

## A Collocational Analysis of Korean High School English Textbooks and Suggestions for Collocation Instruction

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Under the textbook-driven approach to English education in the Korean setting, the importance of the English textbook can not be overemphasized as the main source of learning materials. Recently, with the development of computer-based language corpora, the recognition of the importance of collocations and the availability of computerized databases of words have caused a resurgence and facilitation in the instruction of collocation. The primary purpose of the present study is to identify the characteristics of lexical collocation and the extent of its use in high school 10th-grade textbooks. From all the analyses, it is revealed that the language materials reflect various constructed collocation in the case of adjective+noun and noun+noun collocations in a natural context. However, verb+noun and adverb+verb collocations are not fully reflected. This is true for delexicalized verbs, and verb and adjective intensifiers. Also the language materials do not provide sufficient support for the lexical syllabus, even though all textbooks may be somewhat adequate in terms of vocabulary size. Finally, based on the analyses of the texts, the suggestions for English collocation instruction are made in the lexical approach.

[collocations/lexical chunks/multiword units/concordances/lexical syllabus, 연어/어휘 뭉치말/다단어 단위/어구 색인/어휘적 교수 요목]

## I. INTRODUCTION

Learning to use vocabulary studied is one of the greatest problems for Korean learners of English. Traditionally, in Korea, vocabulary learning depends upon trying to memorize isolated words by mainly using bilingual dictionaries in a purely paired-translational equivalent fashion. As a result, it was often found that students were not aware of word combinations or collocations, even though they knew the meaning of the individual words. A number of researchers have maintained that vocabulary is the core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write (Lewis, 1993, McCarthy, 1990, Richards & Renandya, 2002, Rivers, 1983, Zimmerman, 1997).

In recent years collocation has emerged as an important category of lexical patterning, but it has not yet become an established unit of description in language teaching courses and materials in Korea. In spite of the great importance of learning vocabulary in language comprehension and production, as Zimmerman (1997, p. 5) claimed, "The teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) throughout its varying stages and up to the present day", we also tend to ignore and undervalue them in the classroom. Moreover, the learning and teaching of vocabulary in Korea has been mostly incidental, limited to presenting and expounding on new words as they appear in the reading or listening texts. Students, especially those with low-level proficiency in the target language, are often frustrated and overburdened with this incidental and inferential or guessing of words in the context approach. As a result, they often use their new vocabulary incorrectly. Additionally, L2 learners memorizing individual words are at a tremendous disadvantage when they compare their vocabulary learning strategy use to that of native speakers. Furthermore, the communicative approach to language teaching now popular in Korea presumes that students can learn vocabulary implicitly, guessing and inferring from rich content, which downplays explicit vocabulary instruction. Sokmen (1997) describes that the recent movement toward communicative language teaching (CLT) has brought about a decrease in explicit vocabulary instruction.

Learning vocabulary is an ongoing and dynamic process. If we define

vocabulary as just individual words and their meaning, L2 learners can not be overburdened in learning a foreign language. However, the idea of just knowing the word and its meaning is of little value in many cases. We also need to know how the word is used. This idea that we must know how the word is used is relatively new in English language teaching (ELT). With the changing status of vocabulary, the definition of vocabulary has been broadened from single words to multi-word expressions or units (Fernando, 1996). Among them is the proportion that collocation is the most important factor. Many lexicologists, who focus on vocabulary rather than grammar, maintain that collocation is the most powerful force in the comprehension and production of language. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) have observed that a significant amount of the English language is made up of lexical phrases, which range from phrasal verbs (two or more words) to longer institutionalized expressions (Lewis, 1993, 1997a). In the 7th National English Curriculum (7NEC), all textbooks have a wordlist or a list of phrases that can be found in an appendix. However, they are of little value to the teacher because little explicit teachable materials are presented (N Kim, 2003).

Introducing collocation or the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text to learners in the classroom is vital to using the limited language resources or repertoire at their disposal. In other words, it is essential that teachers introduce the idea of multi-word units to their learners and then adopt classroom strategies that constantly remind learners of the importance of these multi-word items. Accordingly, a collocational analysis of the textbooks is a meaningful task, in that we can identify how well those textbooks reflect the features of collocations or lexical phrases. Woolard (2000) suggests that teachers should reexamine their course books for collocations, adding exercises that focus explicitly on lexical phrases. He goes on to suggest that they should also develop activities that enable learners to discover collocations themselves, commenting as follows: "Collocation is mostly a matter of noticing and recording, and trained students should be able to explore texts for themselves. Not only should they notice common collocations in the texts they encounter, but more importantly, they should select those collocations which are crucial to their particular needs" (p. 35).

The main purpose of the present study is to identify the characteristics and

use of lexical collocations in high school 10th-grade textbooks by using the MonoConc Pro 2.2 software and to suggest resources of the lexical approach for a more effective and productive English collocation instruction in secondary school and higher education

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1 Collocational Competence

With regard to the definition of collocation, Palmer (1933) first produced a substantial report which used a restricted definition of collocation. Later Firth (1957) noted that "You shall know a word by the company it keeps" (p. 20). Since then a number of researchers have long explored the nature, range, roles and types of collocations (Bahns, 1993; Benson et al., 1991, 1997; Ellis, 1997; Lewis, 1993, 1997b; McCarthy, 1990; Nation, 2001; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Ooi & Lee, 1996; Stubbs, 2001; Thornbury, 2002; Willis, 1990), because the number of potential combinations can run into the millions. To put it simply, collocation is the way words combine in predictable ways. As Lewis (2000) points out, the complete lexicon of English is enormous. In other words, "the mental lexicon of any individual is huge, consisting as it does of a vast repertoire of learned phrases of varying degrees of fixedness. Within the mental lexicon, collocation is the most powerful force in the creation and comprehension of all naturally-occurring text" (p. 49).

The analysis of corpora reveals the importance of the combinations of words, rather than of the isolated words, in the comprehension and production of language. To gain a good command of English, a language learner has to become familiar with a large stock of word combinations, or collocations. Examples of word combinations include tight collocations such as *sales target* and *change of heart*, as well as the looser word combinations such as *make money*, *find ways to* , *accidents happen*, and *make up my/your/ mund*. Lack of competence in the areas of speaking and writing forces students into grammatical mistakes because they do not know the collocations that express precisely what they want to say. Teachers often then focus on correcting the

grammar mistakes, failing to realize that it will make no difference. The mistakes are made not because of faulty grammar, but from a lack of knowledge of collocations.

In the past, grammar and vocabulary were considered a dichotomy. However, collocations cannot be divorced from the grammatical context in which they occur. When we understand that native speakers learn language in lexical chunks, it is not unreasonable to assume that learning certain chunks containing these structures will help learners in their acquisition of English grammatical patterns as well (Lewis, 2000). It is clear that the acquisition of generalized grammar rules must be partly related to the acquisition of lexical chunks containing the grammar in question.

## 2 Collocations and Lexical Chunks<sup>1)</sup>

As discussed earlier, collocation can be described as the way in which some words (two or more) are often used together in language. A collocation is a particular combination of words that form a specific meaning often different beyond the meaning of the individual words. "*Commit a crime*" is a typical collocation in English, which means to act against society. However, commit is usually perceived to be positive, whereas crime is always negative. McCarthy (1990) claims that languages are full of strong collocational pairs, therefore, collocation deserves to be the central aspect of vocabulary study. Nevertheless, Bonk (2001) points out that language users' knowledge of collocational relationships and of habitual combinations of lexical items in general has not been systematically researched in applied linguistics.

Recently, through the rise of corpus linguistics, the extent of the fixedness of language has been much more widely recognized. Lewis (2000) divided fixed expressions into three large configurations, they range from the totally fixed (*An apple a day keeps the doctor away*), the semi-fixed (*What I'm saying/suggesting/ proposing is* ), to the fairly loose yet still predictable (*go on holiday*). In a sense all collocations are idiomatic, but all idioms are not

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1) Newell (1990, p. 7) specifies, "A chunk is a unit of memory organization, formed by bringing together a set of already formed elements (which, themselves, may be chunks) in memory and welding them together into a larger unit."

collocations According to Fernando (1996), some collocations, like idioms, show a habitual co-occurrence of words but these are multiword expressions that permit lexical alternatives as a matter of course, either restricted (*addled eggs/brains*) or unrestricted (*catch a bus/train/tram*)

Hill(2000), based on collocational strength, offers the following schema for pointing out collocations to students (pp 63-64):

- 1) Unique collocations *foot the bill, shrug your shoulders*. (These are unique because *foot* (as a verb) and *shrug* are not used with any other nouns)
- 2) Strong collocations *Trenchant criticism, rancid butter* (There are other things that can be *trenchant* or *rancid*, but very few)
- 3) Weak collocations *A tall woman, a red shirt, an expensive car, a loud noise* (These combinations are entirely predictable to most students and not worth focussing on)
- 4) Medium-strength collocations *Hold a conversation, a major operation, expensive tastes, a loud shirt* (Note that words such as *expensive* and *loud* can form both weak and medium-strength collocations)

However, Hill (2000) argues that it is the medium-strength collocations which are most important for the ESL classroom, in that the collocations in the middle of the collocational spectrum make up a large part of what we say and write

Lewis' (1993) focus is for a teaching foundation on what he terms 'lexical chunks', while McCarthy (1990) views idiom-prone lexical items as multi-word units (MWUs) or lexical phrases, and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) also define lexical phrases as form/function composites, lexico-grammatical units that occupy a position somewhat between the traditional poles of lexicon and syntax. In view of these ideas, we can assume that native speakers tend to use a great deal of language that is formulaic in nature. These formulaic expressions are so common that they become imprinted. It is notable that they act as prefabricated language units that can be used as wholes rather than being composed through vocabulary+syntax. Lewis (1993) and D Kim (2003) in particular stress the importance of learning chunks of language made up of lexico-grammar patterns

They also suggest that the prefabricated lexical items need to be learned like individual words in one breath

### 3 The Lexical Approach

To date, a considerable number of approaches/methods have been presented in teaching and learning English from GTM (Grammar-Translational Method), structuralism, and notional-functionalism to the communicative competence approach. No approach, however, can cover all types of teaching and learning in English. Formal linguists have especially tended to focus on syntax. They have long maintained that any human language is a rule-governed innate system and that those who have acquired a natural language apply its rules in original and creative ways by producing utterances they have never heard before (Chomsky, 1965). In contrast to this perspective, lexicologists, who focus on vocabulary rather than grammar (e.g., Carter, 2001; Hoey, 2000; Lewis, 1993; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992), believe that a significant proportion of social, professional, and everyday language use is formulaic, routine, and predictable.

The term "Lexical Approach" was introduced by Lewis and his associates for the lexis/collocation-focused theories and procedures developed in *The Lexical Approach* (1993), *Implementing the Lexical Approach* (1997a), *Teaching Collocation* (2000), and numerous textbooks published by Language Teaching Publications (LTP). According to Lewis (2000), "A lexical approach to language and to learning does not break everything down into individual words and structures, but sees language in larger units" (p. 48). Thus, the lexical approach is based on the focus-on-form instruction rather than on the focus-on-forms instruction. Therefore, we can classify four fundamental types of lexical items: 1) words & polywords, 2) collocation, 3) institutionalized utterances, and 4) sentence frames or heads. Lewis (1997a) also points out that such an analysis is not unique, because there is an overlap between categories that are useful to consider as a particular item belonging to different classes for different analytical purposes. In a broader sense, these lexical items can be referred to as collocational chunks.

The collocational approach values both the quantity and quality of input. Ellis (1997) asserts, "The collocational approach makes it possible to integrate lexis,

grammar, and discourse by teaching vocabulary through lexical items, multi-word units, lexico-grammatical patterns” (p 122) The fact that these chunks activate some meaningful representations makes the sequence itself more salient in the input stream Making the sequence more salient in turn reinforces the final intake, which is the integration of knowledge of input item in the learners’ interlanguage as well as preliminary intake that is a brief notice of some feature of the input

### III. METHOD

#### 1 Textbook Selection

Table 1 lists the twelve English textbooks approved for 10th-graders in Korea and selected for this study The textbooks published in 2002 are based on the guidelines of the recent Seventh National English Curriculum The Curriculum from the Ministry of Education (1997) provides for the learning of 2,067 words in its wordlist up to and including the final year of high school, based on word families or a base word including the base form (e.g., make), its inflections and derivatives (e.g., makes, made, making, maker, and makers) Since the meaning of these different forms of the word is thought to be closely related, it is assumed that little extra effort is needed to learn them However, the materials are not of great use to a teacher because one can not fully grasp the real features and combinations of words from the information given in the textbooks (N Kim, 2003)

**TABLE 1**  
**The English Textbooks for 10th Graders of High School**

Texts <sup>*</sup>	Textbook Writers	Publishers
1	Lee, B-M, et al	Chunjae Education
2	Kim, D-G, et al	Gumsung Publishing Co
3	Lee, C-S, et al	Neung-yule EFL Publishers
4	Kang H-R, et al	Daehan Publishing Co

5	Im, B-B, et al	Jangwon Education
6	Park, Y-S, et al	Bubmunsa
7	Shin, J-H, et al	Si-sa-yong-o-sa
8	Kim, C-B, et al	Joongang Education
9	Lee, G-D, et al	Neung-yule EFL Publishers
10	Lee, H-S, et al	Korea Education Media
11	Lee, M-S, et al	Jihaksa
12	Kim, I-D, et al	Hyundai Publishing Co

\* The numerical order does not indicate a preference for a selected textbook

## 2 Overall Feature of the Words

Generally, to know how various words are used in a text, Type-Token Ratio (TTR) is of great value in various ways. Type means the number of different word forms, and Token means the number of running words. Therefore TTR as a percentage is calculated using the formula:  $(\text{types-tokens}) \times 100$ . Initially, 12 textbooks were accepted for the 10th grade high school course. Therefore, we can assume that they met the standards for the screened or authorized textbooks. Through TTR, we can identify how well each textbook reflects the basic realization of single words as well as the whole number of the words. Because the operation of the single words is not our core concern, we won't deal with further analysis of the single words here.

## 3 Statistical Method

To identify the characteristics and use of the lexical collocation in textbooks, MonoConc Pro 2.2 software was used for the collocation analysis, frequency, and concordances. The software allows the users to load and search a corpus in a few seconds, while also providing some sophisticated text analysis features such as regular expression searches and corpus comparison. One of the major new features is the highlighting of collocates of a search term in the concordance entries and citations. Collocates (of spans from 1L-1R to 4L-4R) are highlighted according to their ranking. This allows for the combination of

the visual collocate frequency information with the usual presentation of concordance patterns. Another new major feature is the comparison of corpora. The frequency list of the current corpus can be compared with the reference corpus. The result is a corpus comparison table based on frequency, percentages, and log likelihood statistics. The program allows for sorting by the value of Tracked Tags, which means that the concordance entries and citations can be ordered by other information coded with tags. Recently, a useful span feature was introduced. Once a search is completed the user chooses a span (2 to 5 words) and the software calculates the most frequent collocations of the specified size containing the search word.

#### 4 Data Collection and Analysis

In order to collect the data for the study, the complete written portion of the 12 textbooks selected was stored on a computer in a text file. Next, an English word corpus of about 97,000 nodes was built from the text file. The analysis specifically investigated the following items used in the textbooks: 1) tokens and types of words, 2) The fifty most frequent words, 3) the twenty most frequent nouns, verbs, and adjectives in comparison with those British National Corpus (*BNC*), a large-scale general English Corpus, and 4) the lexical collocations of four categories. The four categories, which are the central portion of the present study, were composed of adjective+noun, noun+noun, verb+noun, and (adverb)+verb+adverb/adverb+adjective collocations to identify the characteristics and use of the lexical collocations.

To compare the fifty most frequent words and the twenty most frequent nouns, verbs, and adjectives, the present study used *BNC* sample of 100 million words cited by Cook's (2001) data (p. 59) in terms of the high-frequency and three types of content words. It is informative and meaningful to note the lexical characteristics in written texts from a collocational point of view. It soon emerges that collocation is an important feature of all such texts, although different kinds of texts do exhibit different collocational characteristics, making some texts more suitable than others for the EFL classroom. The high percentage of words which occur in fixed phrases and collocations can account for commonplace and inherent characteristics in the real texts intentionally.

designed for education. Thus, I focused the analysis on the four categories of the lexical collocation combined with the frequent words.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First, the number of different word forms and running words, overall features of the words in the 12 textbooks are explained through Tokens, Types and Type/Token Ratio (TTR) as shown in Table 2. Most textbooks based on the 7th Curriculum contain the 2,067 words specified in the guidelines. Much teaching and learning of vocabulary has been based on the idea that the most frequently used words in the target language should be taught first. Second, the 50 most frequent words in the *BNC* sample are compared to those of 12 textbooks in Table 3. Third, as a basic foundation of collocational pairs, the 20 most frequent words in the *BNC* for three types of content words are compared to those of the 12 textbooks implemented under the 7th Curriculum in Table 4. Finally, the four categories of the lexical collocations were analyzed with an example given for each type.

##### 1 Overall Feature of the Words

Table 2 reveals Type, Token, and Type/Token Ratio of the words used in the 12 textbooks. In general, the textbooks use the limited list of 2,067 words suggested by the 7th Curriculum. However, some of the textbooks do not contain the most common 2,000 high frequency words. Nation (1990) stresses that the 2,000-word level has been set as the most suitable goal for high-frequency words and is likely to cover about 87 percent of the words in a general text. This implies that knowing the 2,000 high frequency words would allow a learner to recognize at least 87 percent of the words he/she encounters in the text. Consequently, including these 2,000 high-frequency words of English in English textbooks is clearly useful and important to a learner of English.

Next, we look at the data for Tokens. Each textbook covers from around 5,000 up to more than 10,000 Tokens, which are an extremely range. This means that the words are not frequently included in some textbooks. In other words, the data shows that the textbook writers do not take into consideration

the sufficient and pre-planned operation of words in their natural contexts

Finally, TTR shows the repeated rate of the words. A high number indicated less frequency. Generally, TTR is higher, lower in frequency, in written text than in conversation, because in conversation the speaker usually repeats what he/she has said to ensure that the message has been properly transmitted to the listener. Since we analyze written texts only in this study, TTR is very high compared to *BNC* sampler of spoken words (TTR 2.69)

**TABLE 2**  
**Types, Tokens, and Type/Token Ratio of the Words in the 12 Textbooks**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Word Types	2158	1900	1974	1753	1993	1763	2599	2036	1919	2151	2075	1578
Word Tokens	9938	8116	8143	6957	7648	7077	11103	8994	6434	9347	7802	5180
Type/TokenRatio	21.71	23.41	24.24	25.20	26.10	24.91	23.41	22.64	29.83	23.01	26.60	30.46

## 2 Comparative Analyses of Frequency between BNC and Selected Texts

Indeed, when analyzing frequency, function words dominate the class in both the *BNC* and the word corpus of the 12 textbooks, but each corpus shows its own tendency when we look at those words in the list individually. We compared the top 50 frequent words of the selected texts with the same group of words in other examples of natural English such as the *BNC* sampler and 12 textbook corpus as shown in Table 3.

**TABLE 3**  
**Comparative Analyses of the Fifty Most Frequent Words in BNC and Selected Texts**

NO	BNC	12 Texts	NO	BNC	12 Texts
1	the	the	26	they	that(conj)
2	of	and	27	his	at
3	and	a	28	from	's(verb)
4	a	of	29	had	we
5	in	to(Inf)	30	she	this
6	to(Inf)	in	31	which	but

7	it	you	32	or	my
8	is	is	33	we	can
9	was	I	34	an	about
10	to(preposition)	it	35	n't	n't
11	I	to(preposition)	36	's (verb)	what
12	for	not	37	were	from
13	you	are	38	that (det)	she
14	he	or	39	been	will
15	be	was	40	have	his
16	with	he	41	their	an
17	on	on	42	has	time
18	that (conjunction)	do	43	would	many
19	by	they	44	what	by
20	at	our	45	will	her
21	are	be	46	there	if
22	not	people	47	if	their
23	this	have	48	can	's(poss)
24	but	that(det)	49	all	day
25	's (poss)	with	50	her	them

In the comparison, many of the fifty words overlapped those of the *BNC* sampler. From the table, we can see that the Korean textbooks also reflect the similar frequent words as did those of *BNC* which covers a general text. Nevertheless, we can not gather much information from table 3 about the clues to lexical collocational pairs, so we must examine other aspects of the frequent words. To examine the probability of collocational pairs, we must determine which are content words from the corpora of the texts.

Three content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) are compared to content words in the *BNC*. To further help us determine the sequence of content words, Lewis (1997a) states that "Intuitively, the noun is usually 'what the sentence is about', the verb tells us 'what happens' to the noun, and the other elements are optional, adding details. So, we see the power of the sequence noun>verb> adjective>adverbial when we consider translation in L1 and collocation" (p. 28).

Unlike the 50 frequent words, from table 4, we can identify the differences and similarities between the two corpora, about half of the twenty frequent words are different. Consequently, we can say the higher frequency of the two are similar to each other.

Addressing the focus of this research even though we know the meaning of words individually, we often can't express our ideas appropriately with single words. We have to know how to deal with combinations of words that go together in various manners. In this vein, Ooi and Lee (1996) point out the usefulness of the target items to be presented in collocation, e.g., "by teaching a verb with a noun, an adjective with a noun, an adverb with a verb or adjective, and a verb with a preposition, directing the learner's attention to the lexical items with a word-like object representing a single sense selection" (p. 56).

**TABLE 4**  
**The Twenty Most Frequent Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives**

No	Nouns		Verbs		Adjectives	
	BNC	12 Texts	BNC	12 Texts	BNC	12 Texts
1	time	people	say	say	new	good
2	people	time	know	make	good	new
3	way	day	get	think	old	different
4	year	English	go	have	different	important
5	government	world	see	know	local	great
6	day	school	make	go	small	old
7	man	way	think	get	great	high
8	world	thing(s)	take	want	social	young
9	work	year(s)	come	see	important	long
10	life	lesson	use	use	national	special
11	part	man	give	help	British	big
12	number	Korea	want	take	possible	poor
13	children	life	find	like	large	small
14	system	animal(s)	mean	need	young	Korean
15	case	student(s)	look	learn	able	famous
16	thing	friend(s)	begin	find	political	able
17	end	father	help	come	public	popular
18	group	language	become	look	high	beautiful
19	woman	internet	tell	ask	available	fast
20	party	future	seem	let	full	rich

### 3 Collocational Analysis

In this study, a collocational analysis is restricted to the four types of lexical collocations. A lexical collocation consists of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs (e.g., *strong tea*, *commit a crime*, *affect deeply*, and *bees buzz*, etc). Therefore, if we want to speak and write naturally, we need to understand the way words combine with other words which co-occur. In combining the words, where to place collocations is determined by which word functions as the base and which functions as the collocator. The base in a large part bears most of the meaning of the collocation and triggers the use of the collocator. For example, in the collocation, *take a shower*, *shower* is the base and the verb *take*, a semantically empty word in this context as a de-lexicalized verb<sup>2)</sup>, is the collocator. Let us focus now on the four lexical collocations of this study.

#### 1) Adjective + Noun (A+N) Collocations

Some of the most common adjectives such as *good*, *bad*, *big*, *small*, *old*, *new* combine with almost any noun. They are not usually included in strong collocation lists. Nevertheless, they are included if the collocation is very strong, e.g., *good luck/bad luck*. The word 'good' has a high frequency in the order of adjectives from table 4. We extracted 186 matches for *good* from the concordances in the 12 textbook corpus. In many cases, we can infer or guess the concordances' good- matches as free combinations such as *good boy*, *good man*, and *good food*. Moreover, we can choose a more proper and useful collocations from the concordances and best suited to the level of the learners or the goal of the education. Furthermore, we can ask the learners to find A+N collocations by using the adjective *good* as shown in table 5 below.

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2) "A group of words in English which have little or no meaning outside the context of particular use. The main de-lexicalized verbs are *do*, *get*, *give*, *have*, *keep*, *look*, *make*, *put*, and *take*" (Lewis, 1997a, p. 216)

**TABLE 5**  
**Example of Adjective + Noun Collocations**

Adjective	Noun
good	<i>driver/college/deal/time/grades/idea/speech/ speaker/preparation/presentation/night/student/ way/manners/point/start/nutrition/medicine.</i>

Some A+N combinations are much more common when used in the negative. Some nouns, although common and useful, have little meaning on their own. Learners think they know these words, but they become a source of many mistakes when learners misuse them in speech and writing.

## 2) Noun + Noun (N+N) Collocations

N + N collocations, in some cases, can be treated both as N+N pairings and as A+N pairings. McCarthy (1990) deals with these kinds of collocations as N+N, whereas, Lewis (1993) treats them as A+N. In this study, the former is adopted in light of focusing on the function of the individual part of speech, because both can be treated the same as compound nouns. Hill (2000) suggests that two sequences of such combinations can be easily adapted into collocational games such as collocation dominoes, blank cheque-cheque, book-book, club-club, sandwich-sandwich, board-board, room course, work-workshop-shop, assistant-assistant, manager.

However, some of N+N collocations are weak, and some rare collocations are strong. The rare ones usually express fairly unusual ideas, but when we do write about one of these ideas, the particular collocation is almost the only definitely natural way of expressing it. We found 151 matches from the concordances for 'school' in the 12 textbook corpus.

**TABLE 6**  
**Example of Noun + Noun Collocations**

Noun	Noun
school	<i>student(s)/life/breaks/year/club/girl/picnic/day /freshmen/hallway/uniform(s)/library/computer center/ cafeteria/English/orchestra.</i>

## 3) Verb + Noun (V+N) Collocations

V+N collocations are divided between the literal and the metaphorical. In particular, de-lexicalized verbs such as *do*, *make*, *put*, *keep*, *get*, *have*, *take* are overused when learners do not know the appropriate verb collocate. Students need to learn both so they can be used with a particular noun, and more importantly, which cannot be used with a particular noun. The followings do not collocate well: \**do a complaint*, \**make a hard diet*. From the concordances of delexicalized verbs, we identified insufficient collocations for *have*, 345 matches, *make*, 180 matches, *take*, 96 matches, and *do*, 344 matches. However, many of them do consist of free combinations. So, we have to present more collocations and have students find or make more collocations in a natural context.

**TABLE 7**  
**Example of Verb + Noun Collocations**

Verb	Noun
do	one's best/research/one's homework/taegwondo/the dishes/ ~good/voluntary service
make	mistakes/guesses/a step/the change/friends/sure /decisions/ schedules/noises/a phone call/resolutions/a promise/a difference/a living/contribution
have	fun/dinner/babies
take	courses/a shower/care/steps/action/the train/the (shuttle) bus/first place/medicine/painkiller/efforts

## 4) (Adverb)+Verb+Adverb (V+Adv) and Adverb+Adjective (Adv+A) Collocations

While some adverbs must precede the verb, others must come after it, but either position might be possible with similar meanings. In addition, some verbs collocate strongly with particular adverbs. According to Greenbaum (1970), semantically, adverbs have a common heightening effect on the force of the verb, but they do differ among themselves both syntactically and semantically (p. 23). Presently, we use these pairings in order to either place emphasis on the verb 'how often' as in '*strongly suggest*' or to express 'how much' or 'how

*strong*' as verb-intensifiers. Some Adv+A collocations are strong: 'highly educated', 'closely related'. However, all high school textbooks insufficiently reflect these pairings.

Regrettably, we did not find a great variety of adverbs used over two times in the text of the 12 textbooks. The three most frequent adverbs found were *really* (70 times, 0.072%), *usually* (62 times, 0.064%) and *finally* (37 times, 0.038%). In this study, adverbs are restricted to the form of adjective + -ly. According to the guidelines of the Curriculum, we can create an adverb by adding -ly to an adjective. In reality, however, the textbooks do not employ enough adverbs based on the guidelines. We identified '*really*' as the most widely-used adverb in texts as shown in Table 8.

Without the explicit and systematic presentation of vocabulary in the textbooks used in Korea, teachers and students will have difficulty in teaching and learning lexis. English textbooks are the most important element of English classes, as well as one of the major factors that determine success in English education in Korea, in which learners are taught a foreign language (Park & Suh, 2003).

TABLE 8  
Example of Verb+Adverb/Adverb+Adjective Collocations

adverb	verb/adjective
really	<i>enjoy, increase, want, like/surprised, good, full, old, beautiful, afraid, great, special, exciting, amazing.</i>

Furthermore, vocabulary has played second fiddle to grammar (Nunan, 1999). Usually the teaching of function words seems to be a part of grammar, not vocabulary. In the lexical approach, however, the grammar/ vocabulary dichotomy is invalid because a significant amount of the English language is made up of multiword chunks or lexical phrases. Therefore, language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar (Lewis, 1993). Thus, textbook developers need to integrate grammar and vocabulary as an organizing principle in writing textbooks. In addition, textbook writers should take the running words as well as high frequency words into consideration in a more careful and sincere way, employing strong collocational pairs in a natural and authentic

context. Moreover, each textbook or coursebook for a learner should include the principle of word partnerships or collocations as a main approach to language acquisition and use.

## V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR COLLOCATION INSTRUCTION

From the results of the present study, we concluded that with regard to the number of words and running words reflected in the 10th-grade textbooks, each textbook employs the words differently through Tokens, Types and TTR. Next, we compared the frequency of the words of the 12 textbooks to the BNC in terms of the high-frequency and three types of content words. Finally, we identified the characteristics and the use of the vocabulary presented in the 10th-grade textbooks in relation to the lexical collocations in the four types outlined in this study.

Overall, the textbooks reflected variously constructed collocations in the case of A+N and N+N collocations, while V+N and Adv+V collocations were not reflected sufficiently for teachers and students to use them effectively for language teaching and learning. This was true for delexicalized verbs, verb and adjective intensifiers or adverbs which modify and express specific ideas. Thus, many more collocations in the larger-scale English corpora should be presented in English textbooks. In addition, as Lewis (2000) has contended, we should give an equal importance to lexicon as we give to grammar, pronunciation and other aspects of language. Collocation should play an important role in our teaching to better improve the four English skills in a more balanced way. Tenth graders are at a most crucial period in the course of studying English, in terms of crossing the bridge from the beginning to the intermediate or advanced level. They will be greatly influenced for a long period of time by the methods they encounter and adopt on a personal level. It is desirable to give them a collocational approach to enhance their arsenal or repertoire. Students learn English more effectively and efficiently with an effort-effective, principled method (N. Kim, 2003). Accordingly, new textbooks should be guided the lexical syllabus in each lesson or unit in terms of the lexical approach.

Collocation has often been a source of student error in understanding and

producing English in the EFL setting. Outlined below are some teaching suggestions that will help students understand the idea and importance of collocation and enable them to use collocations to their advantage in building their mental lexicon in a systematic way. The single most important thing for teachers to do is to shift focus away from individual words to chunks of language rather than worrying about whether or not something is a collocation. These lexical chunks improve the fluency and accuracy of the English that students produce. The present English educational environment focuses on reading and listening, but the improvement of collocational competence is accomplished by simply calling students' attention to the collocation in the readings or studying them as part of a vocabulary list.

Another suggestion is that teachers ask students to notice and underline useful collocational pairs as a typical exercise, and encourage students to store them in their notebooks in some retrievable way along with the L1 equivalents of the whole collocation. Recording of multiword collocations may be better suited to more advanced students. Indeed, we can get much more information on collocation from reading materials while teaching. When teachers review with students a list of collocations and fixed or semi-fixed expressions, they can also ensure that students use these new collocations and expressions correctly by giving a short 'deadlocked choice' writing or speaking. Also, teachers can purposely utilize the collocations listed in reading in extended classroom English practice. Consequently, we can record and recycle the given collocation in a different setting. After the reading, we can have students record the essential part of collocation. This in turn improves their ability to recognize chunks, while the increased awareness of chunks aids their reading. Lewis (2000) suggests that collocation needs to be taught from simple individual collocations to gradually complex generalizable sequential collocations according to the level of the learners, their needs and cognitive development. Therefore, teachers first need to present collocations in context just as they now present individual collocations such as *take a shower*, *make friends*, and *fall in love*, extending what students already know. While presenting the individual collocations, complex ones should be gradually introduced according to the students' need and ability by using collocational data.

Collocational data is available to teachers through the textbook corpus or



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ll-known abroad. Ondol We do not	wear	shoes in our homes. We want to keep our
ts. DARK UNIFORMS Teams often	wear	dark uniforms for road games. Do you kn
around 1890 Baseball teams chose to	wear	gray, blue, or dark red uniforms during
at school just before 8 O'clock. We all	wear	our school uniforms which are white and

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## APPENDIX

## List of English Textbooks for Research

- Im, Byung-Bin, Kang, Yong-Ku, Yeon, Jun-Heum, Yu, Chull, & Song, Hae-Sung (2002) *High School English*. Seoul Jangwon Education
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**예시언어(Examples in): English**  
**적용가능 언어(Applicable Languages): English**  
**적용가능 수준(Applicable Levels): Secondary/Higher**

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