2000). Therefore, the study hypothesised the benefit of translation in the learning of, in particular, incongruent collocations from 2 perspectives: processing and retention.

Firstly, it was identified that L2 learners process lexical input basically on a word-for-word basis (Wray, 2002). As has been mentioned earlier, lexical collocations are usually made up of two component words that share the equivalent concepts between L1 and L2. Given the notion that L2 learners' lexical representations contain L2 forms and L1 meanings, then the understanding of the FC type of word combinations in Howarth's (1998) phraseological model should be free of problems, as nothing comes between the form, component meanings, and concept association even for multiword units. On the other hand, the RC combinations require explicit guidance to raise awareness of the fact that the individual L2 component meanings need to be carefully interpreted in order to be associated with a concept in L1. In this sense, it can be suggested that translation could be utilised as a learning strategy for the RC type of collocations. Laufer & Girsai (1998: 697) claimed that "one way to make a foreign language feature noticeable or salient in the input is to enhance it by providing contrastive association with the corresponding L1 item." In other words, translation is a way to explain the gap between the word combinations where individual components are tied to their L1 meanings, and the concept that is referred to by those two components is slightly different in their L1 perspectives in an explicit manner.

Secondly, translation with contrastive elements would entail "high involvement load" (Laufer &

Hulstijin, 2001), which attempts to explain the degree of retention of learnt items in learners' memory depends on the depth of processing (Craik & Tulving, 1995), degree of elaboration, quality of attention, and richness of encoding (Laufer & Girsai, 2008: 698). A contrastive analysis and translation activity fulfills all these criteria, thus, it is considered effective in memory retrieval of lexical input by assisting to stabilise those words in the memory. It is generally considered that more difficulty in incongruent collocational learning arises in their production rather than receptive comprehension because learners cannot remember the component words that are used in an incongruent manner from their L1 perspectives. Using translation as a learning method could be a positive solution to this problem. Schmidt (1990: 129) claims that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input into intake; therefore, by offering an opportunity to engage in matching the meaning of individual component words and collocational concepts in L1 would increase the chance for learners to notice the particular characteristics of the RCs.

3.1 Research Questions

With the intention of clarifying the above-mentioned hypothesis, it was necessary to verify if the translation matching judgement task (hereafter, TMJ) would increase the noticing of the combinational restrictedness inherent in incongruent collocations, caused by the gap between the word choice and the concept represented in the whole expression. In order to assess the processing behaviour observed in the participants, the data obtained from the TMJ was analysed. Subsequently, the recall test data was examined to measure the effectiveness of the treatment task in memory retrieval. Devised with these procedures, the study aimed to confirm the following research questions:

1. Does the TMJ help learners notice the nature of different word combinations?
2. Does the TMJ help L2 learners be aware of what meaning an incongruent collocation is associated with?

3.2 Item Development

In order to investigate if the nature of word combinations has any impact on memory retrieval, the stimuli were developed along the Howarth's (1998) Phraseological Continuum Model. All of the free combinations (FCs) and restricted collocations (RCs) were developed based on Japanese perspectives in terms of congruency aspects. Figurative idioms (FIs) were also added to validate how semantic information of individual words have significance in the processing of word combinations. Firstly, the words listed with a high familiarity rating of over 6.0 for Japanese learners of English (Yokokawa et al., 2006) were selected as core words. This was because the words with high familiarity rating were more assumed to be understood regardless of the participants' English proficiency. Then these core words were combined according to the category description of the Phraseological Continuum.

The outcome of combining core words resulted in 81 pool phrases. The next step was to verify their categorisation, for which the items were attested by 8 undergraduate students who were participants in the experiment. In this verification process, the students were asked to rate the items by using their instinct, and judge if the items were easily understandable, felt rather odd but still comprehensible, or totally incomprehensible, which provided the data with 3 rating scales. Given their judgment, the phrases were divided into three categories, then forwarded for further verification by 3 university English instructors who are Japanese native speakers with high English proficiency. It was necessary for the raters to be native Japanese speakers in order to judge the incongruent nature of the phrases from a Japanese point of view; therefore, no native speakers of English were consulted in this process. Only the items that were agreed by the 4 teachers including the researcher were kept for the list of the stimuli. For each category, 10 items were selected (see Appendix). There was no difference across the categories in terms of the mean familiarity ($p = .233$) and the number of syllables ($p = .327$) in a phrase. There were also equal numbers of Verb-Noun (VN) phrases and Adjective-Noun (AN) phrases within each category. A further 30 items that were the recombination of all the proper stimuli were added to the test items as fillers.

Table 2 *Descriptive Statistics of the Stimuli*

	Mean	
	Familiarity	Syllables
FC	6.45	3.1
RC	6.37	3.2
FI	6.30	2.9

For the TMJ task, the sentences were taken from the BNC corpus that included each stimulus. Then, they were checked for readability and difficulty level using Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch Kincaid Grade Level measures respectively. Also, the stimuli were given the word-for-word Japanese translation; for example, the adjective ‘strong’ in ‘strong coffee’ was translated into ‘tsuyoi’ instead of ‘koi’ which is a more natural translation for ‘strong coffee’, which was deliberately done to utilise the assumed lexical representation in L2 learners’ mental lexicon, as well as to explicitly present the discrepancies that would occur between a word-for-word translation that learners were assumed to apply to the collocational strings and the concepts that are represented by the combinations.

3.3 Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 53 Japanese first-year undergraduate students (41 males and 12 Females). All participants were studying economics at the same university in Osaka, Japan. Overall English proficiency among the participants was at a low-level ranging from a TOEIC score 250 to 410.

3.4 Procedures

The study was conducted as a treatment element in a pre-post design experiment, and also as a recall test at the end of the entire procedure. The whole session was conducted during the normal class setting as part of the module assessment. The participants were encouraged to take part in the experiment, though any students who could not be present at the test were not treated adversely. All the collocations were shown on a 52-inch monitor at the front of the classroom in a sequence, where all 6 classes that took part were shown the stimuli in a different order for the counter-balancing purpose. The participants recorded their responses in an answer booklet, which was sectioned with 10 answers per sheet, to prevent guessing or inertia.

There were practice sessions for the TMJ in order to familiarise the participants with the procedure, then the researcher took questions from the participants afterwards. Prior to the task, the explicit explanations for the different types of word combinations were given to the participants. This involved the examples for the FC, the RC and the FI type of word combinations, and how each component in the phrase contributed to the overall meaning of the whole expression. In this clarification, the congruency factor between English and Japanese was contrastively explained.

The screen display started with the instructions for the task. Then a fixation point, which was the 4 crosses, appeared in the centre of the screen for 2 seconds, followed by a sentence where the target collocation was embedded. The next screen displayed a Japanese translation, which was deliberately made as a word-for-word translation of the components in the string. Then, the participants were asked to decide if the Japanese translation matched with the collocation in a sentence in the previous screen. The required responses were designed to indicate if the participants judged the given collocation as either FC, RC or FI. For instance, if they gave a ○ response to the translation, this can be interpreted as they recognise the stimulus as an FC combination, and △ as an RC, and × as an FI respectively.

At the end of the experimental procedure, the participants were also given three minutes to write down as many collocations as they could recall on the answer sheet.

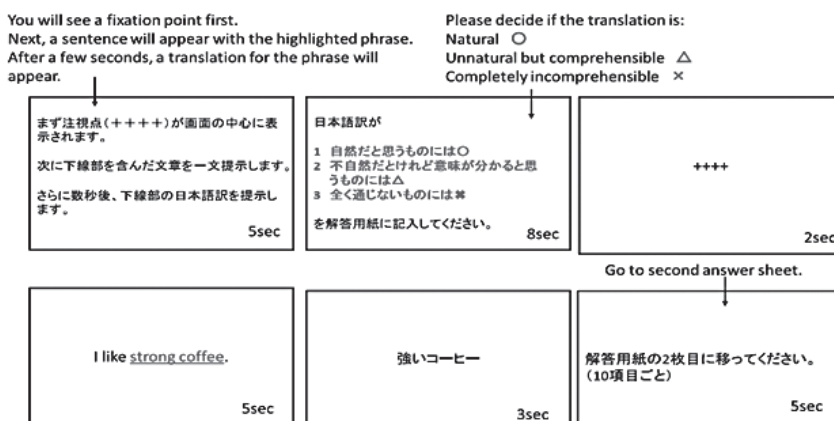


Fig. 3 Each square shows the screen display for the TMJ task in sequence.

4. Results

The result of the TMJ was submitted to a 1-way ANOVA, which identified a significant difference among the three categories, $F(1.3, 60.1) = 133.9$, $p < .001$, $r = .720$. The multiple comparison (Bonferroni) showed that the score of the FC was significantly higher than both the RC and FI. Also, there was no significant difference between the latter two categories (see Figure 4).

As for the result of the recall test, only the data of exactly retrieved items was made valid. While the 1-way ANOVA also showed a significant difference among the categories, $F(2, 104) = 15.6$, $p < .001$, $r = .231$, the post hoc comparison showed a different picture to the treatment task: the score of the RCs was much lower compared to the other categories, where there was no significant difference between them (see Figure 5).

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for the TMJ Task in percentage (%)

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	SD	N
FC_TMJ	76.40	7.82	53
RC_TMJ	34.90	19.48	53
FI_TMJ	29.90	14.31	53

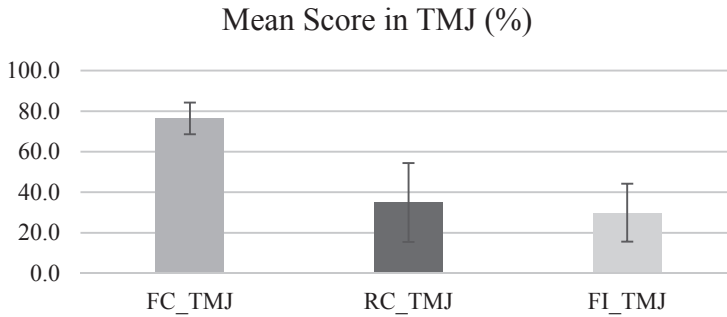


Fig. 4 The Chart Shows the Results of the TMJ Task for 3 categories.

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics for the Recall Test in percentage (%)

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	SD	N
FC_Recall	32.1	14.1	53
RC_Recall	20.9	12.1	53
FI_Recall	31.1	15.9	53

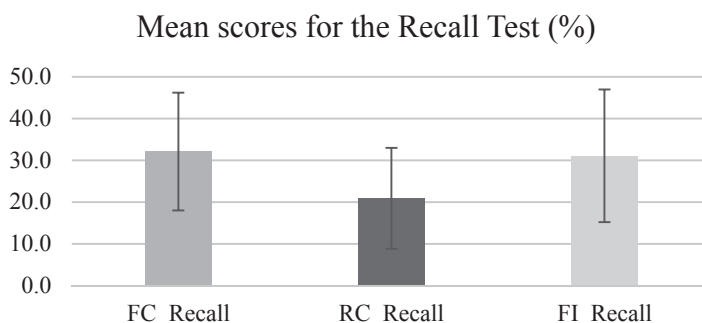


Fig. 5 The Chart Shows the Results of the Recall Task for 3 Categories.

5. Discussion

The TMJ data showed that the mean differences among the three categories were significant. With a closer look at the differences, the FCs gained the highest possible score, which left little room for potential improvement. This result suggested that the Japanese EFL learners' lexical processing was indeed on the basis of the open choice principle (Sinclair, 1991) where they applied a word-for-word translation to understand the given context. Hence the assumed lexical representation in L2 learners' mental lexicon in which the L1 meanings were provided to the L2 forms operated positively in the case of the FC type of word combinations because direct translation of individual component words did not differ from the overall concept of the collocation.

On the other hand, the scores of the other two categories indicated no difference between them, which suggested that the participants did not distinguish the two types even in the light of L1 translations with contrastive explanations. The treatment task asked the participants to decide the matching of the L2 form and the L1 translation of the collocation, which was deliberately done in a word-for-word manner. As the collocation was read in a sentence to confirm its concept, it was hypothesised that the participants would realise the value of the meaning of the individual component words in understanding the concepts of the RCs despite a slight awkwardness in the use of the words from their L1 perspectives. On the other hand, the FI type of collocations were thought to be difficult for them to gather the concept meanings because the meaning of the individual words do not contribute to the overall meanings at all. However, the hypothesis was wrong in that the participants did not appreciate the semantic information provided by the component words in understanding the RCs. Therefore, it was realised that the gap between L1-based translations, which L2 learners are assumed to naturally employ, and the concept represented by collocations was greater than it was initially estimated. Given the result, therefore, it can be suggested providing learners with explicit explanations for clarifying the intention of the learning purpose hold the key to succeed in this new learning method.

The current study was limited in the capacity to provide the participants with the correct feedback; hence their translation matching trials were not reinforced in their memory, which was clearly reflected in the results of the recall test. An interesting outcome, however, was that the participants remembered as many of the FI type of word combinations as they did for the FCs, while their accurate responses in the TMJ task was at the same level as the RCs. This result confirmed that, although the participants found it difficult to guess the meaning of the FIs within the contexts, they could use a word-for-word translation approach for recalling only forms of the collocations. This was probably possible because some of the FIs appeared in their word combinational nature, non-metaphorical expressions when provided outside the context (e.g., a fat cat), therefore, the participants could apply a L1-based translation. On the other hand, the RCs were clearly difficult to recall even though the participants were provided with the opportunity to compare the L2 forms and the L1 translations in a word-for-word manner. One possible reason for this was that they were confused by the mismatches between the L1-based translations and the concepts they tried to understand in the contexts. As a consequence, they could not decide which of those they needed to remember. For this reason, the study should have provided the correct feedback for the participants' judgments. Another possibility was that it could not be guaranteed that the L1 translations given in the task were the actual representations that existed in the individual participants' mental lexicon. Although the component words used for constructing the stimuli in this study were taken from the high familiarity rating words for Japanese L2 learners, it would have been more effective if the participants were actually given the opportunity to apply their own translation in their lexicon. By searching and evaluating the appropriate words, the learners would have remembered the target stimuli more effectively.

6. Conclusion

Despite the several limitations in the design of the experiment, it was useful to confirm that Japanese EFL learners' collocational processing did indeed appear to be based on an open choice principle, and by distinguishing collocations carefully by taking into account the categorisation of the Phraseological Continuum Model would effectively narrow down the items that should deserve more explicit instruction to guide learners' attention. The evidence suggests that the participants processed the FCs without any apparent difficulty, which leads to the conclusion that such collocations can be produced by learners themselves without requiring a significant amount of teaching/study time. Also, the processing of the FIs appeared to be difficult when the contextual comprehension was requested in the TMJ task, while recalling forms only did not come with the same level of difficulty. This result revealed that FIs require a different approach that does not rely on a word-for-word translation strategy; for example, Boers (2001) proposed that idioms could be effectively remembered if learners are given the opportunity to hypothesise about their origin; and Eyckmans & Lindstromberg (2016) proposed the sound-based learning strategy for figurative idioms.

The aim of this study was to suggest the possibility that the understanding of RCs can be supported

by utilising a L1-based word-for-word translation approach by taking advantage of particular lexical representations of L2 learners' mental lexicon. Although the current study could not concretely present the evidence as to whether the use of the L1 semantic information in learners' mental lexicon in learning of incongruent collocations was effective, it may be worth further pursuing how to utilise the inevitable influence of L1 semantic information in learners' mental lexicon in the learning of incongruent collocations by rectifying the limitations born out in this study. In particular, it has to be clarified whether the link between direct translation of individual component words and the collocational concepts can be strengthened by providing correct feedback, and consequently result in better memory retention. More crucially, it has to be carefully examined whether approaching collocational concepts via word-for-word translations actually increases the noticing against the specific characteristics of RC type of word combinations in comparison to the other type of word combinations. In order to establish the effectiveness of such a strategy, it needs to be examined how learners process incongruent collocations where they are directly given the meaning of collocational concepts, bypassing the meanings of individual component words.

It has been acknowledged among the relevant literature that the multiword units of all kinds play a significant role in mastering the second language, though it seems that few practical methods have been proposed. Whilst *Lexical Approach* by Lewis (2000) strongly advocates the inclusion of multiword units in classroom activities and indeed contains many useful pedagogical suggestions, none of them were empirically tested. In this sense, this study was an attempt to begin the process of looking to establish a pedagogical application for tackling the enormous task of teaching a part of this important lexical phenomena.

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Appendix

Yes (proper)	No (filler)	Sentence	translation	Judgement
strong coffee	coffee strong	I like strong coffee.	強いコーヒー	△
have a word	a have word	Can I have a word with you?	言葉を持つ	△
make an attack	an attack make	They made an attack on the island.	攻撃を作る	△
act his age	his act age	He needs to act his age.	彼の年齢を演じる	△
read his mind	his read mind	I can read his mind.	心を読む	△
wide open	open wide	The window is wide open.	広く開いて	△
run a business	a run business	I run a business	仕事を走らせる	△
lose his way	his way lose	He lost his way.	道を失った	△
small talk	talk small	People make small talk every day.	小さい話	△
pay a visit	a check run	I paid a visit to the hospital yesterday.	訪問を払った	△
common ground	ground common	We need common ground to talk about the problem.	共通の土地	✖
make a face	a make face	He made a face at me.	顔を作った	✖
break the ice	the break ice	Firstly, he needs to break the ice in the class.	氷を壊す	✖
play safe	safe play	We need to play safe and leave now.	安全に遊ぶ	✖
have a gift	a gift have	He must have a gift for music.	贈り物を持っている	✖
a fat cat	a cat fat	He made a lot of money on it. He is a fat cat.	太った猫	✖
lose his head	his head lose	He lost his head when he heard the news.	彼の頭を失った	✖
learn lessons	lessons learn	You should learn lessons from your mistakes.	授業を受ける	✖
stand a chance	a chance stand	He doesn't stand a chance of winning the game.	チャンスを立たせる	✖
the main body	the body main	The main body of the report is very good.	メインの体	✖
a cold drink	cold a drink	I have a cold drink.	冷たい飲み物	○
work at home	at work home	He works at home.	家で働く	○
meet people	people meet	I meet people.	人に会う	○
win the war	the win war	England won the war.	戦争に勝った	○
do a check	a check do	I did a check on what she said.	チェックした	○
wash his hands	his wash hands	He washed his hands.	手を洗った	○
the human body	the body human	It is the human body.	人間の体	○
take a chance	chance a take	Take a chance!	チャンスを取る	○
give a gift	gift a give	He gave a gift to her.	贈り物をあげた	○
a black cat	a cat black	There is a black cat.	黒い猫	○