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Teaching and Learning Collocation in Adult Second and Foreign Language Learning

Frank Boers fboers@uwo.ca

Stuart Webb Western University, swebb27@uwo.ca

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Research Timeline

Teaching and learning collocation in adult second and foreign language learning

Frank Boers and Stuart Webb

Introduction

Perhaps the greatest challenge to creating a research timeline on teaching and learning collocation is deciding how wide to cast the net in the search for relevant publications. For one thing, the term collocation does not have the same meaning for all (applied) linguists and practitioners (Barfield & Gyllstad 2009: 3–7). For another, items that are labelled as collocations in one study may be called something else in another study (Wray 2000: 465).

In the discipline of corpus linguistics, collocation refers to the above-chance co-occurrence of two words (Sinclair 1991). The degree of likelihood of two words co-occurring in a corpus within a given span of discourse can be quantified through one of the available measures of collocational strength such as the mutual information (MI) score. The higher that score, the stronger the word partnership or collocation is. Word substitutions that cause deviations from the regular co-occurrences (e.g. *highly religious* instead of *deeply religious*) will tend to stand out as unconventional or 'non-idiomatic' (where the term idiomatic is used in the sense of 'combining words like a native speaker would').

However, in the older discipline of phraseology research, collocations are usually considered a particular type of multiword expression, distinguishable from other types, most notably idioms (e.g. Howarth 1998; Gitsaki 1999: 3). The principal

argument for making this distinction is that the meaning of some multiword expressions (e.g. *cause damage*) follows from adding up the meaning of their constituents, while the meaning of other multiword expressions (e.g. *pull strings*) transcends that of their constituent words. The former type is then labelled collocation and the latter is labelled idiom. This commonly made distinction between collocations and idioms is paralleled in the realm of language education by the availability of study materials devoted separately to either collocations or idioms (e.g. McCarthy & O'Dell 2002, 2005).

The distinction between collocations and idioms on the basis of semantic transparency (or 'compositionality') is not black-and-white, however. For one thing, many so-called collocations are transparent only provided one is not led astray by the primary meaning of constituent words (e.g. *pay* in *pay attention* is not used in its financial transaction sense) (Boers & Webb 2015). For another, many expressions that are listed in idiom dictionaries are to some degree compositional. If *pull strings* evokes the image of a puppeteer in action, and if this aids interpretation of the expression, then the constituent words *pull* and *strings* do contribute to the meaning of the phrase as a whole (Gibbs 1994).

Using the above-chance co-occurrence of words as a (corpus-based) criterion naturally leads to the inclusion of expressions considered idioms in phraseological tradition. For example, some of the target expressions labelled collocations in Webb, Newton & Chang's (2013) study (see timeline) are included in the *Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Idioms* (2002) (e.g. *cut corners* and *stay the course*) while other targets are not (e.g., *buy time* and *run the risk*). Conversely, given their relatively fixed nature, most idioms will conform to the corpus linguistic definition of collocation (e.g. *vicious circle*) (Macis & Schmitt 2017). We could therefore have cast our net as

wide as to include publications with an explicit focus on idioms in L2 learning. However, to keep the scope of this research timeline manageable, we have opted not to do that. The body of research on idiom comprehension and learning is large, and probably merits a research timeline of its own.

Apart from revealing the statistical likelihood that certain words will occur in each other's company (e.g. that *pretty* is much more likely to co-occur with *girl* than with *boy*), corpus data can also be used to make inventories of continuous strings of two or more words (*n-grams*) that meet a given frequency criterion. Such highly frequent strings have been called lexical bundles (Biber, Conrad & Cortes 2004). The resulting inventories will contain sequences such as *and so on*, and *one of the*, which consist of words that are so common that likelihood-of-co-occurrence statistics (e.g. MI scores) will often fail to reach significance (owing to the fact that these words are found in the company of just about any other word in a corpus). Despite the value in this line of research, we have also excluded publications with a particular focus on lexical bundles. Among these are several corpus-informed attempts to create inventories of uninterrupted word sequences that could be given priority in learning by virtue of their high frequency (Shin & Nation 2008; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis 2010; Liu 2012; Martinez & Schmitt 2012).

The phenomenon of collocation is of course part and parcel of formulaic language in general. A fair number of studies have explored the learning and teaching of 'formulaic sequences' (Wray 2000), encompassing diverse multiword expressions, often identified or selected by the researchers on the basis of intuition (and inter-coder agreement) instead of corpus data. We have also decided against including this line of research in our timeline, because a separate timeline devoted to formulaic language is in fact already available in the present journal (Wray 2013).

Still, we fully recognize that giving precedence in our research timeline to studies which explicitly focus on 'collocation' is at the expense of multiple other publications that offer valuable insights into the nature of phraseology more generally and into the challenges that particular types of multiword expressions (e.g. idioms) pose for L2 learners.

Turning now to our timeline, it is striking that interest in collocation in the context of L2 learning initially developed very slowly. The pace of research only began to pick up in the late 1990s, possibly spurred on by Nattinger & DeCarrico's (1992) and Lewis' (1993, 1997, 2000) seminal works that highlighted the relevance of multiword lexis for L2 learners. The proliferation of research on collocation learning and teaching since the late 1990s has been astounding, however, with a particularly rapid rise in numbers of studies in the past decade. There is no doubt that the interval between the creation of this timeline and its publication will see more publications on the subject. As a whole, the timeline shows a progression in research from studies that provide evidence of the importance of collocation for L2 learners and the slow pace of L2 collocation learning in the absence of pedagogic intervention, to studies that evaluate the effectiveness of various types of intervention, ranging from relatively unobtrusive manipulations of input (e.g., textual enhancement) to explicit collocation-focused exercises.

The publications included in this timeline cover the following three broad themes, and each publication is classified according to the most relevant one(s).

A Demonstrating the usefulness of L2 collocation knowledge. These are publications that show strong associations between learners' mastery of collocation and their general levels of (speaking and/or writing) proficiency.

- **B** Assessing L2 learners' collocation knowledge. This theme includes comparisons of natives' and learners' use of collocation, and also the development and validation of test instruments to measure collocation knowledge.
- C Investigating factors that influence the pace of acquisition of (types of) collocations, and pedagogic interventions to accelerate learning. This broad category comprises studies which gauge the impact of variables such as L1-L2 (non-)congruency and frequency of encounters on learners' (incidental) uptake of L2 collocations, as well as studies that evaluate the effectiveness of collocation-focused instructional procedures.

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Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic sequences in second language teaching: Principles and practice. *Applied Linguistics* 21.4, 463–489.

Wray, A. (2013). Formulaic language. Language Teaching 46.3, 316–334.

YEAR	REFERENCES	ANNOTATIONS	THEME
1933	Palmer, H.E. (1933). Second interim report	This is one of several texts in which Palmer calls for more research on	A
	on English collocations. Tokyo, Japan:	collocation and for giving due attention to collocation in language pedagogy.	
	Kaitakusha.	He recommends learning collocations holistically rather than through	
		knowledge of the words that make up each item. This recommendation will be	
		reiterated by many others (e.g. Lewis 1993), but also questioned by some (e.g.	
		Liu 2010).	
1992	Biskup, D. (1992). L1 influence on learners'	Biskup finds that EFL learners with a more distant L1 (Polish) make fewer L2	C
	renderings of English collocations. A	collocational errors that are due to L1 interference than those with a less distant	
	Polish/German empirical study. In P. J. L.	L1 (German), and suggests that this is due to an assumed congruency between	
	Arnaud & H. Bejoint (eds.), Vocabulary and	the more closely related languages. This book chapter is the beginning of a	
	applied linguistics. London: Macmillan. 85–	thread of studies on the influence of learners' L1 on their production of	
	93.	collocations in their L2 (e.g. Granger 1998; Nesselhauf 2003).	

1993	Bahns, J. & M. Eldaw (1993). Should we	Bahns & Eldaw examined the extent to which verb-noun collocations were	B/C
	teach EFL students collocations? System	correctly produced in cloze and translation tests. They found that knowledge of	
	21.1, 101–114.	collocations was far less than that of single word items. L2 verb-noun	
		collocations have since been found in several other studies to be particularly	
		troublesome for learners, especially when they are incongruent with the	
		counterparts in the learners' L1 (NESSELHAUF 2003; PETERS 2016).	
993	Read, J. (1993). The development of a new	Read's Word Associates Test was not specifically designed to measure	В
	measure of L2 vocabulary knowledge.	collocational knowledge. However, it was innovative in that it measured	
	Language Testing 10.3, 355–371.	recognition of collocates of target words as one of the components of word	
		knowledge.	
998	Granger, S. (1998). Prefabricated patterns in	Granger provides evidence from a learner corpus of the impact that the L1 has	С
	advanced EFL writing: Collocations and	on learning and use of L2 collocations and suggests that teachers and materials	
	formulae. In A. P. Cowie (ed.), <i>Phraseology:</i>	developers need to take this into consideration to make learning more efficient.	

	Theory, analysis and applications. Oxford:		
	Clarendon Press. 145–160.		
2003	Nesselhauf, N. (2003). The use of	Nesselhauf used a learner corpus to examine the types of mistakes that	B/C
	collocations by advanced learners of English	advanced language learners make using verb-noun collocations. She found that	
	and some implications for teaching. Applied	L1 influence, or the degree of L1-L2 congruence, was responsible for a large	
	Linguistics 24.2, 223–242.	proportion of errors (thus confirming the earlier findings by BISKUP 1992, and	
		Granger 1998).	
2007	Keshavarz, M. H. & H. Salimi (2007).	Keshavarz & Salimi created a 50 item multiple-choice test designed to	A
	Collocational competence and cloze test	measure collocational competence and compared L2 participants' results on	
	performance: A study of Iranian EFL	this test to their scores on open-ended and multiple-choice cloze tests. The	
	learners. International Journal of Applied	significant correlations lend support to the claim that L2 proficiency and	
	Linguistics 17.1, 81–92.	knowledge of collocations are closely associated. Further (indirect) evidence of	

		this association is provided by Hsu & Chiu (2008).	
2008	Laufer, B. & N. Girsai (2008). Form-focused	Laufer & Girsai compared the effectiveness of learning collocations in	C
_000	instruction in second language vocabulary	meaning-focused activities, exclusively L2 form-focused activities, and L1-L2	
	learning: a case for contrastive analysis and	translation activities. The latter treatment resulted in the best learning	
	translation. Applied Linguistics 29.4, 694-	outcomes. Explicitly contrasting L1 and L2 collocations in instructional	
	716.	materials thus appears to be an effective way of countering the well-	
		documented interference from L1 on learners (mis)use of collocations (cf.	
		NESSELHAUF 2003). Laufer & Girsai's study is an early 'intervention' study	
		that compares learning gains obtained from different kinds of engagement with	
		the target collocations. More recent examples include BOERS ET AL. (2016) and	
		EYCKMANS ET AL. (2016).	
2008	Lindstromberg, S. & F. Boers (2008). The	The results from the experiments reported by Lindstromberg & Boers suggest	C

	mnemonic effect of noticing alliteration in	that collocations exhibiting alliteration (e.g. make a mess) – a conspicuously	
	lexical chunks. Applied Linguistics 29.2,	common feature of English phraseology – can easily be made more memorable	
	200–222.	for learners by alerting them to the alliteration.	
2008	Hsu, Jy. & Cy. Chiu (2008). Lexical	Hsu & Chiu report significant correlations between EFL learners' scores on	A
	collocations and their relation to speaking	written tests intended to measure knowledge of collocation, and the learners'	
	proficiency of college EFL learners in	grades obtained for oral narrative tasks. This provides more (indirect) evidence	
	Taiwan. Asian EFL Journal 10.1, 181–204.	of the contribution that collocation mastery can make to oral proficiency.	
2008	Siyanova, A. & N. Schmitt (2008). L2	Unlike others (e.g., Granger 1998), Siyanova & Schmitt found little	В
	learner production and processing of	difference between natives' and advanced learners' use of adjective-noun	
	collocation: A multi-study perspective.	collocations in comparable native and learner corpora. However, L2 learners'	
	Canadian Modern Language Review 64.3,	processing of the collocations was found to be slower than native-speakers'.	
	429–458.		

2009	Durrant, P. & N. Schmitt (2009). To what	Durrant & Schmitt examine the degree to which frequency may affect L2 B
	extent do native and non-native writers make	learners' use of collocations. They found that non-native writers tend to
	use of collocations? International Review of	overuse higher frequency collocations and underuse lower frequency ones.
	Applied Linguistics 47.2, 157–177.	
2009	Barfield, A. & H. Gyllstad (eds.) (2009)	This edited volume contains original research studies that collectively cover the A, B, C
	Researching collocations in another	three broad themes identified in this time line. Three of its chapters are
	language - Multiple interpretations.	specifically concerned with the design and validation of tests of collocation
	Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.	knowledge, and illustrate the intricate nature of this knowledge construct and
		how it can be measured.
2009	Boers, F. & S. Lindstromberg (2009).	Boers & Lindstromberg argue on the basis of previous research that foreign A, B, C
	Optimizing a lexical approach to instructed	language learners' autonomous uptake of multiword lexis (including
	second language acquisition. Basingstoke:	collocations) is almost bound to be unsatisfactory, and they call for initiatives

	Palgrave Macmillan.	that go beyond awareness-raising about the importance of phrasal lexis. The	
		book presents experimental validation for classroom techniques intended to	
		help learners not only to notice chunks of language but to remember them.	
2009	Webb, S. & E. Kagimoto (2009). The	Webb & Kagimoto look at how (silent) reading of glossed sentences and	С
	effects of vocabulary learning on collocation	completing a cloze activity contribute to learning the written form and the	
	and meaning. TESOL Quarterly 43.1, 55–77.	meaning of target collocations. The two activities led to comparable gains in	
		both aspects of knowledge, and so the study does not furnish evidence of a	
		practice-mode – test-mode congruency effect.	
2010	Durrant, P. & N. Schmitt (2010). Adult	Durrant & Schmitt 's experiment starts a thread of investigations into the role	C
	learners' retention of collocations from	of repeated encounters with the same collocation (see, e.g., WEBB, NEWTON &	
	exposure. Second Language Research 28.2,	CHANG 2013 and PELLICER-SANCHEZ 2017, for later studies). Participants were	
	163–188.	asked to read sentences containing collocations aloud, and were tested on their	
		recollection of the target collocations shortly after this. More exposures to a	

		collocation increased the likelihood of recollection, in particular when the	
		collocation had been re-encountered in identical sentences.	
2010	Liu, D. (2010). Going beyond patterns:	Liu argues that many collocations can be motivated with reference to the core	C
	Involving cognitive analysis in the learning	semantics of their component words. He argues that learners should be	
	of collocations. TESOL Quarterly 44.1, 4-	encouraged to explore the non-arbitrary facets of collocation as a way of	
	30.	stimulating retention. An instructional approach to multiword expressions	
		along these lines was proposed by Boers & Lindstromberg (2009).	
2010	Li, J. & N. Schmitt (2010). The development	Li & Schmitt document the slow development of EFL learners' knowledge of	В
	of collocation use in academic texts by	adjective-noun collocations over time. The described pace of acquisition is	
	advanced L2 learners: A multiple case study	perhaps particularly revealing given that the participants in the study were	
	approach. In D. Wood (ed.), Perspectives on	language majors, and it lends support to earlier claims that collocation learning	
	formulaic language: Acquisition and	tends to lag behind single word learning (e.g. BAHNS & ELDAW 1993)	
	communication. New York: Continuum. 22-		

	A.C.		
	46.		
2010	Yamashita, J. & N. Jiang (2010). L1	Yamashita & Jiang look at the effects of L1-L2 congruency and L2 exposure	В
	influence on the acquisition of L2	on learning collocations. Their results indicate that both factors affect learning;	
	collocations: Japanese ESL users and EFL	congruent collocations are more easily learned than incongruent collocations,	
	learners acquiring English collocations.	and greater L2 exposure increases the potential for acquisition.	
	TESOL Quarterly 44.4, 647–668.		
2011	Webb, S. & E. Kagimoto (2011). Learning	Webb & Kagimoto report an experiment where participants were asked to	C
	collocations: Do the number of collocates,	study differently designed sets of collocations. Post-test results indicate that	
	position of the node word, and synonymy	learning is easiest when some of the collocations share the same collocate (e.g.,	
	affect learning? Applied Linguistics 32.3,	deep sleep and deep sigh), and so fewer word associations need to be	
	259–276.	remembered. Learning is hardest when collocations in a set contain near-	

synonymous words (e.g., slim chance and narrow escape), as this increases the

		risk of cross-interference between the target items. Further evidence of the risk	
		of cross-item interference is reported in BOERS ET AL. (2014).	
2011	Wolter, B. & H. Gyllstad (2011).	While previous investigations on the impact of L1 – L2 congruency at the level	C
	Collocational links in the L2 mental lexicon	of collocations used off-line tasks, Wolter & Gyllstad use online processing	
	and the influence of L1 intralexical	measures, and confirm that L2 collocations that are congruent with L1	
	knowledge. Applied Linguistics 32.4, 430-	collocations are processed with much greater ease by learners than those which	
	449.	have no L1 equivalent, thus supporting the findings of YAMASHITA & JIANG	
		(2010).	
2011	Laufer, B. & T. Waldman (2011). Verb-	Laufer & Waldman compared EFL students' knowledge of collocations	В
	noun collocations in second language	across different proficiency levels (operationalized as different years of	
	writing: A corpus analysis of learners'	language study). Their cross-sectional study reveals only piecemeal gains	
	English. Language Learning 61.4, 647–672.	between proficiency levels, a finding reminiscent of LI & SCHMITT's (2010)	
		longitudinal study.	

2011	Laufer, B. (2011). The contribution of	Laufer examined how dictionary entries may contribute to learning verb-noun	C
	dictionary use to the production and	collocations. She found that, although use of dictionaries did contribute to some	
	retention of collocations in a second	extent to collocational knowledge, her EFL learners often overestimated their	
	language. International Journal of	knowledge of the collocations and consequently did not consult a dictionary. At	
	Lexicography 24.1, 29–49.	other times, they failed to find the information they needed.	
2011	Kasahara, K. (2011). The effect of known-	Kasahara compared learning collocations made up of one known and one	C
	and-unknown word combinations on	unknown word with learning the unknown words alone. The research indicated	
	intentional vocabulary learning. System 39.4,	superior retention of the intact collocations, which suggests that associating	
	491–499.	new words with a familiar collocate is helpful.	
2013	Levitzky-Aviad, T. & B. Laufer (2013).	Levitzky-Aviad & Laufer examined the use of collocations in written work of	В
	Lexical properties in the writing of foreign	students of different ages and grade levels. A corpus that included 290 passages	

 \mathbf{C}

language learners over eight years of study:

Single words and collocations. In C. Bardel,
C. Lindqvist, & B. Laufer (eds.), L2

vocabulary acquisition knowledge and use:

New perspectives on assessment and corpus.

EUROSLA MONOGRAPHS SERIES 2.

European Second Language Association.

127–150.

written by students in grades 6-12 and first-year university English majors was examined to determine if there was variation in the use of collocations during the years of formal English learning. The results indicated that there was a general increase in the use of collocations, but that statistically significant increases only occurred between the university level and each of the school grades. This cross-sectional study complements Li & SCHMITT's (2010) longitudinal study of the (slow) development of L2 collocation knowledge.

Sonbul, S. & N. Schmitt (2013). Explicit and Implicit Lexical Knowledge: Acquisition of Collocations Under Different Input Conditions. *Language Learning* 63.1, 121–159.

2013

Sonbul & Schmitt examine collocation learning in two contextualized conditions and one decontextualized learning condition. They found that all conditions led to significant learning, and that typographic enhancement contributed to greater learning than reading an unenhanced text. The effect of typographic enhancement on collocation learning has been further investigated in, for example, Choi (2016) and Szudarski & Carter (2016).

2013	Webb, S., J., Newton & A. C-S Chang	Webb et al. examined the extent to which collocations are learned incidentally	C
	(2013). Incidental learning of collocation.	through reading (while listening) to a graded reader, as well as the effect of	
	Language Learning 63.1, 91–120.	frequency on collocation learning. The study was the first to reveal that	
		incidental learning of collocation occurs and that frequency has a similar effect	
		for learning collocations as it does with single-word items; incidental learning	
		increased as the number of encounters with target collocations (1, 5, 10, and	
		15) increased.	
2013	Wolter, B. & H. Gyllstad (2013). Frequency	In a follow up to Yamashita & Jiang (2010) and Wolter & Gyllstad	C
	of input and L2 collocational processing: A	(2011), Wolter & Gyllstad look at the influence of frequency effects on the	
	comparison of congruent and incongruent	processing of congruent and incongruent collocations. They found that the	
	collocations. Studies in Second Language	frequency of adjective-noun collocations affected the response times of	
	Acquisition 35.3, 451–482.	advanced L2 learners, and that this effect occurred with both congruent and	
		incongruent collocations.	

2014	Boers, F., M. Demecheleer, A. Coxhead & S.	Boers et al. evaluate by means of pre-test – post-test comparisons several	C
	Webb (2014). Gauging the effects of	commonly used textbook exercises on verb-noun collocations, and find poor	
	exercises on verb-noun collocations.	learning outcomes, partly as a result of cross-item interference. This	
	Language Teaching Research 18.1, 50-70.	interference is attested more often in exercises where learners are required to	
		match the constituents of collocations than in exercises where collocations are	
		presented from the start as intact wholes.	
2015	Crossley, A. S., T. Salsbury & D. S.	Crossley et al. collected holistic lexical proficiency ratings of L2 writing and	A
	McNamara (2015). Assessing lexical	L2 speech samples and also the same raters' assessment of particular facets of	
	proficiency using analytic ratings: A case for	lexical proficiency exhibited in the samples. Of those facets, collocation	
	collocation accuracy. Applied Linguistics	accuracy was found to be the strongest predictor of the holistic ratings. This is	
	36.5, 570-590.	an important addition to the body of evidence attesting to the importance of	
		collocation knowledge.	
2016	Peters, E. (2016). The lexical burden of	In this study, Peters investigated characteristics of collocations that hinder	C
	collocations: The role of interlexical and	learning in deliberate, collocation-focused instructional activities. Like in	
	collocations: The role of interlexical and	learning in deliberate, collocation-focused instructional activities. Lik	e in

	intralexical factors. Language Teaching	aforementioned studies that looked at incidental learning, L1-L2 non-
	Research 20.1, 113-138.	congruency was again found to be one of the obstacles to learning, especially in
		the case of verb-noun combinations.
2016	Eyckmans, J., Boers, F. & Lindstromberg, S.	Eyckmans et al. asked EFL learners to study a list of verb-noun collocations as C
	(2016). The impact of imposing processing	preparation for a test. One group of students was asked additionally to look for
	strategies on L2 learners' deliberate study of	the presence of alliteration in the target expressions as they tried to commit the
	lexical phrases. System 56.2, 127-139.	items to memory (see Lindstromberg & Boers 2008), a second group was asked
		to compare the target expressions with counterparts in their mother tongue, and
		a third group was not given any specific directions to help them with the
		memorization task. Post-test results showed positive effects of engagement
		with the sound pattern (alliteration), but not of the L2-L1 comparisons. The
		latter finding differs from LAUFER & GIRSAI (2008), where contrastive analysis
		was found beneficial.

2016	Szudarski, P. & R. Carter (2016). The role of	Szudarski and Carter compared the effects of repeated encounters with	\mathbf{C}
	input enhancement in EFL learners'	collocations to repeated encounters with the same collocations in	
	acquisition of collocations. International	typographically enhanced (underlined) forms. As expected, the latter, attention-	
	Journal of Applied Linguistics 26.2., 245-	directing, text manipulation was found beneficial for uptake of the collocations.	
	265.		
2017	Choi, S. (2017). Processing and learning of	Like SZUDARSKI & CARTER (2016), Choi finds that typographic enhancement	С
	enhanced English collocations: An eye-	of collocations in readings texts positively influences learners' uptake of the	
	movement study. Language Teaching	enhanced items. One of the strengths of this study is that the learners' post-test	
	Research 21.3, 403–426.	performance is triangulated with eye-tracking data which confirm that the	
		typographic enhancement indeed directed the learners' attention to the target	
		collocations. The study also indicates, however, that this enhancement may	
		distract learners from other, non-enhanced, text segments.	
2017	Pellicer-Sanchez, A. (2017). Learning L2	This study is a conceptual replication of WEBB ET AL. (2013), which found	C

	collocations incidentally from reading.	positive effects of repeated encounters with collocations during reading. Unlike	
	i	the original study, Pellicer-Sanchez found no such compelling evidence of a frequency-of-encounters effect, which suggests that other factors (including item-specific characteristics of the target collocations) can play a big enough	
		part to override the expected frequency effect.	
2017	Nguyen, T.M.H & S. Webb (2017).	Nguyen & Webb evaluate, by means of a corpus-informed multiple-choice	B/C
	Examining second language receptive	test, Vietnamese EFL learners' knowledge of adjective-noun and verb-noun	
	knowledge of collocation and factors that	collocations made up of words at three levels of frequency. The results indicate	
	affect learning. Language Teaching	very poor knowledge of collocations in comparison with the same learners'	
	Research 21.3, 298–320.	knowledge of individual words. Congruency with L1 counterpart expressions	
		was again found to be one of the predictors of test performance.	
2017	Boers, F., T.C.T Dang & B. Strong (2017).	In this further evaluation of the effectiveness of textbook exercises on	C
	Comparing the effectiveness of phrase-	collocations, Boers et al. find that exercises in which verb-noun collocations	
	focused exercises: A partial replication of	are worked with as intact wholes from the start are more helpful than ones	

(2014). Language Teaching Research 21.3,

362–280.

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where learners are required to (re)assemble expressions from separate, jumbled parts, because the latter exercises carry a greater risk of erroneous cross-item associations. When it comes to the deliberate study of collocation, it seems that methods that minimize the risk of error are more judicious than those that rely on trial-and-error. An analysis of phrase-focused exercises in a corpus of ten recent EFL textbooks indicated that the latter approach is (unfortunately) still common practice.