

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the related literature and the theories concerning to the notions of collocations. Relevant ideas involving advertisements and the research studies on collocation are also mentioned in this chapter.

Advertising

Wells, Burnett, and Moriarty (2000, p. 11) claimed that advertising tries to achieve the goals by performing three basic functions: Providing product and brand information, providing incentives to take action and providing reminders and reinforcement. In the first function, giving information related to products also will help with decision-making. The main function of advertising is giving information depends on the needs of the consumers; for example, in the case of purchasing a new suit, consumers might need information about the price and shop location. In the second function, providing motivation to take action, some consumers are unwilling to change products, so if a new brand does not advertise, it is difficult to get information about the new product. Therefore, a new company should advertise itself and provide good reasons to the consumers, such as the quality, lower price or warranties, etc. The last function is providing reminders and reinforcement;



an advertisement must remind the consumer about the name of brand, its benefits and its value. The same message helps support the consumer's decision. In modern culture, advertising is everywhere, such as on billboards, in newspapers and magazines, and on radio and television. The obvious purpose of advertising is to inform consumers about services and products. In newspapers, in particular, there are several types of advertising, and the style and wording depend on the advertisers' strategies; they create message in order to persuade consumers to buy products or to choose their offered service.

Persuasion

All advertisers use language in order to persuade, for in advertising. Most advertisers are not only providing consumers with information about a product, but they also tend to convince consumers to buy their brand instead of any other. O'Keefe (2002) characterized persuasion as an attempt to influence others by changing their beliefs, values or attitude. In daily life, human tend to persuade other people several times in different situations, such as in the work place or school, etc. When persuasion is employed in the office, they try to persuade their boss that they are hardworking and honest, then they deserve a promotion. In the property advertisement text and business content, the word *reachable* and the phrase *join us for special offer* are the parts that show persuasion.

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Reachable at the new modern & luxury living starting for 15.5MB discounted to 13.99MB. Proudly presenting 3 new modern contemporary designs in a sophisticated environment next to the business center on Soi Pattanakarn 69, 26-27th June. *Join us for special offer* at the party “I Love You More”. (p. 2)

Furthermore, McCarthy, (1990) stated that advertising language and other sorts of persuasive language often use marked or unusual collocations, as shown in the following sample:

Singapore airlines, a *great way* to fly, extraordinary Australia journeys. Exceptional value. Come explore Australia—a country of *huge contrasts*. Breathtaking beauty and unforgettable adventure. You won’t just fall in love with Australia. You’ll live it. Book your next flight through our appointed agents. (p. 14)

In the sample, the advertiser used the word *great* (meaning *very good*) collocated with *way*. They may use *good* or *excellent* to replace the word *great*, but advertisers tend to persuade consumers by using superior words to show that theirs is better than other airlines. Also, the word *huge* means very big, and it can be replaced by the word *big*, which is its synonym. In this content, the advertiser wants to arouse the consumers’ imagination and emotion with the use of the word *huge* to show that Australia is absolutely different from other countries. Also, the advertiser gave a reason to support the idea that Australia is better than other countries. Thus, most advertisers use persuasive language as a tool of persuasion.

Language in Advertising

Jamieson and Campbell (2001, p. 182) pointed out that the messages of newspaper advertisers are more believable and persuasive than the news reports, which is why the charges for advertising space are high for good positioning. Moreover, Hirschberg and Hirschberg (1999, p. 464) mentioned that advertisements are designed to verify the superiority of the product in the minds of the audience and to create a characteristic image for the product. They also suggested that the most important technique to create images in the audience's mind is to transfer ideas, attributes, or feelings from outside the product into the product itself. In addition, the transfer of such idea, attributes and feelings can be managed in two ways: (1) to encourage the audience to discover meanings and to correlate feelings and attributes that allow needs and desires to become attached to the products, and (2) to prevent the correlation of thoughts or feelings that may discourage the audience from purchasing that product.

Corpus of Collocations

Kennedy (1998, p. 4) defined corpus as a collection of texts in an electronic database, which the role of computers in corpus linguistic to analyze text. In *An introduction to corpus linguistics*: In the 1930s, the British linguist Palmer, working as an English language teaching specialist in Japan, undertook corpus-based research on recurrent combinations of English words,

which resulted in a description of over 6,000 such collocations. This research led Palmer (1976, p. 108) to conclude that collocations exceeded by far the popular estimate of the number of simple words contained in our everyday vocabulary, calling for a reconsideration of the nature of vocabulary.

Furthermore, a number of scholars also explored the phenomenon and realized that “some words can have tendency to occur in the company of other words in certain context,” which was an important development in linguistic theory.

Therefore, it has been found that collocations occur under collocational restrictions based on three kinds of collocational restrictions: Collocational restrictions based on range, collocational based on meaning and collocational restrictions based on strictest sense, which the researcher chose for the study.

Collocations

Firth was the first person who used the term *collocation* in a linguistic sense. He stated, “You shall know a word by the company it keeps”. Palmer (1976, p. 94) has noted, regarding Firth’s view of collocation, that a collocation, as a combination of words collocating with each other, is a part of the meaning of a word. The meanings are also to be found in the context of situation and all the other levels of analysis as well. He also was concerned not with total distribution, but with the more obvious and more interesting co-occurrences, or call the “mutual expectancy of words”.

McCarthy and O'Dell (2005, p. 4) defined collocation as two or more words that are often used together, referring to the way English words are closely associated with each other. Typically, collocations are often a problem for non native speakers, especially if they have a problem with vocabulary. The main problem is when they try to use words together in an unfamiliar way.

Collocations may be divided into six types: Adjectives and noun, nouns and verbs, noun and noun, verbs and expression with prepositions, verbs and adverbs and adverbs and adjectives (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2005, p. 12).

Collocations are used in many situations such as in business, daily life, health, traveling, etc.

Moreover, McCarthy (1990, p. 12) wrote that in a collocation there is another binding force between the words of a language which is distinct from the fixed syntax of idioms and other phrases. In English, the word *beige* serves as an adjective, meaning a pale, creamy brown colour; it is suitable in the sentence "She has a *beige* car," but not "She has *beige* hair". In fact, we may say "She has *blond* hair," but we cannot use the word *blond* with car, as in "She has a *blond* car". Although both words describe colour, they are restricted in respect of the words they may collocate with. The word *beige* collocates with *car* but cannot collocate with *hair*, as the word *blond* collocates with *hair* but cannot collocate with *car*.

Therefore, the relationship of collocation is fundamental in the study of vocabulary because it is a "marriage contract" between words, and some words are more stably married to each other than to others. It is an important

element in the organizing principle of the vocabulary in any language.

As mentioned above, the relationship between *blond* and *hair* is extremely strong, as the word *blond* cannot refer to anything but *hair*. However, the division between grammar and lexis is not clear; any word in the language can be examined from the point of view of grammar. Even words like articles and prepositions can be considered as vocabulary items. Collocation deserves to be a central aspect of vocabulary study, because language is full of strong collocational pairs.

Cruse (1986, p. 40) remarked on the meaning of collocation and claimed that one or more of the elements will be restricted under the instant context. He explained that collocations are used to refer to sequence of lexical items which regularly co-occur, but are nevertheless fully obvious in the sense that each lexical component is also a semantic element. There are examples of collocations like *fine weather*, *torrential rain*, *light drizzle*, *high winds* which can be separated from idioms. They have a kind of semantic cohesion and are composed of element that are selective. If the meaning contains one or more compositional elements which is highly restricted contextually, then the semantic unity or cohesion of collocation is the more marked. Thus, it is different from the meaning in neutral contexts.

Many non-native speakers of English have problems, particularly semantic problems or semantic errors. Collocation errors are one type of semantic error made by people who rarely use English in their daily lives (Atchara Pengpanich, 2005, p. 111). Sometimes, it is hard to choose the right word to use in the context. Because many words have the same meaning or

synonym thus, non-native speakers become confused about which one is the right and suitable one in the context. Taylor (as cited in I. S. P. Nation, 1990, p. 38) said that the main reason for studying words in collocations is that words that are naturally associated in a text are learned more easily than those not so associated. Also, vocabulary is best learned in context. Besides, context alone is insufficient without considered association, which demonstrates that vocabulary is a distinct feature of language. It needs to be developed alongside a developing grammatical competence.

Moreover, Patcharee Palawongse (2009, pp. 97-98) defined collocation as a group or a pair of word that are always used together. Thus, some words cannot be replaced with other words. For example, the word *rancid* serves as an adjective that combines with fatty food only when used in the sense of rottenness, such as *rancid* bacon and *rancid* butter. These collocations are one of three kinds of collocational restrictions as Palmer noted.

Collocational Restrictions

Palmer (1976, p. 96) suggested that there is no exact borderline between collocations that are predictable from the meanings of the individual words. He is also noted the results of some extensive investigations of collocation within texts. Additionally, he suggested that the co-occurrences are determined both by meanings of the individual words and by conventions about words collocating with other words. However, he remarked on three kinds of collocational restrictions: Restrictions that are based on the meaning of words co-occurring, restrictions that are based on a matter of range, and

restrictions that are concerned with the “strictest sense” and involved with neither meaning nor range.

Collocational Restrictions Based on Range

Palmer (1976) discussing the restrictions based on range, mentioned that a part of the difficulty comes from the fact that a word will often collocate with a number of other words, and there are some things in common semantically. It is found that certain words or sequences of words will not collocate with certain other groups of words, which have attracted a lot of attention. For example, “The rhododendron *died*,” but “The rhododendron *passed away*” may not be said, in spite of the fact that *pass away* means *die*. But it is equally certain that *pass away* should not be used with the names of any shrubs or other plants. The verb *pass away* is usually used with living things, yet it is not very plausible to say that *pass away* indicates a special kind of dying that is not characteristic of shrubs. It is rather that there is a restriction on its use with a group of words that are semantically related. It has been suggested by McIntosh (as cited in Palmer, 1976, p. 97) the restrictions are a matter of range, in term of the meaning it know roughly the kind of nouns with which a verb or adjective may be used. Besides, the collocational restrictions are based on meaning, as explained below.

Collocational Restrictions Based on Meaning

The words that begin with a Latin prefix and are followed by a preposition which has a similar meaning to that of the prefix may account

for a kind of collocational restriction based on the meaning of the words that co-occur. For example, in collocations like *communicate with* and *adapt to*, the Latin prefix *com* and *ad* have the same meaning as the prepositions *with* and *to* respectively (I. S. P. Nation, 1990, p. 38). Furthermore, another example that accounts for what Cruse mentioned above is the case of *heavy* in *heavy drinker*. Cruse (1986, p. 40) explained, “For this sense of *heavy* to be selected, the notion of *consumption* in the immediate environment seems to be a prerequisite”. In a general context, *heavy* might have a different meaning or will be selected with a different sense.

Quirk and Stein (1990, p. 180) suggested that, when choosing words or phrases, writers may be concerned about “making sense” in the first place. They state that “making sense comes first in the linguistic priorities, and they are prepared to accept all kinds of grammatical or lexical deviance provided that can guess the intended meaning”. The sentences with particular words are usually rejected, even though the meaning of individual words can be understood and the grammar is correct.

Hatch and Brown (1995, p. 199) commented that the collocations are numerous and flexible but there are tightly bound idioms. On the other hand, the words in a phrase go together, as a phrase is a lexical unit or simply a phrase made up of separate words. It might have free collocations at one end and at the other end an unbreakable set; for example, many words might follow the word *read*; one can read books, lists, papers, schedules, or one can read slowly or rapidly. Also, one can read as long as there is light, in the morning, or read in the library, or on the bus. Besides, many words can

precede *money*; one can donate, spend, earn, invest, steal, or exchange *money*. Some of these phrases, such as *earn money* and *spend money*, seem much more tightly collocated than others. Thus, the number of possibilities for collocation with *money* is much narrower than for the word *read*; some collocations, such as *read the paper* and *read a book* and *earn money* and *spend money* are tighter than others.

Collocational Restrictions Based on Strictest Sense

The kind of collocational restriction based on the strictest sense involves neither meaning nor range. Palmer (1976, p. 97) provided a few examples of collocations to account for collocational restrictions based on strictest sense. For example, although English has the term *rotten* and *bad* to describe rottenness, we are likely to see the use of *rancid* occurring with *bacon* and *butter*, and *addled* with *brains* and *eggs*. There are no obvious qualities of being *rancid* or *addled* that distinguish them from any other kind of rottenness. The word *rotten* collocate with *butter* or *rotten* collocate with *eggs* is not then establishing a specific meaning for *rancid* or *addled*; it is indicating that there are certain words to refer to rottenness when used with *butter and eggs*. This point is more obvious with collective words. In collocational restrictions based on the strictest sense, there are many phrases in which words are joined together in a set order. For example, the words *bread and butter*, *this and that*, *law and order*, *life and death*, *yes or no*, *ladies and gentlemen*, and *ice cream and cake* (Hatch & Brown, 1995, p. 200).

These could also be classified as collocations based on strictest sense.

According to Benson's theory (as cited in Muller, 2008, p. 7), collocations can be classified into two groups: Lexical collocation and grammatical collocation; they are described below.

Lexical Collocations and Grammatical Collocations

A lexical collocation is a type of construction in which a verb, noun, adjective or adverb forms a predictable connection with another word, in a type of collocation, as an adverb or adjective; for example, one may feel *completely satisfied*, but not *downright satisfied*. As an example of an adjective and noun collocation, *excruciating pain*, one cannot use *joy* to replace another noun, even if they have the same meaning. Additionally, in a noun and verb collocation, such as *lions roar*, *lions* may not collocate with *shout*; and in a collocation with verb and noun, such as *commit suicide*. However, word *undertake* may not be collocated with *suicide*.

A grammatical collocation is a type of construction in which, for example, a verb or adjective must be followed by a particular preposition, or a noun must be followed by a particular form of the verb; for instance, in a verb and preposition collocation, *depend on*, *depend* as the verb collocates with the preposition *on* or *upon*; it cannot collocate with *of*. In the adjective and preposition collocation *afraid of*, the adjective *afraid* cannot collocate with *at*. Moreover, in the noun and verb collocation *strength to lift it*, *strength* serves as a noun, so it cannot collocate with *lifting it*.

The term *collocation* in its linguistic sense is relatively new; not all linguists agree on its definition. In fact, there is considerable disagreement and even some confusion. Some linguists treat fixed phrases as extended collocations. Besides, there are some others who suggest that when a sequence of words is 100 percent predictable, and allows absolutely no change except possibly in tense. Therefore, it is not helpful to treat it as a collocation.

Word

A word is a unit of language that carries meaning and consists of one or more morphemes which are linked, more or less, tightly together. Wilks (1972, p. 42) illustrated that a language consists of vocabulary and syntax, i.e., a set of word which have meanings, and rules of sentence formation, respectively. Also, Clark (1993, p. 2) explained that a word is the smallest semantic unit that can move around in an utterance. Furthermore, words have a way of acquiring meaning when used by different people at different times under different conditions. In newspaper advertisements, advertisers employ words to express meanings for persuading readers. Typically, a word will consist of a root or stem and zero or more affixes, and words can be combined to create phrases, clauses and sentence. Lyons (1995, p. 47) was concerned primarily with words as expression and as composite units that have both form and meaning. In addition, common words provide one or more meanings, depending on the context.



Context

Sinclair (1991, p. 171) described the term *context* in modern linguistics, explaining that context has two related meanings. In any continuous text, the context refers to the words that come on either side of a word or phrase. In the other meaning, the context means the linguistic environment of any expression under scrutiny, and in the general, non-linguistic environment of any language activity, which can also be called its context. Moreover, he also claimed that the “co-text” distinguishes one meaning from another. Palmer (1976, p. 95) mentioned two reasons why semantics is interesting to study in a linguistic context: Firstly, we can distinguish between different meanings by looking at the linguistic context of words, and secondly, it is not entirely true that the distribution of words is determined by their meaning. A characteristic of language is found in an extreme form in the collective words, for instance, *flock of sleep, herd of cows, school of whales, and pride of lions.*

The study of registers and the analysis of discourse are both ways of relating language to the context in which it is used. Register is concerned with aspects of a situation, while discourse analysis looks at the processes whereby language acquires meaning in context (McCarthy, 1990, p. 102).

Synonymy

Synonymy means that two or more words have the same meaning. In English many words are close in meaning to each other, such as the words *begin* and *start, sofa* and *settee, toilet* and *restroom* (McCarthy, 1990, p. 16). Several factors distinguish words; two words may be close in meaning and

yet not collocate with the same items, or they may have different syntactic behavior, or they may belong to different contexts and situations. English people and American people may use words separated by geographical distribution; for example, the word *lifts* British people use, but *elevators* is used by American people. Martin and Kroitor (1980, p. 54) note that there are at least two limitations in using synonyms to define words: (1) synonyms are useful in definition only when they are closer to the reader's experience than the word defined; and (2) usually synonyms are not definitions but only approximations; even fairly close synonyms can have unlike connotations that affect both tone and meaning. Moreover, in advertising there is a special word used in special group or different types of advertisement.

Jargon

Wright (2004, p. 67) defined the word *jargon*, word is used by the specialized or special group in any area of technology or skill. It has very specific meaning within the context of the particular, which is being used in different careers. For example, in consumer related advertisements, *extra long lasting formula* and *eye-popping shades* are often found.

Parts of Speech

Willson, Kierzek, and Gibson (1982, p. 69) explained that words are classified according to their function or use in the sentence. The words in a sentence are determined by a system of classification to be a part of speech

in a given situation. In English sentences, parts of speech are divided into eight types: Nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and Idioms

Nouns

A noun is a word that names something, for instance, a person, a thing, a place, an animal, a plant, an idea, a quality, a substance, a state, or an action. A concrete noun is a noun that names a person, a place, or an object. An abstract noun is a noun that names a quality, an idea, or a mental concept. A proper noun is the real name of some individual person, place, or object, whereas a common noun names any one of a class or kind. Podis and Podis (1984, pp. 435-436) explained that nouns can function in several positions: (1) as the subject of a verb; for example, in property advertisement—*The Narathiwass Residence warmly welcomes you to experience our international standard with Thai Hospitality Personal Service Touch.* (The noun *Narathiwass Residence* serves as the subject); (2) as the object of a transitive verb, as shown in tour and traveling—*Hua Hin Marriot & Spa is offering a romantic weekend getaways for twosomes*—in which the word *romantic weekend* is the object of a transitive verb; (3) as the indirect object of a transitive verb; in “She mailed her resume to HR manager” (HR manager is an indirect object); (4) the complement of a linking verb; in “He is a *teacher*,” the word *teacher* is a complement of the linking verb; (5) the object of a preposition, as example in tour and traveling advertisement—*Shake things up with DJ Graham Gold’s blend of soul, while Simon Solo doesn’t go it alone, join up with DJ Abould to*

bring you house and funk—*DJ Abould* is the object of *with*; (6) an appositive, as in “Ginger, my orange *cat*, eats too much”; (7) an attributive, “a *country* gentleman”; and (8) the modifier of a verb, as in “We work *days*”.

Verbs

A verb is a word or group of words that expresses action, occurrence, being, or mode of being. A verb is the heart of a sentence; every sentence must have a verb. Recognizing the verb is often the most important step in understanding the meaning of a sentence. For example, in the sentence “The dog *bit* the man,” *bit* is the verb and the word which shows the action of the sentence; in the sentence “The man is *sitting* on a chair,” even though the action doesn't show much activity, *sitting* is the verb of the sentence. Also, in the sentence “She *is* a smart girl,” there is no action but a state of being expressed by the verb *is*. The word *be* is different from other verbs in many ways but can still be thought of as a verb.

Like most of the other parts of speech, verbs change their form; sometimes endings are added, as in *learn* and *learned*, and sometimes the word itself becomes different, as in *teach* and *taught*. Furthermore, the different forms of verbs show different meanings related to such things as tense (past, present, future), person (first person, second person, third person), number (singular or plural), and voice (active and passive). Verbs are also often accompanied by verb-like words called modals, such as *may*, *could*, *should*, etc., and auxiliaries like *do*, *have*, *will*, etc., to give them different meanings.

One of the most important things about verbs is their relationship to time. Verbs tell if something has already happened, if it will happen later, or if it is happening now. For things happening now, we use the present tense of a verb, and for something that has already happened, we use the past tense; and for something that will happen later, the future tense is used.

Pronouns

A pronoun is a word that replaces of a noun, or it can be called a substantive, such as *I, you, he, she, it, they, and we*. Pronouns are classified as personal, demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite; pronouns function like nouns in sentences and can stand for nouns. The nouns that are replaced by pronouns are called the antecedents of the pronouns.

There are two forms of the possessive: The first form, such as *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, and theirs* function as a pronoun; the second form, when placed before a noun, functions as an adjective, such as *my, our, your, her, his, its and their*.

Adjectives

An adjective is a word that modifies a noun or pronoun. It may relate to quality, quantity, number or extent. For example, *light, dark, bright, and dull* are used with colors (Podis & Podis, 1984, pp. 441-442). Adjectives characteristically precede nouns and follow linking verbs like *is, seem* and *appear*. Some examples of adjectives that modify nouns are shown in tour and traveling advertisements. For instance, in the sentence *all of our hotels*

and resorts have super restaurants with fantastic food, the word *super* modifies restaurants and *fantastic* modifies food. Adjectives of one syllable and many adjectives of two syllables express comparative and superlative degree by adding *-er* and *-est*. Besides, *the*, *a*, and *an* belong to a special category of adjectives called articles, used with nouns. Word like *this*, *that*, *some*, *any*, *many*, and *all* are also considered adjectives.

Adverbs

An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb (Podis & Podis, 1984, p. 443). An adverb can be placed in various positions in the sentence. It expresses the following relations in a sentence: Time, place, manner, degree, frequency, affirmation or negation. For example, in job classified advertisements, advertiser described the necessary skills and specifications of candidates who possess initiative and are able to act *decisively*. The word *decisively* is an adverb which modifies the verb *act*. Besides, there is another example of an adverb in a consumer product advertisement, which is an ad for credit cards: “Move up to Visa Signature Discounts are fine, but what you *really* want is a better room”. The word *really* is an adverb that modifies the verb *want*.

Prepositions

A preposition is a word which is placed with a noun, called the object of the preposition and is used to show the relationship between a substantive (noun or pronoun) and some other word in the sentence. A preposition is

a phrase that introduces a group of words and can be used as an adjective, as an adverb, or less frequently as a noun. Besides, prepositions can be single words like *in*, *on*, or *at* or short phrases, such as *by means of*, *in front of*, *on account of*, *in place of*, *with respect to*, *according to*, *in addition to* and *in spite of*.

Idioms

An idiom is a grouping of two or more words which are placed together in order to produce a specific meaning or effect in speech or effect in speech or writing; the idiom may be used in various ways. Willson et al. (1982, p. 456) defined an idiom as an expression unique to a given language which cannot usually be translated word for word into another language. Idioms are often illogical, filled with images. Goodale (1995, p. 6) stated that the idioms in sentences have several purposes: To be amusing or witty, to play with words, to be different, to put other people at ease, to express something which other words do not quite express, and to communicate more clearly, more visually. As idioms cannot always be interpreted by words, it is difficult to handle idioms; many times non-native speakers have a problem using or even understanding idioms.

Related Research Studies

Sawitree Sumlitsukchok (2008) in this study *An Analysis of English Collocation of the Official Letters in the Office of the Attorney General of*

Thailand. The identifications and the analysis of the collocations that occur in the official letters are based on eight types of collocations: Verb phrases, noun phrases, verb with noun phrases, preposition phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, clauses, and expression phrases. The findings of the study showed that the type of collocations with the highest number was noun phrases, 199 collocations; the second-highest number was verb phrases, 48 collocations; and the third-highest was preposition phrases, 47 collocations. Because these collocations were noun and verb phrases, they functioned as the main parts of sentence; prepositional phrases mostly functioned work as adverb in a sentence. The lowest number of collocations was clause phrases, numbering only four. Moreover, an analysis on the structure of collocations showed that they consisted of two or more words that were often used together. The meaning was changed if one word was lost or if they were not used together. The researcher stated that the verb phrase most often found was *would like to*, in official letters; the noun phrase found most often was *request for assistance*, which was used in polite sentences in correspondence between government organizations.

Furthermore, Sunee Thanalertkul (2009) in this study *A study of Strategies in Translation of Adjective-noun Collocations: A Case Study of Translated Narratives from the Books Hope and Courage and Love and Share*. In this study, two books are studied and the strategies used to translate adjective and noun collocations from English into Thai were analyzed; Thanalertkul also studied the structure of adjective and noun collocation as adjusted in the translated texts. The findings of the study showed that

the parallel corpus-based analysis of strategies used to translate adjective and noun collocation revealed that the translator paid attention to meaning in translating collocations, and the translated text changed the meaning of the source text. Besides, the study of the structure of adjective and noun collocations showed that a number of noun phrases from the source texts were translated in a similar form to verbal phrases and adverbial phrases. The researcher stated that the analysis of strategies used to translate adjective and noun collocations revealed that the translator paid attention to meaning in translating collocations, the translator used several strategies to maintain the source meaning. Besides, according to the findings of a study of the structure of adjective and noun collocations, there is an adjustment in the source text, by omitting noun phrases or changing the structure. As mentioned earlier, the structural adjustments are considered suitable for translated narratives where visual effects and naturalness are underlined.

Therefore, it can be concluded that words that occur most in noun phrases also recur in the context many times. The purpose of using collocation is to communicate in a polite way, and the meanings of words will be different. Using the words combined with each other appropriately is helpful to convey the meaning and make it sound natural as native speakers do.

Summary

This chapter concerns with newspaper advertisement writing, types of collocations, and co-occurrences of words under collocational restrictions.

Types of collocation are classified into six types: Adjectives and nouns; nouns and verbs; noun and noun; verbs and expressions with prepositions; verbs and adverbs; and adverbs and adjective. Choices of words include abstract, concrete, connotation, denotation and figures of speech including metaphor, simile and jargon. In addition, the analysis of the occurrence of collocation words and interpretations is based on the collocational restrictions, which are classified into three collocational restrictions based on range, meaning, and its strictest sense. The collocations are used in newspaper advertising because the advertisement writers aim to use them in correct and effective ways to persuade the readers.