CHAPTER II

This chapter give important background information for the discussion of related literature. The researcher is going to describe some theories. The discussion consist of : (1) Collocation (2) English for Specific Purpose. (3) Previous of Related Study

2.1 Collocation

2.1.1 Definition of Collocation

Collocation is one of five dimensions (phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic and semantic) of language. Sinclair (1991) has broken new ground with his suggestions that word combinations are not random and make a significant contribution to language organization, while Hoey (1991) argues that collocation plays a significant role in lexical cohesion. Collocation is also defined as two or more lexemic combinations arbitrarily restricted, forming an entire meaning (Lewis, 1997). It examines how language learners (L2) are formed in order to gain understanding and to acquire the word and pattern of collocation. Gledhill (2000) argued that collocations are fundamental units in texts, that they validate the existence of discourse communities, and that they are subconscious efforts to adapt the norms of discipline. Therefore, Stubbs (2002) also claimed that there are semantic associations between the node and the collocates.

Leech (1974) discusses the same idea, but in different words. Leech (1974) claimed that one aspect of a word's meaning is the product of connections that a word acquires because of the meaning of words that tend to occur in its surroundings. While, Ghazala (2006) proposed that collocations are terms that are usually found next to or' co-located' with each other. Yet, instead of grammatical collocation, all the meanings above the emphasis are put on lexical collocation.

According to Benson et al (2010), collocation is an analysis of the word combination that has fixed-combination and repeated combination that exists throughout all languages around the world, specifically in English. Thus, based on the above statement, collocation is seen to be two words that usually go together, so we can't separate them since these words have a fixed combination. For example, there is "powerful engine" as a collocation, according to McCarthy & O'Dell (2005). In that form, word engine commonly collocates with powerful not with strong although words powerful and strong have same meaning.

If we try to replace the word "powerful" with "strong" then we collocate with engine, it will sound unnatural for native speaker because engine has fixed to collocate with powerful. McCarthy & O'Dell (2005) supports this idea, a pair of words might not be absolutely wrong because people will understand what is implied, but as a typical collocation, it may not be common. For example, if someone said I did a

few mistakes they will be understood but a fluent English speaker will probably say I made a few mistakes. Furthermore, the forms of collocation will be described in the section below.

2.1.2 The Importance of Collocation

According to Manning (1999) collocations are important for a number of applications:

- a. Natural language generation (to make sure that the output sounds natural and mistakes like powerful tea or to take a decision are avoided)
- b. Computational lexicography (to automatically identify the important collocations to be listed in a dictionary entry)
- c. Parsing (so that preference can be given to parses with natural collocations)
- d. Corpus linguistic research (for instance, the study of social phenomena like the reinforcement of cultural stereotypes through language)

2.1.3 Type of Collocation

According to Benson (1986) collocation can be divided into two main groups, lexical collocation and grammatical collocation.

2.1.3.1 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).

1) G1. Noun + preposition

Example: Apathy toward

2) G2. Noun + to infinitive

Example: He was a fool to do it.

3) G3. Noun + that + clause

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

4) G4. Preposition + noun

Example: in advance, at anchor

5) G5. Adjective + preposition

Example: They are afraid of him.

6) G6. Predicate adjective + to infinitive

Example: It was stupid for them to go.

7) G7. Adjective + that + clause

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

8) G8. There are 19 patterns:

a) Subject + verb + object + to object (or) subject + verb + object + object

Example: He sent a book to his brother. He sent his brother a book.

b) Subject + verb + object + to + object

Example: They described the book to her.

c) Subject + verb + object + for + object (or) subject + verb + object + object

Example: She bought a shirt for her husband. (or) She bought her husband a shirt.

d) Subject + verb + preposition + object (or) subject + verb + object +

preposition + object

Example: He came by train. (or) We invited them to the meeting.

e) Subject + verb+ to infinitive

Example: They began to speak.

f) Subject + verb + infinitive

Example: He had better go.

g) Subject + verb + verb-ing

Example: They enjoy watching television.

h) Subject + verb + object + to infinitive

Example: She asks me to come.

i) Subject + verb + object + infinitive

Example: She heard them leave.

j) Subject + verb + object + verb-ing Example: I caught them stealing apples. k) Subject + verb+ possessive + verb-ing Example: Please excuse my waking you so early. 1) Subject + verb + (object) + that + clause Example: They admitted that they were wrong. m)Subject verb+ object + to + be + compound Example: We consider her to be very capable. n) Subject + verb + object + compound Example: She dyed her hair red. o) Subject + verb + object + object Example: We bet her ten pounds. p) Subject + verb + (object) + adverbial Example: He carried himself well. q) Subject + verb + (object) + wh-word

Example: He wants what I want.

r) Subject(it) + verb + object+ to infinitive (or) subject(it) + verb + object
+ that- clause

Example: It surprised me to learn of her decision. It surprised me that our offer was rejected.

s) Subject + verb + compound (adjective or noun)

Example: She was enthusiastic. The flowers smell nice.

2.1.3.2 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, set an alarm, launch a missile

2) 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, with draw 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.

3) 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

4) 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

5) 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

6) 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

7) L7. Verb + adverb

The last type is combination between verb combines and adverb. Example: anchor firmly, argue heatedly

2.1.3.3 Collocation Tools

To help second language writers achieve accurate and fluent collocation production in their written work, researchers believe that second language writers should take advantage of learner-friendly collocation tools: online, electronic, or hard copy resources/dictionaries designed for language learners (Nurmukhamedov, 2016). In some studies, online corpus tools were used as an alternative to collocation dictionaries and were found to be helpful for collocation production.

Brezina et al (2015) recently developed the tool GraphColl that introduces a new dimension to corpus-based analysis of collocation, plotting networks between multiple words, rather than simply showing associations between two words at a time, as most common corpus tools do. The advantage of using GraphColl is thus not only the efficiency with which it builds collocation networks on the fly, but also its potential to uncover a dimension of linguistic and social research that would otherwise remain unexplored.

According to Baker (2016), the creation of the tool GraphColl literally adds a new dimension to collocation, both theoretically and methodologically. The collocational network approach resulted in a richer analysis than that carried out by using a traditional approach to collocation. Collocational networks, and in particular the different types of graphs which are suggestive of certain relationships between multiple words, are therefore a useful way forward for corpus linguistics research.

2.2 English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

2.2.1 Definition of English for Specific Purpose (ESP)

English for specific purposes (ESP) is teaching English that is relevant with the students' area. The word "specific" shows special linguistic needs in learning English and special area as aim why the students learning English. Therefore, ESP course tries to facilitate the students in learning English to support them in all activities in special area. Basturkmen (2010) stated that ESP is understood as preparing the learners to use English in their academic, professional, or workplace environment.4 ESP concern on narrower topic to guide the students establish needed ability to communicate effectively in target area.

2.2.2 The Presence of ESP in English Language Teaching

In English language teaching, there are three categories that determine the condition of the students, either they learn English as Foreign Language, English as Second Language, or English as mother tongue. Here, ESP is able to exist in the part of either English as foreign language or English as second language that offers three different categories that focus on students' specialism, they are English for Science and Technology, English for the Social and Sciences, and English for Business and Economics. Each of the them points out two main types that regard ESP students require English for academic study (EAP) or English for work or training (EOP: English for Occupational Purposes).

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that the existence of ESP in English language teaching was caused by usage of English in broad fields, English for Science and Technology, English for the Social and Sciences, and English for Business and Economics, that demand students to master English as tool to communicate in each field. So that, ESP tries to help students master English in each field by providing appropriate English material.

2.2.3 Objectives in Teaching ESP

Basturkmen (2010) stated that there are five broad objectives in teaching ESP that must be reached:

- a. To reveal subject-specific language use: This objective focuses on how English is used in the target situation and decides what knowledge should be imparted to the learners.
- b. To develop target performance competencies: the aim is to develop the learners' skill in language to perform the activities in target situation. Teaching and learning process have to concern with what the learners should do toward language and what skills needed to present the language.
- c. To teach underlying knowledge: Basturkmen (2010) argued that teaching ESP is not only about linguistic proficiency but also about the knowledge of field of work or study. The learners need to understand disciplinary concept as well as the language skill.
- d. To develop strategic competence: According to Basturkmen (2010), "strategic competence is the link between context of situation and language knowledge" it also can be defined as the way to communicate efficiently.
- e. To foster critical awareness: In target situation, the learners will face the norms of target situation. This situation demands them to aware and understand the target language (in this case, English), behaviors, or knowledge to act properly. In teaching, the teacher has to increase the learners' critical awareness. It can be realized by discussing how norms and communication practices in target situation can be build. Stren's classification in Basturkmen (2010) stated that "this objective can be linked to the cultural knowledge and affective objectives."

The objectives of teaching ESP create a dare for teacher and syllabus designer to provide a course in order to reach the objectives above because to provide a course a teacher and syllabus design have to consider what material must be given, students' condition including learning style to decide learning strategy, school condition such as facilitation, etc.

2.3 Previous of Related Study

The researcher refers to some previous research that is relevant to the topic in compiling this study. Lubis (2013) conducted a research to explore wrong English collocations made by Indonesian English learners and to find out the causes of the wrong collocations. After comparing the occurrences of English collocations and Indonesian collocations, it is observed that the inaccurate English collocations are due to four causes: (1) lack of knowledge of collocation by learners, (2) discrepancies in collocation between English and Bahasa Indonesia, (3) poor consistency in vocabulary by learners and (4) heavy intervention in the native language of learners. It is suggested that students should be advised that collocation, like grammar, is one aspect of not only English but of all other languages that should be learned, as vocabulary skills can contribute to the construction of correct collocations.

The study conducted by Alotaibi et al (2015) focused on the capability of Kuwaiti EFL learners to identify and obtain grammatical collocations in English. The study also explored how their level of English comprehension and the form of grammatical collocation affect their interpretation and the development of such collocations. The results showed that the main reason for grammatical collocation errors were found to be literal translation from Arabic. Prepositions in Arabic do not usually correspond to their English counterparts, e.g. in "angry at," which is literally translated as "angry from" in Arabic. Eventually, the lack of knowledge of grammatical collocations is also an important reason for such mistakes.

Shitu (2015) conducted analysis on collocation errors in English as Second Language (ESL) essay writing of Federal College of Education, Kano, North-West Nigeria students. Results of the study indicate similarities as well as regular and repeated errors resulting in a pattern. Based on the pattern identified, the conclusion is that the collocation errors of the students are attributable to poor teaching and learning resulting in incorrect rule generalization.