

The Effects of Collocation-Based Instruction on L1-Korean High School Students' English Vocabulary Acquisition

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This study examined the effects of collocation-based instruction on L2 vocabulary acquisition and learners' interests in it. Fifty one students were randomly assigned to the experimental group (collocation-based instruction group) and to the control group. The participants' English vocabulary capacity was checked through pre and post tests, and two surveys were used to probe the learners' vocabulary learning behaviors and their interests in English vocabulary learning respectively. To better understand the participants' opinions and feelings on the collocation-based learning, follow-up interviews were also carried out. The results showed that second language (L2) learners' vocabulary capacity was significantly improved through collocation-based instruction. However, the participants' degree of interest in vocabulary learning did not reach our expectation partly because of external factors such as the Test for the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) and lack of familiarity of collocations. Such results indicate that the high school students' rooted perception of putting importance on test-based language learning could not be easily changed since it is closely related to their immediate needs. Based on the results, this study suggested how to implement collocations into L2 classrooms effectively.

[Collocation-based instruction/vocabulary acquisition/vocabulary interest/L2 classrooms]

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language (L2) learners typically learn their L2 for the purpose of communicating with the target language speakers or for reading printed materials in the

language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In order for L2 learners to develop communicative ability or improve general proficiency level, the acquisition of L2 vocabulary is prerequisite (Hudson, 2007). Krashen (in Hudson, 2007) emphasized the importance of vocabulary remarking “language learners do not carry around grammar books, they carry around dictionaries” (p.227). However, learning more vocabulary does not guarantee successful L2 development. L2 learners should also gain substantial knowledge of collocations since native speakers regularly rely on a large repertoire of fixed and semi-fixed expressions (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Collocation knowledge enables learners to communicate more efficiently as well as to improve their vocabulary capacity (Ellis, 2001; Lewis, 1993, 2000a, b; Nation, 2001). If collocation-based instructions and practices were provided to L2 learners, it would be helpful for L2 learners to raise their awareness of collocations especially considering limited instructional periods and L2 learners’ limited information on multi-word units.

Research on collocation-based language instruction has received tremendous attention in L2 learning over the last couple of decades (Cao, 2008; Ellis, 1996; Lewis, 2000a; McCarthy 1990; Pishghadam, Khodadady & Rad, 2011; Produromou, 2003), and no one disputes the growing recognition of the importance of collocations in L2 learning. Although many researchers agree upon the importance and necessity of collocation-based instruction in language teaching, it seems that collocation-based L2 (English) instruction is not well implemented in schools of Korea partly because there are a large number of collocations in English considering the limited amount of instruction time in schools and partly because many English language teachers and learners still display lack of knowledge of them (Bahns, 1993; Lim, 2011). Many learners of English in Korea still acquire words mechanically through rote-memorization which might lead them to lose interest in English itself as well as vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, it is essential to closely investigate the effectiveness of collocation-based language instruction and suggest any possible pedagogical implications on English language teaching in Korea.

1. Types of Collocations

Although the concept of collocations has long been a popular topic of linguistics, there is no universally accepted formal definition of collocations and researchers tend to define collocations in a slightly different way (Grant & Bauer, 2004; Kathleen & Dragomir, 2000; Lewis, 2000a, b; Partington, 1998; Sinclair, 1991). In the L2 field, Lewis’ (2000) definition is widely accepted. Collocation means the combination of words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests.

Many linguists usually classify collocations into three categories even though the terminology may be slightly different (Bahns 1993; Grant & Bauer 2004; Howarth 1998; Nesselhauf 2003). The first one is *restricted collocations*, which usually have one item used in a figurative sense and the other used in its familiar, literal sense (e.g., *carry a motion, highly civilized, highly specialized, bitterly cold*). The second category is *free collocations*. They consist of item used in their literal senses and freely substitutable, such as *very cold, or a good girl*. This category virtually includes all possible and semantically natural combinations. Many linguists include idioms, relatively fixed expressions, into the collocation categories. However, idioms are different from collocations in that the meanings of idioms can barely be derived from the meaning of their constituent part such as *around the clock, make ends meet, kick the bucket* or *know the ropes*.

Meng (2008) also distinguishes collocations from idioms, emphasizing the following characteristics of collocations:

Collocations are combinations of words, (1) which are more or less frequently co-occur; (2) which are grammatically structured; (3) which are closely adjacent; (4) whose meanings are more transparent than idioms and can be understood based on the literal meanings of their components; (5) which are more or less lexically fixed permitting substitution in at least one of their components; (6) which are more or less conventionalized (p.58).

Biskup (1992) and Lewis (2000a) divide collocations into two major types – *lexical collocations* and *grammatical collocations* – depending on the word class of their constituents. Lexical collocations are a kind of structure in which one word (verb, noun, adjective or adverb) forms a foreseeable connection with another word such as adverb + adjective (e.g., *totally blind*), verb + noun (e.g., *wage war*). Grammatical collocations consist of an open class word and one closed class word (grammatical word) such as preposition + noun (e.g., *on purpose*), verb + preposition (e.g., *depend on*), or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive (e.g., *what to do, things to do today*), clause (e.g., *the possibility that..., to be aware that...*). In this study, we only focus on the former one, lexical collocations.

2. Studies on Collocations

Collocation-based language teaching or learning could be one of effective ways of vocabulary acquisition. Collocation-based instruction, as an importance component of L2 learners' competence, has attracted substantial attention from L2 researchers in recent

years (Cao, 2008; McCarthy 1990). Collocational knowledge is the prerequisite for the native speakers to produce natural and fluent language discourse (Ellis, 1996; Produromou, 2003) and help L2 learners to communicate more efficiently even though learning collocations is no easy job for L2 learners (Lewis, 1997). Wolter (2006) also admits the difficulty of acquiring good collocational knowledge in L2 learning by stating that learning collocational knowledge is more difficult than learning grammatical rules. Lewis (2000a) further claims that good collocational knowledge guarantees better fluency, accuracy, and complexity of language, which are clearly the features of advanced language learners.

Bahns and Eldaw (1993) investigated German learners' productive knowledge of English collocations consisting of a verb and a noun (i.e., lexical collocations) in a translation task and a close task. The results suggested that the German students should concentrate more on collocations that cannot readily be paraphrased. Farghal and Obeidat (1995) addressed the issue of collocations as an important and neglected variable in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes. Questionnaires involving common collocations relating to food, color, and weather were administered to English major students and English language teachers and the both groups displayed deficient knowledge of collocations. Based on the results, the researchers implied the necessity of explicit collocation-based instruction in EFL settings. Granger (1998) also mainly focused on collocation-based language teaching and learning in EFL settings. He dealt with a general outline of learner corpus design and analysis including collocations, performed case studies examining various aspects of learner lexis, discourse and grammar, and ultimately demonstrated how learner corpus based studies with collocations could provide help to learners pedagogically.

Several researchers designed questionnaires in order to test native speakers as well as non-native speakers' knowledge of collocations and the results showed significant differences in the knowledge of collocations between native speakers and non-native speakers (Nesselhauf, 2005; Shei, 1999). In 2006, Wolter explored L1 effects on L2 collocation learning by investigating how learners might draw upon L1 lexical and conceptual knowledge when making assumptions about connections between words in the L2 lexicon and showed that L1 lexical knowledge can be both a help and a hindrance when forming L2 connections, particularly in respect to collocations. Pishghadam, Khodadady and Rad (2011) studied the effect of form versus meaning-focused tasks on the development of collocations among Iranian intermediate learners of English. The study revealed rather unexpected results showing that the form-focused instruction group significantly outperformed the meaning-focused instruction group and a control group on the collocation test.

Some researchers studied and analyzed L2 learners' collocation errors (Kim, 2003;

Lee, 2005; Lim, 2011; Meng, 2008). Meng (2008) studied erroneous collocations caused by language transfer in Chinese EFL writing and found that collocation error is one major type of lexical errors and is often found in EFL learners' compositions. In Lim (2011), the researcher analyzed collocation use in the natural spoken production of intermediate Korean learners of English and found out that the learners had difficulties in the production of collocations. Similarly, Lee (2005) discovered the learning difficulties of English collocations of Korean learners and emphasized the need for subsequent exposure to the target collocations. The results were in line with Hill's (2000) claims that it is difficult for advanced language learners to become more fluent only by being given lots of opportunities to be fluent. He indicates they become more fluent when they acquire more chunks of language for instant retrieval.

Lee and Cheong (2008) conducted an interesting study through collocation-based instruction considering L2 learners affective aspects of language learning. They discovered that students have a positive expectation in vocabulary acquisition through collocations, even if they are not knowledgeable about collocation learning. They typically concluded that teachers could motivate the students who are not interested in English and do not get good test scores to have more interest and confidence through collocation-based teaching.

In order to examine whether collocation-based instruction could actually be helpful to enhance Korean learners' English vocabulary capacity and whether collocation-based instruction could make them interested in English vocabulary acquisition and general English learning, the following two hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1. L2 learners in the collocation-based instruction condition will display more improvement in their English vocabulary capacity than those are not.

Hypothesis 2. L2 learners in the collocation-based instruction condition will show greater levels of interest in English vocabulary acquisition than those are not.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

1. Participants

The participants of this study were 51 second-year female students (age = 16~17) in a co-ed high school located in Chonnam province. The students were from two different classes of the same grade. The two female classes were deliberately chosen by the researchers in order to have a more homogeneous population for this study by excluding potential gender effects. Additionally, the two classes initially showed no significant

difference in terms of general English proficiency level in the nation-hosted test (Trial Test for the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT)) taken in March, 2011 and the magnitude of the difference in means was very small (eta squared=.006) (see Table 1). The means and standard deviations were calculated, based on the standard score [= {(raw score – raw score M)/raw score SD} × 20 + 100], not on raw score, for CSAT. Between the two classes, one class was randomly assigned to the experimental group (collocation-based instruction group) and the other class to the control group.

TABLE 1
Results of Group Comparison on Trial Test for CSAT

Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>t</i>	Partial η^2 .
Control	25	122.04	14.88	.681	.605	-.521	.006
Experimental	26	119.77	16.21				

p < .05

2. Instruments

First, a survey with a total of six items was developed to probe the participants' English vocabulary learning behaviors. The survey was adapted from Lee and Cheong (2008). The first item asked different types of dictionaries that the participants have. The second one was about English study time except for regular English classes, and the third one was about English vocabulary study time. The fourth item asked about the importance of vocabulary in English learning. The fifth and the last ones asked whether the participants know the concept of collocations and whether they think collocation would help improve English vocabulary capacity. The participants were allowed to check more than one answer as to the first question.

A test with 19 questions was designed to gauge the participants' collocational knowledge. 19 questions were extracted from the 32 questions that Lee and Cheong (2008) used. The test consisted of four items of 'noun + noun,' two items of 'verb + adverb,' three items of 'verb + noun,' and ten items of 'adjective + nouns' collocations (see Appendix). Lee and Cheong (2008) developed the test for high school students in Korea as in this study and we only used 19 questions asking lexical collocations. The test was used for both pre and post tests in the current study.

After the post test was carried out, the participants were asked to mark the degree of their interest in general English learning, English vocabulary learning, and English vocabulary learning specifically through collocations. To better understand the participants' opinions and feelings on the collocation-based learning and to back up the quantitative data with some qualitative data from open-ended questions, we also conducted follow-up interviews.

3. Procedures

First, all the participants answered the survey asking their English vocabulary learning behaviors. Then, the participants of both groups took the pretest on the lexical collocations, which were made up of 19 questions. The pretest was conducted to accomplish two goals; to confirm the two groups were not significantly different in terms of their collocational knowledge even though they showed no significant difference in the nation-hosted test (Trial Test for the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT)) and to check whether the experimental group would display significant improvement in their vocabulary capacity after receiving collocation-based instruction.

Shortly after the pretest, the experimental group received collocation-based instruction for four weeks, three times a week, and the control group studied English and English words in the same way as they had done. Approximately 10 minutes in every English class was allotted to the experimental group only for collocation learning. More specifically, two websites (<http://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/collocations.html> and <http://www.eslflow.com/collocationsandphrasalverbs.html>), with sentences containing collocations, were selected and slightly modified for developing collocation teaching materials considering the participants' level of English vocabulary and the relatedness of regular English class contents. For every collocation teaching session – total 12 sessions: three times a week for four weeks – worksheets were designed and used. The first and second sessions were spent for introducing the concept and categories of collocations to the experimental group. Different collocation categories were briefly presented to the group with three example sentences respectively. During the following four sessions, commonly used collocations containing 'verbs' that go with *have, do, make, take, break, catch, pay, save, keep, come, go* and *get* were taught, and experimental group students practiced them along with a simple cloze test. In the seventh and eighth sessions, collocations about 'adverb + adjective' were taught and the group practiced by search for and writing them in the worksheet. In the last four sessions, the group practiced 'adjective + noun' and 'noun + noun' as they did in the previous sessions. The learners of experimental group were also told that vocabulary learning through collocation is one of the best ways of acquiring the words from time to time to raise their awareness of English collocations. Further, during the listening comprehension and reading comprehension practices, the importance of collocations was often stressed. On the other hand, no treatment was given to the control group students and they just studied English and English words in the same way that they had done. That is, they memorized English words mechanically. The experimental group and control group take the same English course taught by the same instructor.

After the four week experiment period, both groups took the posttest on the same day.

The same question items were used for the posttest and the participants were not informed that they would take the same posttest as the previous one.

Two weeks later after the post test, all the participants answered two questions asking about their interest in English vocabulary learning as well as general English learning, and ten randomly selected students in each group participated in the follow-up interview.

SPSS 17.0 for Windows was used for the quantitative data analyses and the significance level was set at $\alpha < .05$, nondirectional. The participants' interview data were also illustrated and analyzed and the instructor's comments based on classroom observation were added.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Vocabulary Learning Behaviors

It was revealed that all of the participants had more than one English dictionary: 19 percent had English-English Korean Dictionary, 51 percent had English-English Dictionary, 65 percent had Korean-English Dictionary and most had built-in electronic dictionaries in their PMPs or MP3 players. All the students have their own dictionaries. Especially electronic dictionaries are preferred because they are convenient to use and comfortable to carry around. As for the English study time except for the regular classes, 29 percent of the students studied English for more than 3 hours per day, 22 percent for two to three hours, 35 percent for one to two hours, and the students who studied English less than one hour accounted for 14 percent. There was no significant difference between the two groups regarding English study time. Regarding the question specifically asking their English vocabulary study time, the students who spent most of their English study time for vocabulary learning accounted for 16 percent, those who spared a lot of time for it made up 35 percent, those who spent a small amount of time accounted for 45 percent, and four percent spent little or no time studying English vocabulary. That is, half of the participants spent large amount of their English study time for acquiring vocabulary and the remaining half did not. The students, who spent little amount of vocabulary study time, thought that they could read and solve reading comprehension questions in general without much difficulty with their current knowledge of vocabulary. The two groups – collocation-based instruction group and control group – showed no significant difference in vocabulary study time.

Although half of the participants did not spend much time studying English vocabulary, most of the students seemed to acknowledge the importance of vocabulary in English learning (see Table 2) in that approximately 70 percent of the participants

responded that vocabulary is at least “important.”

TABLE 2
Response Rates on the Importance of Vocabulary in English Learning

Group	Very important	Important	So so	Not so important	Little or not
Control	32	48	12	8	0
Experimental	35	31	26	8	0
Total (%)	33	39	20	8	0

The results were rather expected regarding the questions whether the participants know about collocation. No students in both the groups knew what exactly collocation is. That is, the students have had no experience of listening to the term of collocation before and they do not have knowledge of different types of collocations. Thus, the meaning of collocation was explained while the survey was being conducted. After listening to what collocation is, only 16 percent of the students responded that they seemed to know a little about it and the rest said that they did not know it, indicating the necessity of explicit collocation instruction in classroom settings. As for the last question asking whether collocation would be helpful for the participants to improve their vocabulary capacity, only 16 percent of the students marked “very much,” 27 percent “much,” and 57 percent “so-so.” However, no one marked “a little” or “little or never”. The results are understandable considering the fact that the participants did not well know the concept of collocation itself even though they listened to it briefly while answering the survey. Still, no response on “a little” or “little or never” might reflect their recognition of the importance of collocations just as the importance of vocabulary in English learning.

2. Collocation-based Instruction

The two groups initially showed no significant difference in terms of general English proficiency level using the nation-hosted test (Trial Test for the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT)) taken in March, 2011. To make sure that the two groups were not different in terms of their English collocational knowledge, all the participants in both groups took the pretest on English collocations in the first week of April, 2011. Even though they showed lack of knowledge on collocations and were not familiar with the test where all the questions were made up of collocations, the participants were serious with the test. The pretest consisted of a total 19 items with one point each (min=0, max=19); four ‘noun + noun,’ two ‘verb + adverb,’ three ‘verb + noun,’ and ten ‘adjective + nouns’ collocations.

After the pretest, an independent-samples t-test was performed for the group comparison and the results are shown in Table 3. There was not a significant difference

between two groups. Based on the results of the nation-hosted test and the pretest, it would be safe to say that the two groups were not different from each other initially.

TABLE 3
Results of Group Comparison on Pretest

Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>t</i>	Partial η^2 .
Control	25	8.64	2.81	.173	.664	-.437	.004
Experimental	26	8.96	2.44				

$p < .05$

Based on predictions of collocation-based instruction, it was hypothesized that L2 learners in the collocation-based instruction condition would display more improvement in their English vocabulary capacity than those are not.

After the four week experiment period, both groups took the posttest on the same day using the same test as the previous one. To see whether there were mean score differences between pre and post tests after the experiment period, the two test scores were compared. As can be seen in Table 4, the control group showed no improvement on the test while the collocation-based instruction group displayed a numerically meaningful improvement. The control group, in fact, showed a small drop in the means from 8.64 to 8.44. The results imply that Korean learners of English would have difficulty gaining good collocational knowledge only through traditional vocabulary teaching and learning methods and they could enhance their collocational knowledge through explicit collocation-based instruction in school settings.

TABLE 4
The Results of Mean Differences on Pre and Post Tests

Group	Pretest		Posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Control ($n=25$)	8.64	2.81	8.44	3.58
Experimental ($n=26$)	8.96	2.44	10.54	3.75

$p < .05$

To have a clearer picture with regard to the possible effects of collocation-based instruction on the participant's L2 vocabulary capacity, the posttest results of the two groups were compared (see Table 5). The results revealed that there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups and the magnitude of effect size was not small but moderate as well suggesting the effectiveness of collocation-based instruction on L2 vocabulary learning. These results are exciting especially considering the rather short period of instructional period. They deliver the pedagogical implications that L2 educators may need to bring explicit collocation-based instruction methods into classroom settings to facilitate learners' vocabulary acquisition.

TABLE 5
Results of Group Comparison on Posttest

Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig</i>	<i>t</i>	Partial η^2 .
Control	25	8.44	3.58	.309	.047	-2.04	.078
Experimental	26	10.54	3.75				

$p < .05$

Besides receiving the collocation-based instruction for four weeks, the experimental group students were told that vocabulary learning could be facilitated through collocation-based learning and the importance of collocations was often stressed over the experimental period. The experimental group learners seemed to show interest in learning English collocations and to be excited about a new vocabulary learning method. Furthermore, some of the experimental group students were often observed to practice English collocations on their own accord by writing them in their own notebooks when they had spare time during class. Overall, the results support the first hypothesis demonstrating that collocation-based teaching could be helpful for L2 to improve their vocabulary capacity especially when combined with the remarks emphasizing the importance of collocations.

Based on previous research, it was also hypothesized that L2 learners in the collocation-based instruction condition would show greater levels of interest in English vocabulary acquisition than those are not. Two weeks after the posttest, a simple survey and follow-up interview on the interest in English vocabulary learning and general English learning were carried out. The results are shown in Tables 6 and 7 and both the groups showed more interest in general English learning than English vocabulary learning.

TABLE 6
Response Rates on the Interest in English Vocabulary Learning

Group	Very interested	Interested	So-so	Little interested	Not interested
Control	0	13	48	26	13
Experimental	0	27	54	15	4
Total (%)	0	20	51	20	9

TABLE 7
Response Rates on the Interest in General English Learning

Group	Very interested	Interested	So-so	Little interested	Not interested
Control	13	43	31	9	4
Experimental	27	38	27	8	0
Total (%)	20	41	29	8	2

Rather unexpectedly, no student was 'very interested' in English vocabulary learning, and 20 percent were 'interested' in it, 27 percent for experimental group and 13 percent for control group respectively. Approximately half of the participants answered that they were moderately interested in English vocabulary learning. On the other hand, 20 percent of the students were 'very interested' in general English learning and around 40 percent of the students were interested in it. Altogether, more than 60 percent answered that they were at least 'interested' in general English learning showing much higher level of interest than English vocabulary learning. The experimental group displayed more interest than the control group in English vocabulary learning and general English learning, which was in line with our observations since some of the experimental group students were often observed to practice English collocations by repeating them orally or writing them in their own notebooks over the break time.

The reasons the participants are interested in English learning in general were diverse. The following are examples from the participants' interviews.

Examples (Experimental group)

Student A: I want to do well on English, so I study very hard.

Student B: I'd like to watch foreign movies without subtitles. In addition, I like to listen to English pop songs. So I study harder and harder.

Student C: Even though I don't get a good score in English, I just like it. No reason, I just like it.

Examples (Control group)

Student D: I want to speak English just like a native speaker, so I am interested in English learning.

Student E: I usually get a good score in English, so I feel like continuing to study it.

Student F: I need English in the future. It will be absolutely necessary in our life.

As can be seen in the examples above, the participants were generally interested in English learning since they feel the need to study it for different reasons or they feel happy when they study it. Unlike the positive attitude towards English learning in general, the attitude toward English vocabulary learning was not completely positive. The following examples are also from the participants' interview.

Examples (Experimental group)

Student G: If I don't memorize words, I can't understand the text. So I need to memorize them anyway.

Student H: If I memorize a lot of words, reading will be easier.

Student I: English words are forgotten easily, however hard I memorize them.

Student J: The reason that I don't like English is that there are too many words to memorize. Even if I know words, I still can't understand text. Whenever I see a test paper, I think I feel chocked to death.

Examples (Control group)

Student K: Memorizing English words is not that exciting, but I feel very happy when I face them while I am reading English texts.

Student L: It is hard to memorize them, but it is necessary. So I am force to memorize them.

Student M: The level of words is getting higher and higher, so it is difficult to memorize them.

Student N: I like getting a good test score in English but I don't get a good score at all even though I study very hard to memorize English words. So I don't like it. It's just difficult. It's not our mother tongue.

Some students were not interested in vocabulary learning since it is difficult to acquire, they cannot get a good English test score, and there are too many words to remember, and so forth. Overall the participants of the current study admitted the importance of vocabulary learning and stated it would help them improve their English proficiency level to a great extent. However, some of them did not feel that they had to study English words including collocations at that point since they think the CSAT in Korea is related more to listening, grammar, and reading but not vocabulary. Based on the interview, we recognized that Korean high school students tend to underestimate the importance of vocabulary in L2 acquisition and categorize it into subcategory of so called four language skills – reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

The participants were also asked to mark their interest in English vocabulary learning through collocations in the same survey after the posttest. The 12 percent of experimental group students stated that they were “very interested” in the vocabulary acquisition through collocations, 19 percent were interested in it, and most (69%) responded that they were “interested” in it to some extent. For control group, those who were “very interested” accounted for 4 percent and 21 percent were “interested” in. The results reflect that Korean students' degree of interest in English collocations is not easily enhanced after the limited instruction period.

TABLE 8
Response Rates on the Interest in Collocations

Group	Very interested	Interested	So-so	Little interested	Not interested
Control	4	24	68	4	0
Experimental	12	19	69	0	0
Total (%)	8	21	69	2	0

The follow-up interview data gave a clue to the reasons why the participants showed lower level of interest in collocations than they were expected to.

Examples (Experimental group)

Student O: Since I started high school, I have got the first or second grade on the English test. I did not study collocations at all. When I took the test, collocations did not influence the test score, I think. So, there is no reason for studying collocations right now.

Student P: I think collocations are more closely related to speaking and writing. We do not take speaking and writing test on the College Scholastic Aptitude Test for the college entrance exam next year. So I think I do not have to study collocations now for speaking and writing. After I am admitted to the college that I want to go, I will study them if necessary.

Examples (Control group)

Student Q: I've never studied collocations. I just listened to the terminology from you this time. I just like the way I have studied

Student R: I don't understand collocations well. As you said, it could help me improve English proficiency. It seems that it could be more helpful for improving writing and speaking and it is not urgent now.

The interviewees usually connected their studying to the college entrance exam and they felt collocation learning was not urgent compared to listening and reading. To sum up, they acknowledged that collocation-based learning would help them to improve their English to a great extent but they did not feel that they had to study them now since they were not closely related to the CSAT.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to explore the effects of collocation-based instruction on L2 vocabulary acquisition and the students' interests in it. The results showed that L2 learners' vocabulary capacity could be significantly improved through collocation-based instruction. This study also discovered that the learners who received collocation-based instruction showed greater level of English vocabulary learning than those were not. Such instructional effects implied that, pedagogically, there is a need for L2 teachers to acquaint learners with collocation-based language learning strategies so that learners can have apply them to their English learning process.

The two groups' degree of interest in vocabulary learning through collocations did not reach our expectation partly because of external factors such as the CSAT and lack of familiarity of collocations. From the results, it seems that while the capacity of vocabulary could be improved over rather short period of intensive instruction, the rooted perception of Korean learners could not be easily influenced especially the belief is closely related to their immediate needs such as the CSAT. Such results might point to the pedagogical implication that collocation-based instructions should include more awareness raising activities specifically aiming at the notion of integrative language learning in order to re-conceptualize learners' biased perception of focusing only listening and reading.

According to the Ministry of Education and Science Technology of Korea, the National English Ability Test (NEAT), recently developed by Korean government, might replace the current English language section of the College Scholastic Ability Test (CSAT) from 2016. The NEAT includes speaking and writing sections along with listening and reading ones. For Korean high students to adapt to this type of test, it would be necessary to study collocations, as some of the interviewees mentioned. Many students made mistakes such as 'He will be promoted to sale manager,' 'May I see your board pass,' 'We spent all day at the amusing park,' on the pre-and post tests. These suggest that L2 learners need to focus more on chunks than isolated words and collocation-based instruction could provide great help to do it.

In conclusion, this study explored the effectiveness of collocation-based instruction on L2 learners' vocabulary capacity and revealed that collocation-based instruction could be helpful to L2 learners. This study also examined whether collocation-based instruction could enhance L2 learners' interest in English vocabulary learning and English learning itself. Though the results showed that the effects of collocation-based instruction on L2 learners' interest were not as strong as expected, this study does contribute to our understanding of how to implement collocations into L2 classroom.

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APPENDIX

Pre and Post Test Items

※ 다음 중 주어진 단어와 잘 어울리지 않은 단어를 고르시오.
(Choose the one that goes least well with the given word.)

1. bright
a. idea b. smell c. child d. day e. room
2. main
a. point b. reason c. effect d. entrance e. speed
3. strong
a. smell b. influence c. language d. possibility e. doubt

※ 다음 빈 칸에 가장 알맞은 단어를 고르시오.
(Choose the one that best fits into the blank.)

4. He will be promoted to _____ manager.
a. sales b. sold c. sell d. selling e. sale
5. Many school cafeterias were inspected to prevent food _____.
a. poison b. poisonous c. poisoned d. poisoner e. poisoning
6. A: Where can I find the _____ desk?
B: You can find it over there
a. information b. informing c. informed d. informer e. inform
7. A: I think our seats are over here.
B: May I see your _____ pass, please?
a. boarders b. boarder c. boarding d. boarded e. board
8. Make sure you have a _____ look at the engine before you buy the car.
a. close b. wild c. rough d. instant e. light
9. The _____ building is 63 stories _____.
a. tall-high b. tall-tall c. high-high d. tall-highly e. high-tall
10. If you are not completely satisfied with the quality, we are willing to give you a _____ refund.
a. big b. much c. large d. great e. full
11. A: How much will it cost to fix the engine?
B: A _____ guess would be around \$400 to \$450.
a. little b. general c. tight d. wide e. rough
12. A: Sarah and I are from the same town.
B: Really? What a _____ world!
a. big b. large c. close d. small e. wide

13. If you were in the same situation, what decision would you _____?
a. take b. make c. have d. do e. put
14. He _____ thanks to his friends for helping his project.
a. gave b. took c. had d. did e. made
15. A: I hate it when people stare at me.
B: I know _____ what you're talking about. I hate it, too.
a. directly b. exactly c. recently d. efficiently e. consequently
16. Tom is a _____ learner. He picks up things very easily.
a. large b. quick c. swift d. speedy e. big
17. I forgot to _____ my English homework last night.
a. do b. have c. make d. take e. give
18. I was _____ able to move my arm after the terrible accident.
a. scarcely b. badly c. nearly d. simply e. lately
19. We spent all day at the _____ park.
a. amusing b. amusement c. amused d. amusedly e. amuse

Examples in: English**Applicable Languages: English****Applicable Levels: Secondary**

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