CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

To support analysis, this chapter reviews several theories related to this research. Those are collocation, the usage of collocation, categorization of collocation and lexical collocation.

2.1 Collocation

Collocation was acquainted by Firth (1957) to describe a combination of words that associated with each other. Collocation is one of five dimensions of meaning (phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic and semantic). He also wrote phrase “you shall know a word by the company it keeps”. Sinclair (1991) broke new ground with his suggestions that word combinations are not random and that they make an important contribution to the organization of language, while Hoey (1991) contends that collocation plays an important role in lexical cohesion. Collocation is also defined as arbitrarily restricted two or more lexeme combination that form a whole meaning (Lewis 1997). It examines how language learners (L2) to get understanding and to acquiring collocation word and pattern formed. Gledhill (2000) stated that collocations are fundamental units in texts, that they validate the existence of discourse communities, and that they are subconscious efforts to appropriate in discipline norms. Thus, Stubbs (2002) also stated that there are semantic relations between the node and collocates.

The same thought is emphasized by Leech (1974) but in different words. Leech (1974) stated that one level of the meaning of a word is the result of
the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment. Meanwhile, Ghazala (2006) argued that collocations are words which are usually found next to other words, or are ‘co-located’ with one another. But, all of the definitions above the focus is placed on lexical collocation rather than grammatical collocation.

2.2 The Usage of Collocation

There are several reasons the importance of the usage of collocation. One reason is that collocations help learners use language, both with the development of fluency and like native.

For developing fluency, Pawley and Syder (1983) argued that there are hundreds of thousands of ‘lexicalized sentence stems’ that adult native speakers have at their disposal, and suggest that the second language learner might need a similar number for native-like fluency. So, the chunked expressions allow learners to reduce cognitive effort, to save processing time, and to have language available for immediate use.

Meanwhile, Pawley and Syder (1983) also argued that there is usually more than one possible way to saying something but only one or two of these ways sound natural like a native speaker of the language. For example, ‘let me off here’ can also be expressed as ‘halt the car’. The second sentence is strictly grammatical, but the problem is that native speakers do not say it in that way. This unnatural language use is problematical for learners in EFL contexts where the focus is on grammar. They
may produce grammatically correct sentences, but many of them may not sound like native. For example, drawing on their first language, Korean students are likely to say ‘lying story’ for ‘tall story’, ‘artificial teeth’ for ‘false teeth’, ‘thick tea’ for ‘strong tea’, etc.

Collocation in academic writing also attracted interest recently. Many writers provided the importance of collocation, collocation has been called an essential organizing principle of language in use (Schmitt & Carter 2004). Gledhill (2000) stated that collocations are fundamental units in texts, that they convinced the existence of discourse communities, and that they are subconscious efforts that took a part in discipline norms.

Hoey (1991) stated that collocation has an important role in lexical cohesion. Hoey (2007) examined some evidence through an analysis of the collocates of “sixty”, “60”, “forty”, and “40” in a corpus of The Guardian newspaper text. Hoey (2007) concluded that his analysis of these lexical units provides some evidence for such priming and for the unexpected decisions made by writers.

Gledhill (2000) analyzed salient words which he defined as words that occur significantly more often in one text or part of a text than another, though the research is not confined to nouns. He reported collocations in his Pharmaceutical Corpus of 150 RAs from 22 cancer and pharmacology journals, though not focusing on nouns. Some example collocations were “patients who had tumors” and “both accelerate and delay”.

Ward (2007) examined common nouns and their collocations in Chemical Engineering textbooks, and compares the collocation frequency that found in four other engineering disciplines. The three most common nouns were “gas”, “liquid”, and “heat”. Ward asserts that while collocations are certainly discipline specific, this is not true of individual words. He observes that the important phrase is not “gas” but “gas +” and that collocations are a threshold to discipline membership.

Peacock (2012) analyzed the distribution of the high-frequency collocates of abstract nouns in 320 research articles across eight disciplines: Chemistry, Computer Science, Materials Science, Neuroscience, Economics, Language and Linguistics, Management, and Psychology. The result of this research showed that the collocations express different terminology, different topics, different research methods, and different content of discussions across the eight disciplines. In this case, these collocations are very important part of the meanings, and therefore of the functions, of these nouns. It was also evident that these meanings and functions often differ by discipline, and that these meanings and functions are expressed by the collocations.

So, those researches explain how different topics, different articles can influence type of collocation itself. And also show what the most usage collocation word in types of articles. In addition of analysis of this study, the writer also uses the concept of different collocation in different themes by Peacock (2012). Thus, researcher shows how the usage of all types of lexical collocations on each types articles in *The Jakarta Post newspaper* through this research.
2.3 Categorization of Collocation

Hsueh (2008) stated, classification of collocation has been divided into two kinds. According to Benson (1986) collocation can be divided into two main groups, lexical collocation and grammatical collocation.

2.3.1 Grammatical Collocation

Grammatical collocation is made up of a dominant word, such as a noun, an adjective, or a verb, and a preposition or grammatical structure like an infinitive or a clause. Grammatical collocation categorized the grammatical collocations into eight groups, marked as G1 to G8. Thus, G8 collocations contained nineteen English verb patterns. (Benson 1986).

i. G1. Noun + preposition

Example: Apathy toward

ii. G2. Noun + to infinitive

Example: He was a fool to do it.

iii. G3. Noun + that + clause

Example: He took an oath that he would do his duty

iv. G4. Preposition + noun

Example: in advance, at anchor

v. G5. Adjective + preposition

Example: They are afraid of him.
vi. **G6. Predicate adjective + to infinitive**

Example: It was stupid for them to go.

vii. **G7. Adjective + that + clause**

Example: She was afraid that she would fail the exam.

viii. **G8. There are 19 patterns:**

- Subject + verb + object + to object (or) subject + verb + object + object
  
  He sent a book to his brother. He sent his brother a book.

- Subject + verb + object + to + object
  
  They described the book to her.

- Subject + verb + object + for + object (or) subject + verb + object + object
  
  She bought a shirt for her husband. (or) She bought her husband a shirt.

- Subject + verb + preposition + object (or) subject + verb + object + preposition + object
  
  He came by train. (or) We invited them to the meeting.

- Subject + verb + to infinitive
  
  They began to speak.

- Subject + verb + infinitive
  
  He had better go.

- Subject + verb + verb-ing
  
  They enjoy watching television.

- Subject + verb + object + to infinitive
She asks me to come.

- Subject + verb + object + infinitive

She heard them leave.

- Subject + verb + object + verb-ing

I caught them stealing apples.

- Subject + verb+ possessive + verb-ing

Please excuse my waking you so early.

- Subject + verb + (object) + that + clause

They admitted that they were wrong.

- Subject verb+ object + to + be + compound

We consider her to be very capable.

- Subject + verb + object + compound

She dyed her hair red.

- Subject + verb + object + object

We bet her ten pounds.

- Subject + verb + (object) + adverbial

He carried himself well.

- Subject + verb + (object) + wh-word

He wants what I want.

- Subject(it) + verb + object+ to infinitive (or) subject(it) + verb + object + that-clause
It surprised me to learn of her decision. It surprised me that our offer was rejected.

- Subject + verb + compound (adjective or noun)

She was enthusiastic. The flowers smell nice.

2.3.2 Lexical Collocation

Lexical collocation is made up of nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs. There are seven types of lexical collocations, marked as L1 to L7 (Benson 1986):

L1. **Verb (donating creation or activation) + noun (pronoun or prep. phrase)**

This type is consist of a verb denoting creation or activation and a noun/ a pronoun.

Example (denoting creation): come to an agreement, compose a music
Example (denoting activation): set an alarm, launch a missile

However, not all verbs denoting creation and activation can be considered collacable to any nouns. Combinations of verbs, such as build, cause, cook, make, prepare, etc + nouns are limitless, their meanings are predictable. Therefore these combinations are not considered as collocations.

L2. **Verb (meaning eradication or nullification) + noun**

This type is combination between verb (nullification) and noun.

Example: revoke a license, demolish a house, annul a marriage, reject an appeal, withdraw an offer.
Some verbs denoting similar meaning and that can be used with large number nouns are considered as free combination. For example the verb *destroy* can combine with almost any nouns denoting physical objects.

**L3. Adjective + noun**

This type is combination between adjective and noun. Thus, more than one adjective can collocate with same noun.

Example: strong coffee, a rough estimate, strong/weak tea, kind/best regards

**L4. Noun + verb**

This type is combination between noun and verb. It means the verbs names an action characteristic of the person or things designated by the noun.

Example: bees buzz, bombs explode, alarms go off, ceasefire agreement

**L5. Noun + noun or Noun + of + noun**

This type is combination between noun and noun. Or the lexical collocation which indicates the unit that is associated with a noun.

Example: a pack of dogs, a herd of buffalo, a bit of advice

**L6. Adjective + adverb or adverb + adjective**

This type is combination between adjective and adverb, or when adverb combine with adjective.

Example: sound asleep, hopelessly addicted, deeply absorbed, closely acquainted

**L7. Verb + adverb**

The last type is combination between verb combines and adverb.

Example: anchor firmly, argue heatedly