

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS

ELT Journal

Meaning Matters: The Figurative and Polysemous Nature of Collocations and their place in ELT

Journal:	ELT Journal
Manuscript ID	ELTJ-2015-ART-0250.R2
Manuscript Type:	Article
Keywords:	Literal Collocations, Figurative Collocations, Duplex Collocations, Teaching collocations

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Manuscripts

The figurative and polysemous nature of collocations and their place in ELT

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There is little guidance on how to teach different meaning senses of collocations as most pedagogical materials treat collocations as word partners which co-occur together. However, if we consider meaning, collocations fall into three categories. Literal collocations are combinations where the literal meanings of the words are simply added together. Figurative collocations have idiomatic meanings which are not derivable from the component words. Duplex collocations are polysemous, having both literal and figurative meanings. This exploratory study analysed 54 collocations and found that even though the majority of the collocations appeared to be literal, a substantial percentage had both literal and figurative meanings, and relatively few seemed to be solely figurative. We discuss the teaching implications of this, depending on whether the most important collocational characteristic is a pattern of co-occurrence or of meaning. Overall, we argue that considering meaning can bring useful insights into the nature of collocations and how to teach them.

Introduction

There has been little attention to date—especially in ELT textbooks—given to the semantic qualities of collocations and the subsequent pedagogical implications of this. As a result, many teachers simply do not look at collocations as units for which meanings can be more than just literal. Instead, most definitions of collocation that teachers are familiar with focus on the pattern of co-occurrence in language, rather than the meanings that they may convey. This is exemplified by Sinclair's (1991: 170) early definition, 'Collocation is the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text', which is reflected in typical descriptions of collocation in recent textbooks:

- 'Collocation means a natural combination of words; it refers to the way English words are closely associated with each other'. English Collocations in Use: Intermediate (McCarthy and O'Dell 2005: 4).
- 'It is important to know which words collocate (commonly go together)'. Cambridge English: Objective Advanced (O'Dell and Broadhead 2014: 13).

This approach is essentially about the co-occurrence of words, i.e. that words

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4 'partner' together. But can the consideration of their semantic properties add to our
5 understanding of collocations? We believe that teachers should focus on more than
6 just the literal partnering of words as, from a meaning-focused perspective, there
7 seem to be three categories of collocation.
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10 11 12 **Literal collocations**

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14 These are combinations where the literal meanings of the words are simply added
15 together ('powerful computer' = a computer with powerful processing abilities). The
16 consideration of the collocations' meanings by learners is not such an issue here, as
17 they merely need to know the meaning(s) of the component words, and then string
18 them together in a 'Meaning A + Meaning B' manner. The real challenge is knowing
19 which words pattern together for that particular meaning (for example not *'strong
20 computer' or *'tough computer').
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27 This aspect of patterning has been the focus of most collocation pedagogy and
28 discussion to date.
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31 32 **Figurative collocations¹**

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34 Figurative collocations have figurative meanings which are not derivable from their
35 component words. For example, the collocation 'hot ticket' does not literally mean 'a
36 ticket with a high temperature', but rather one which is 'highly sought after'. Thus,
37 'hot ticket' behaves like a 'chunk' rather than two words which simply partner
38 together. However, we seldom see Figurative collocations discussed in ELT
39 textbooks or materials.²
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45 46 **Duplex collocations¹**

47 These are polysemous,³ having both literal and figurative meanings. For example,
48 'top drawer' has an A + B literal meaning ('the uppermost drawer in a cabinet').
49 However, it also has a separate meaning that is clearly figurative ('something that is
50 best of its class'): He bought a top drawer car.
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55 The above distinctions matter because research suggests that figurative language is
56 stored, processed, and learnt differently than language where meaning is
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4 constructed from individual components (for example Siyanova-Chanturia and
5 Martinez 2014), and so may require different teaching approaches. We know that
6 Figurative and Duplex collocations exist from examples like the above; however, are
7 these examples just atypical cases, or are they relatively widespread? We could not
8 find answers to this question in the literature. Thus, our study analysed a set of
9 collocations to obtain an initial indication of the meaning-based nature of
10 collocations in order to provide guidance for ELT practitioners on how to integrate
11 these into ELT syllabi.
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19 The study

20 The corpus

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24 The corpus selected for this study was the Corpus of Contemporary American
25 English (COCA) (Davies 2008–). The reason for choosing the COCA is because it is a
26 large, freely available and balanced corpus of American English (520-million words
27 spread evenly across five different text types: spoken, fiction, popular magazines,
28 newspapers, and academic texts), and as such, both teachers and textbook writers
29 can access it.
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36 Collocation sampling procedure

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38 Although most would agree with Sinclair's (op.cit.) general definition of collocation
39 as being words that co-occur together, there are a range of criteria for identifying
40 individual cases of collocation (for example Shin and Nation 2008). Different
41 analytical techniques identify different kinds of collocation, so it is not surprising
42 that there is no universal list of collocations for teachers to use (even though there
43 are some useful lists related to formulaic language in general, such as Martinez and
44 Schmitt's PHRASE List (2012)). Given the lack of a standard collocation list, we
45 needed to create a sample of collocations to explore in our study.
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53 We decided to use frequency as a criterion for choosing the target collocations
54 because learners typically acquire higher frequency words before lower frequency
55 words. The first 2,000 word family has generally been accepted as high-frequency
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4 vocabulary, and these words are crucial to use English at a basic, yet useful level.
5 These words also cover around 90 per cent of the total number of words in both
6 written and spoken discourse (Nation 2006). Our rationale was that if the most
7 frequent words are so important, then surely the collocations around these words
8 must be important as well. So, in order to investigate collocations which would be
9 useful for learners (but also not to replicate Shin and Nation's (op.cit.)), we focused
10 on collocations forming around words from the 2,000 frequency level. We created a
11 stratified sample of ten nouns (every 100th noun) from this level for a detailed
12 analysis: 'block', 'conflict', 'drawer', 'furniture', 'knee', 'nose', 'pupil', 'shame', 'ticket',
13 and 'zero'. As our investigation required a time-consuming manual analysis, it was
14 impractical to include all possible collocations for each noun. We thus limited
15 ourselves to the three most common verb + noun collocations and the three most
16 common adjective + noun collocations, since these seem to be the most challenging
17 combinations (Grant 2005) and are therefore the most commonly researched. It is
18 also useful for teachers to be aware of which collocation types, and which
19 collocations are most complex, in order that they can be targeted for instruction.
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32 These combinations were subject to several additional criteria. First, because it is
33 unclear how well learners recognize collocations that are non-adjacent ('confirm
34 findings': confirm the very surprising findings), we focused mainly on adjacent
35 collocations. Second, we wanted to analyse the collocations for meaning, and so did
36 not include delexicalized verbs in the verb + noun sample (for example 'to have a
37 shower'), as their meaning depends on the meaning of the word they collocate with.
38 Finally, Mutual Information (MI) is a statistic considered to be an important
39 indicator of the strength of the link between two words, and so we only selected
40 collocations with an MI score of 3 or above.⁴
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49 For each target collocation, we aimed at analysing one hundred concordance lines at
50 a time (see below). In some cases there were fewer lines, and those collocations
51 with fewer than five lines were excluded from the study. This resulted in the six
52 verb collocations for 'drawer' and 'pupil' being omitted. Our final set of 54
53 collocations displayed a range of frequencies (5–844) and MI (3.00–15.46) in the
54 COCA corpus (see Table 1 for examples). Our sample is admittedly modest, but
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should be sufficient to give an initial indication of the extent of Literal, Figurative, and Duplex collocations that learners are likely to come across.

Sampled nouns	Adjective + noun collocations	Verb + noun collocations
Conflict	Armed conflict	To avoid conflict
	Ethnic conflict	To resolve conflict
	Potential conflict	To manage conflict
Furniture	New furniture	To buy furniture
	Antique furniture	To sell furniture
	Old furniture	To move furniture
Ticket	One-way ticket	To buy ticket
	Speeding ticket	To purchase ticket
	Hot ticket	To afford ticket

Table 1 The most common adjective + noun and verb + noun collocations

Procedure

The first author analysed one hundred concordance lines for each target collocation, or as many lines as were available. Each line was tagged for literal meaning or figurative meaning. For example, it was clear that the first of the following corpus extracts (Extract 1) was a literal meaning (= a ticket in one direction), while the second (Extract 2) was a figurative one (= an irrevocable action).

Extract 1

But what really worried him was the suspiciously low one-way ticket—priced

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4 at \$92.60—on an airline he had barely heard of.
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7 Extract 2
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10 Even if your locale has frigid winters or simmering summers, the weather
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12 needn't be a one-way ticket to slothdom.
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16 In order to assure accuracy of the categorization, around 20 per cent of the target
17 collocations were given to a second rater who was asked to rate the collocations
18 without seeing the first rater's judgements. The two raters reached a high interrater
19 reliability of nearly 96 per cent agreement.
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23 Results 24

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26 The results of the analysis show that the majority of our collocations, both verb +
27 noun and adjective + noun types, are literal collocations. Out of the 54 target
28 collocations, 42 were literal collocations (77.8 per cent). For example, a 'left knee'
29 literally means 'the left joint between the thigh and the lower leg' (see Extract 3).
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35 Extract 3
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38 ... help him recover more quickly and effectively from arthroscopic surgery
39 performed Sunday on his left knee.
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43 Based on our modest data set, it seems that the majority of collocations fit the
44 typical 'word partner' view, with two literal meanings that can be essentially added
45 together (A + B).
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49 The results also indicate that a very small number (two collocations: 3.7 per cent) of
50 our sample collocations had figurative meaning only. One must be cautious in
51 interpreting a category with only two collocations, but our results do suggest that
52 collocations do not generally seem to be completely figurative, although in a few
53 cases they are, for example a 'big ticket' relates to 'something being expensive; a
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4 major expense' rather than a physically large ticket (Extract 4).
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7 Extract 4
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10 We're seeing the people a lot more confident making a big purchase so they're
11 not as afraid to come in and buy something out, a big ticket like this ...
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15 While few collocations seem to be wholly idiomatic, ten collocations (18.5 per cent)
16 had the characteristics of Duplex collocations, i.e. they can have both literal and
17 figurative meanings. For example, the collocation 'big nose'⁵ literally means 'a nose
18 that is big in size', but it also refers to a 'strong aroma'. Extracts 5 and 6 show the
19 different meaning senses:
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24 Extract 5
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28 She was young. Maybe twenty-five. A big nose but otherwise pretty. (Literal)
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31 Extract 6
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34 ... The color is wonderful—the lightest clear amber—with streams of tiny
35 bubbles rising to the surface. The taste is dry and just pleasantly alcoholic. The
36 fragrance is what I think winemakers would describe as a 'big nose.' It is an
37 unalloyed delight. (Figurative)
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43 Overall, the two types of collocation with non-literal meanings (Figurative and
44 Duplex collocations) combined to make up 22.2 per cent of the total sample. This
45 means that over one-fifth of the sample collocations had one or more figurative
46 meaning senses. Thus, while the majority of collocations conformed to a literal A + B
47 pattern, a substantial percentage did not (Figure 1). It is also interesting that even
48 though Figurative collocations appear to be rare, Duplex collocations seem to be
49 relatively common.
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Discussion

Teachers have been encouraged to teach collocations, and the most widely used activity has been noticing how two known words typically combine together (Lewis 1993). In his Lexical Approach, Lewis (*ibid.*) suggests that learners should be encouraged to notice recurring lexical chunks in the L2 input they receive. But what about collocations with figurative meanings? Most textbooks conceptualize collocations as co-occurring 'word partners' (i.e. our Literal collocations) where learners need to deal with the literal meanings of the words comprising the collocation, and merely recognize the affinity between these words. If most collocations are actually Literal collocations, then the focus on co-occurrence without a further semantic analysis is a reasonable approach. However, if a substantial percentage of collocations are Figurative or Duplex, then some additional attention to their meaning seems necessary.. As for collocations, to the best of our knowledge, our admittedly modest study is the first to suggest the scope of occurrence of each collocation type.

According to the results of our study, therefore, by far the most numerous types were Literal collocations, making up about three-quarters of our small sample. This would suggest that the vast majority of collocations can be taught as literal A + B combinations. There were very few Figurative collocations and this finding is similar to Grant's (*op.cit.*) study in which she has looked at the extent of 'core idioms' in various sources and found that only 103 idioms were truly 'core'. In contrast, Duplex collocations, with both literal and figurative meanings, made up nearly one-fifth of our target collocations. So, is this enough to necessitate teachers considering figurative meanings when they instruct collocations? We would argue that it is: the percentage of Figurative and Duplex collocations appears to be substantial, and cannot be written off and ignored as peripheral behaviour.

An important property of formulaic sequences is their figurativeness. The three categories of collocations clearly differ in terms of their meaning characteristics, and this implies that they might need to be addressed differently in teaching pedagogy. One way of thinking about this is to consider whether receptive or productive

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4 knowledge of a collocation is required. Let us first take the case of receptive
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6 knowledge where the collocation needs to be recognized and understood in reading
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8 or listening. There is probably little need to worry about Literal collocations, or the
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10 literal meaning senses of Duplex collocations, as learners should be able to
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12 understand the meaning(s) of the two component words and how they come
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14 together. We might speculate that knowing the collocations could add to reading
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16 fluency, but probably would not aid comprehension to any great degree. However,
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18 for Figurative collocations and the figurative meanings of Duplex collocations, the
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20 meaning is opaque and unlikely to be understood.

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22 If productive knowledge is required, then collocation knowledge becomes more
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24 crucial, as learners are required to produce language of their own volition. While
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26 meaning can be expressed in many ways, it is well known that skillful use of
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28 collocation is one of the factors that distinguishes proficient language use. So,
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30 knowledge of Literal collocations and the literal meaning senses of Duplex
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32 collocations is especially important for appropriacy. However, for the expression of
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34 certain meanings, knowledge of Figurative collocations and the figurative meanings
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36 of Duplex collocations is highly advantageous. This is because they express
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38 idiosyncratic and opaque meanings that are tied to specific situations. For example,
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40 the collocation 'big nose' does not only figuratively mean a 'strong aroma', but it also
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42 belongs almost exclusively to the world of wine tasting.

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44 This discussion leads to the conclusion that collocations need to be approached in
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46 two different ways depending on their category. Literal collocations and the literal
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48 meaning senses of Duplex collocations require knowledge of their co-occurrence
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50 patterns. Most collocation exercises and activities to date have attempted to
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52 enhance learner awareness of this patterning, and so this need is already beginning
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54 to be addressed. On the other hand, Figurative collocations and the figurative
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56 meanings of Duplex collocations require knowledge of their idiosyncratic meanings.
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58 This leads to the question of how these might best be taught. Martinez (2013),
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60 proposed a framework (the Frequency-Transparency Framework or FTF) that
would help teachers choose which multi-word expressions should be targeted for
explicit instruction. According to this framework, if there are two, highly frequent

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4 phrases of similar frequency but different degrees of semantic transparency, the
5 more opaque expression should be prioritized. If two phrases are infrequent but one
6 of them is transparent and the other one is opaque, the opaque one should be
7 explicitly taught as such phrases may be a barrier to successful comprehension.
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9 Martinez emphasizes, though, that this framework works only if frequency is
10 measured in a way which reflects the needs of the learners. For example, if learners
11 are enrolled on a flying course, then the vocabulary related to that specific area
12 should be regarded as 'frequent' for that particular group of students.
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19 Furthermore, there is some limited evidence that teaching verb-noun collocations
20 holistically has advantages over teaching them with matching exercises (Boers,
21 Demelcheleer, Coxhead, and Webb 2014). This is mainly because in the holistic
22 approach, learners are less prone to make incorrect verb-noun associations (as is
23 the case with 'underline the correct verb' exercises).
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28 These approaches have been discussed here to help ELT practitioners visualize
29 what seems to be an effective way of teaching figurative meanings. Instead of
30 breaking collocations down into component parts, a more sensible approach is to
31 present them as intact wholes since there seems to be more learning. How to
32 present the literal and figurative meanings of Duplex collocations, and whether they
33 should be taught in conjunction with each other, are also interesting questions.
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35 Boers' (2000) work on metaphors suggests that there might be value in teaching
36 figurative collocation meanings through some form of linguistic analysis and
37 analogy because enhancing learners' metaphor awareness may facilitate retention
38 of unknown figurative language. For example, the 'excellent quality' meaning of 'top
39 drawer' might be explained by some analogy that things in the top drawer of a
40 dresser are usually good, and/or the metaphorical theme that HIGHER→BETTER.
41
42 Therefore, activities in which learners are asked to group figurative expressions
43 under general metaphoric themes (for example 'to tighten the screws' under
44 MACHINERY) or explain the figurative meaning of a collocation by using metaphors
45 (for example 'to hit the roof' may be explained in terms of ANGER) may be a good
46 start. However, teachers must be aware that some collocations are opaque and
47 hence not easy to imagine. In this case a more direct, explicit approach seems a
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4 sensible option.

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6 Furthermore, regardless of their type (either Duplex or Figurative), some
7 collocations, when used figuratively, form part of bigger lexical chunks or act as
8 modifiers. For example, in the majority of cases, the collocation 'big ticket' is used
9 with the noun 'item' (for example 'The report says that NASA's new budget could
10 hurt the future of space science by cutting spending on small programs to pay for
11 big ticket items'). Despite this, the figurative meaning of 'big ticket' and other similar
12 collocations as chunks of language does not change, no matter whether or not they
13 are part of bigger phrases. Of course, this can be seen only if the collocations are
14 embedded in the context. The upshot is that teachers should not become too
15 'narrowly focused' on the two-word limit. They should be aware that two-word
16 collocations might not necessarily be the end of phraseology, and that the meaning
17 of collocations can sometimes be connected to the meaning of a longer phrase.
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21 Unfortunately, it is unclear whether current textbooks have a principled approach to
22 teaching different types of collocations, hence teachers will still need to think about
23 their own teaching approaches. The first step is realizing that collocations are not all
24 the same in terms of meaning. In addition to the possible teaching approaches
25 discussed above, some additional guidelines based on the results of this study may
26 prove useful for teachers.
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- 1 Make learners aware of the existence of the three types of collocations.
 - 2 Make use of corpora and show learners how figurative meanings are used in context and what longer phrases (if any) they form part of.

47 For example, by reading the concordance line below and paying attention to
48 the surrounding context, learners can clearly see that 'top drawer' is used
49 figuratively:
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53 ... KOTB: What about Angelina Jolie? She's always in the top drawer, isn't
54 she?
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4 Mr KARGER: Of course. She played Mariane Pearl in 'The Mighty Heart' this
5 summer and did a great job in that, and now she's in 'Beowulf',
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10 Another option would be to present both literal and figurative meaning
11 senses of the same collocation in context and ask learners to decide when the
12 collocation in question is used literally or figuratively.
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17 **3** Teach learners to successfully guess from context, as context will determine
18 whether a collocation is used literally or figuratively (this is of course only
19 possible when learners know the majority of words in a text). For beginners,
20 teachers giving clues might be a better approach.
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25 **4** Encourage learners to make use of specialized collocation dictionaries, for
26 example the Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English or the
27 Longman Collocations Dictionary and Thesaurus for Intermediate-Advanced
28 Learners.
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33 Cautions and caveats 34

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36 It is important to be careful when interpreting the results of this exploratory study.
37 First of all, our sample is small. However, it is an initial indication of the existence of
38 Figurative and Duplex collocations, and teachers should become familiar with the
39 different types of collocations. The best way to interpret the reported percentages is
40 as being indicative in nature only. Only further research with larger and more varied
41 samples of collocations (also using different identification criteria) will be able to
42 show how these figures need to be adjusted.
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49 Moreover, teachers have to be careful when working with these collocation
50 categories as they are not always clear-cut. The reality is fuzzy because so many
51 different factors come into play: the learner's L1, how rich the context is, metaphor
52 awareness, etc. Despite this, collocation meanings can differ and collocations are not
53 only 'literal'.
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4 Caution is also necessary in the case of Literal collocations because some of them
5 may have more than one meaning sense. Even though they follow the A + B pattern,
6 their accurate interpretation, for example in case of the collocation 'take a break',
7 will depend on the learner's existing understanding that 'take' can also mean 'have'
8 and that 'break' also refers to 'rest'.
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13 Finally, the reported 18.5 per cent figure is representative of Duplex collocations
14 across the whole corpus. However, teachers should not assume that these
15 collocations will be equally distributed across the different sub-corpora, but instead
16 understand that certain collocations will be more likely found in specific genres.
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21 22 Conclusion

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24 Collocations have been widely acknowledged as important in language learning and
25 use. The results of this study suggest that a substantial percentage of them have
26 figurative meanings. This indicates that collocations cannot be seen as merely the
27 co-occurrence of words. With collocations, just as with individual words, meaning
28 matters.
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35 Final version received March 2016
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38 Notes

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41 1 Collocations are defined differently depending on research purpose and
42 theoretical orientation. Some authors would refer to Figurative collocations and
43 Duplex collocations as idioms (for example Moon 1998).
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47 Also, the relative ease with which a collocation is interpretable does not solely
48 depend on the semantic properties of the item itself. If the speaker, for example,
49 already has awareness that 'top' metaphorically maps on to 'best' or 'first' (for
50 example 'top choice'), or that 'hot' maps on to 'popular' (for example 'hot topic'),
51 then these items should be more easily understood.
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57 2 A number of scholars have explored the interaction between patterning and
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4 meaning (for example Granger and Paquot 2008), but most textbooks and
5 pedagogical discussion seem to focus mainly on the patterning aspect of collocation.
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9 3 The term 'polysemous' can denote different types of polysemy. For example,
10 polysemous in the case of collocations could mean 'more than one literal meaning'
11 or 'more than one figurative meaning'. In this study, however, we focus on
12 'polysemous' as referring to 'one literal and one figurative meaning'.
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16 4 Mutual Information (MI) is a statistic which shows how strongly one word
17 collocates with another. For example, 'nice' collocates with many words ('nice day',
18 'nice smile', 'nice car') and so would have a low MI score. 'Tectonic' only occurs with
19 a few words (mainly 'plates'), so has a high MI score. An MI of 3 is often given as the
20 minimum score to be considered a collocation.
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26 5 MI score: 3.84
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Figure 1 Percentages of Literal collocations, Figurative collocations, and Duplex collocations

