



P-ISSN 2355-2794  
E-ISSN 2461-0275

## Acehnese Lexical and Grammatical Collocations of the North Aceh Dialect

**Kismullah Abdul Muthalib\***  
**Siti Rahmah**  
**Zulfadli A. Aziz**

Department of English Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education,  
Universitas Syiah Kuala, Banda Aceh 23111, INDONESIA

### **Abstract**

*This research dealt with collocations used in the North Aceh dialect. It analyzed the part of speech categories into which collocations of the North Aceh dialect can be grouped. This research focused on the grammatical collocations and lexical collocations used in the Blang Mee village of Bireuen District, Aceh, Indonesia. This is a descriptive qualitative using case study looking into the villagers' use of Acehnese collocations. Six Acehnese speakers were selected as the language informants. They were fifty years old or above and never traveled or lived outside of Blang Mee. Data were extracted from interviews with these speakers who were asked to discuss general topics in Acehnese. The analysis was performed using a framework on collocation categories by Benson et al. The results of the analysis showed both lexical and grammatical collocations used by speakers in North Aceh. Lexical collocations were found in the forms of verb (denoting creation or activation) + noun combinations, verb (meaning eradication or nullification) + a noun, adjective + noun combinations, noun + verb combinations, noun + noun combinations, adverb + adjective combinations, and verb + adverb combinations. Grammatical collocations came in the following combinations: noun + preposition combinations, adjective + preposition combinations, preposition + noun combinations, and collocational verb patterns. The collocations used by the North Aceh dialect speakers indicate the uniqueness of their dialect within other dialects spoken by the Acehnese.*

---

\* Corresponding author, email: [kismullah@unsyiah.ac.id](mailto:kismullah@unsyiah.ac.id)

**Citation in APA style:** Muthalib, K. A., Rahmah, S., & Aziz, Z. A. (2022). Acehnese lexical and grammatical collocations of the North Aceh dialect. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 9(2), 832-850.

Received September 14, 2021; Revised March 9, 2022; Accepted April 25, 2022; Published Online May 23, 2022

<https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v9i2.22680>

**Keywords:** Acehnese, grammatical collocations, lexical collocations, North Aceh dialect.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Acehnese has several different dialects even between neighboring villages, which may sometimes cause communication difficulties (Durie, 1985). This situation has caused the speakers of the language to make some efforts to fully understand the speakers of different regions. The diversity of dialects in the Acehnese language affects the collocations used by people from different regions (see Asyik, 1987, p. 9). The writers chose the dialect of North Aceh to research since its dialect is considered the standard form of Acehnese (see Aziz, 2016; Durie, 1985) while keeping in mind that Acehnese dialects of other regions also deserve equally detailed analysis in further research. Aziz (2016) notes that the North Aceh dialect, in general, is standard, and neutral among the four different main Acehnese dialects spoken in Aceh province: North Aceh, Pidie, Greater Aceh, and West Aceh. Aziz (2016) also argues that the North Aceh dialect has become the standard because it is widely used for public speeches in formal venues like radio broadcasts for local radio station news-reading. A similar discussion has previously been available (see Asyik, 1987; Durie, 1985; Hanafiah & Makam, 1984; Sulaiman, 1977; Wildan, 2010).

Literature on collocation has been abundant, but none has been available on Acehnese collocations. Hence, this study is set to find out the lexical collocations and the grammatical collocations used in the North Aceh dialect. Collocations are divided into two main groups: grammatical collocations and lexical collocations (Benson et al., 1986; Benson et al., 2010). Grammatical collocations are phrases made by combining a dominant open-class word such as nouns, verbs, or adjectives and a grammatical word like a preposition or grammatical, a structural pattern like a clause or an infinitive. Lexical collocations are phrases that only have nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs combinations. Collocations come from lexicon studies defined in many different ways (Wu et al., 2016). Nation (2004) considers collocations to be the words frequently coming together. Collocations are words that co-occur, but not all words that come together are considered collocations (McCarthy & O'Dell, 2005). McCarthy and O'Dell (2005) state that these combinations sound natural to native speakers, but foreigners need to make a special effort to learn these as they are often difficult to guess. In other words, as Popescu (2019) puts it, these are combinations that sound correct to people who have spoken the language all their lives. Popescu (2019) continues to point out that there are two ways of understanding collocations, in a broad and narrow sense. In its narrow sense, collocation refers to the combination of words formed when two or more words are often used together in a way that sounds correct. The phrases 'a rough wind', 'deadly blow', and 'a rough sea' are collocations. In its broad meaning, collocation refers to the regular use of some words and phrases with others, and in a special way that is difficult to guess (Popescu, 2019, p. 14). Collocations are also known by other terms such as 'lexical bundles' and 'fixed expressions' (Ulfa & Muthalib, 2020).

Although some studies related to collocations in Acehnese, such as Muliawati et al. (2019) suggest that Acehnese speakers still understand certain Acehnese idioms tested in their studies, a more recent study has shown the lack of understanding and

use of Acehnese vocabulary by younger speakers of the language (Muthalib et al., 2020). This phenomenon begs for more studies and analyses on Acehnese words and phrases to provide more insights and understanding on this topic. Therefore, the present study attempts to specifically analyze the Acehnese collocations used in the North Aceh dialect. The following research questions are addressed in this study:

- What are the lexical collocations used in the North Aceh dialect?
- What are the grammatical collocations used in the North Aceh dialect?

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Collocations

The term collocation was first introduced by Firth (1957) to refer to lexical meaning at the syntactic level while the contextual meaning of a word depends on the words which come together (Firth, 1957; Hung & Chin, 2018). Nattinger (1987) suggests that language is a ‘compositional’ process in which many of its words co-occur together, forming single units of meaning. He calls these lexical phrases or word combinations collocations. However, collocations range from ‘lexico-grammatical unit’ to ‘free combination’. The term ‘collocation’ is actually only one among other terms for the similar concept of word combination. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p. 21) define collocations as “strings of words that seem to have certain ‘mutual expectancy’, or a greater-than chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text”. This term has two different perspectives: collocation relating to meaning and collocation with no semantic relationship. In a collocation, one word is prominent over others and determined as the base word, while the other is called the collocate (Hausmann, 1984; Kolesnikova & Gelbukh, 2012).

Halliday and Hasan (2001) consider collocation as a means of cohesion. The occurrence of words in some situations or others is related to each other because they tend to emerge in a similar state. For example, the opposite meanings of ‘boy’ and ‘girl’ are cohesive. However, even though they are not systematically related, ‘laugh’ and ‘joke’, ‘boat’, and ‘row’ are also cohesive because they are typically associated. They believe that collocation is the key to creating cohesion in a connected text. These collocations are not only words but also compounds, phrases, turns of phrases, or any expressions that also involve subordinate units such as morphemes, continuous or discontinuous (Léon, 2007).

Collocations can be dramatic and enticing because it is unpredictable (Sinclair, 1991). Collocations can be an essential part of the lexical structure of the language because of frequent repetition. They are assumed to result from native language expressions chosen by native speakers to match specific situations when talking about particular topics. It is a crucial factor in language proficiency (Abdulameer, 2013).

### 2.2 Collocations and Other Word Combinations

Collocations are not any random word combinations. Nesselhauf (2003) uses the phraseological concept to separate the collocations from other word combinations through the term ‘arbitrary restriction on substitutability’. He believes there should be a distinction between word combinations, rather than a possible limitation on the

substitutability of elements due to their semantic properties (such as free combinations) and the word combinations whose limitation is arbitrary (like collocations). For example, the phrase 'read a book' is possible, but one would not say 'drink a book' or 'read water'. This is because the verb 'drink' needs a noun with the liquid semantic feature, while the verb 'read' needs a noun with written language semantic features. However, the phrase 'reach a decision' can be substituted by other nouns such as 'reach a conclusion/goal/result' but not with the noun 'aim'. In this case, the limitations are not the result of the semantic characteristics of the two elements discussed, but of arbitrary conventions of the language which distinguish collocations from free combinations. Therefore, it is vital to distinguish collocations from other kinds of word combinations to make the characteristic of collocations more understandable (Bahns, 1993; Wu, 1996).

### 2.3 Types of Collocations

Lewis (2000) classifies collocations into four groups: strong, weak, frequent, and infrequent. The difference between strong and weak collocations depends on their fixedness and restriction, while the difference between frequent and infrequent collocations depends on their frequency of co-occurrence in a corpus. Strong collocations such as 'drug addict' and 'drink beer' are considered to be closely linked phrases that act as a single word. While weak collocations like 'a nice day' or a 'good chance' are combined with two common words, each word could occur with different words. Collocations could be any combination of strong and infrequent, strong and frequent, weak and frequent or infrequent.

Similarly, Hill (2000) also divides collocations into four. Firstly, unique collocations, where verbs do not match with other nouns such as 'foot the bill' and 'shrug one's shoulders'. Secondly, strong collocation, one item is incomplete without another item because it only allows a few elements, such as in 'rancid meat/butter' or 'trenchant criticism'. Thirdly, medium-strength collocation, this category of collocation is neither strong nor weak. The items can be collocated with other words, such as 'have a barbecue', and 'make a mistake'. Lastly, weak collocations are predictable because the words emerge with each other in a random sense. For example, the adjective 'red' can collocate with many words such as 'mistake', 'girl', 'decision', 'or car'.

Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1976, 2014) categorize collocations into three types. The first type is the clearest one, it includes members of lexical items like colors, numbers, months, and days. For example, the action takes place tomorrow. The second type is the activity-related collocation which is nonsystematic but based solely on an association between items (spend – money). The last type is elaborative collocation in which each relation between pairs is impossible to define specifically (education, university, school, teach, institution).

Majeed and Dabbagh (2016) explain that several linguists and researchers (e.g., Cowie & Mackin, 1993; Howarth, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2003) tend to categorize multi-word units into several categories. The first category is free collocations (free word combinations). This category consists of items used in their literal senses and freely substitutable, for example, 'open the gate', and 'a nice car'. This category includes all possible and semantically natural combinations. Another category is restricted collocations (fixed combinations) which usually have one element used in a non-literal

sense (a specialized or figurative sense), such as ‘run a company’, and ‘bitterly contested’. Howarth (1998) clarifies that collocation of this category might allow limited substitution as in ‘make/reach a decision and take on an obligation/a duty’, or in both components as in ‘do/carry out research/a project’. The last category is idioms which are relatively frozen expressions, for example, ‘sweeten the pill’, and ‘kick the bucket’.

Cruse (2006) sets two types of collocation: first, the combination of all grammatically well-formed phrases, such as ‘excellent performance’, second, the combination of words that have a semantic unity or words that refer to the encoding idiom, for example, ‘high wind’, ‘high office’, ‘high opinion’, and ‘high seas’. The word ‘high’ has a distinct meaning in each of these combinations, which is different from its default meaning as in ‘high wall’. Although the types of collocations have been proposed in many different ways, several researchers (e.g., Bahns, 1993; Liu, 1999a, 1999b, 2000; Wang, 2001) agree with Benson et al. (1986) regarding collocations; collocation will be consistently divided into two categories, namely grammatical collocations, and lexical collocations.

### 2.3.1 Grammatical collocations

Baker (2016) points out that grammatical collocation has a unique meaning, although not logically possible. Grammatical collocations consist of a noun, an adjective, or a verb, plus a particle (a preposition, an adverb, or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive, a gerund, or clause) (Bahns, 1993; Schmitt, 2000). Benson et al. (1986, 2010) state that collocations have eight combinations. The first type of collocation is noun + preposition (e.g., ‘blockade against’, ‘apathy towards’). The second combination is noun + to-infinitive (e.g., ‘it was a pleasure to do it’). The third type is noun + that-clause (e.g., ‘an agreement that’). The fourth type is preposition + noun (e.g., ‘in advance’). The fifth type consists of adjective + preposition (e.g., ‘angry at’). The sixth type is adjective + to-infinitive (e.g., ‘necessary to work’). The seventh type is adjective + that-clause (e.g., ‘she was afraid that she would fail the examination’). The last combination is the nineteen collocational verb pattern types which each of which has different grammatical structures (Benson et al., 1986; Benson et al., 2010), as explained below.

The first verb pattern is the ditransitive verbs with two objects (direct and indirect). The position of the direct object can replace the indirect object when the preposition precedes the indirect object. For example, ‘John often teaches Marry new words’ or ‘John often teaches new words to Marry’. The second pattern is the ditransitive verb with two objects (direct and indirect). The direct object can replace the position of an indirect object in which the preposition must precede the indirect object. For example, ‘he always says hello to me’. The third pattern is the ditransitive verbs with two objects (direct and indirect). The direct object can replace the indirect object in which the preposition must be placed before the indirect object. For example, ‘we bought a book for her’ or ‘we bought her a book’. The fourth pattern is the verb with a specific preposition and an object. For example, ‘we adhered to the plan’. However, the free combinations of verb + preposition which denote location means, or instrument are not collocations, such as ‘they came by train’. The fifth is the verb followed by a to-infinitive. For example, ‘they began to speak’. However, verbs + to-



infinitive which means a purpose is not included as a collocational combination as in 'he stopped to chat'.

Furthermore, the sixth pattern is the infinitive verb without *to*. For example, 'they had better go now'. The verbs 'dare', 'help', and 'need' are exceptional, for example, 'they help people around them'. These verbs are called modals. The seventh pattern is the past verb (V2) + progressive verb. For example, 'they kept talking'. The eighth pattern is a transitive verb followed by an object and *to*-infinitive as in 'they asked the students to participate in discussion'. The ninth is the transitive verb with a direct object and an infinitive without the preposition 'to', as in 'we let them use the car'. The tenth is the transitive verb with an object and the progressive verb, as in 'we found the children sleeping on the floor'. The eleventh pattern is the verb with a noun or pronoun and gerund, as in 'please excuse my waking you so early'. However, [Benson et al. \(1986\)](#) explain that possessive construction is often considered awkward. Therefore, more common expressions for similar meanings will be used: 'please excuse me for waking you so early'. The twelfth pattern is the transitive verb with noun clause starting with conjunction 'that', as in 'we hoped that the weather would be nice'. Some verbs such as 'assure' and 'convince' always take an object noun or pronoun before *that*-clause. The thirteenth pattern is the transitive verb with a direct object, an infinitive *to be*, and adjective/past participle/noun/pronoun, as in 'we considered her to be very capable/well-trained/a competent engineer'. The fourteenth is a transitive verb with a direct object and adjective/past participle or noun/pronoun. An example of this pattern is in 'he found them interesting'. The fifteenth is the transitive verb with two objects, as in 'the teacher asked the students questions'.

The sixteenth verb pattern is the intransitive/reflexive/transitive verbs with an adverb/a prepositional phrase/a noun phrase/a clause, as in the sentence 'he carried himself with dignity'. The seventeenth pattern is the verb with an interrogative word, such as 'what', 'when', and 'how', as in 'she knows when to keep quiet'. The eighth is the collocations of dummy *it* with transitive verb/*to*-infinitive/*that*-clause/either. For example, 'it surprised me to learn of her decision'. The last collocational verb pattern is the collocation of some intransitive verbs with predicate noun/predicate adjective. The verb 'make' belongs to this group which is used intransitively, for example, 'she will make a good teacher', and 'she was enthusiastic'. However, most intransitive verbs can be followed only by predicate adjectives, for instance, 'the food tastes awful'.

### *2.3.2 Lexical Collocations*

In contrast to grammatical collocations, lexical collocations do not contain grammatical elements. [Bahns \(1993\)](#) states that lexical collocations do not include infinitives, clauses, and prepositions. He mentions that lexical collocations have various combinations of adjectives, nouns, verbs, and adverbs instead. In lexical collocations, there are fixed and loose combinations. The combinations are fixed when the choice of words that collocate each other is definite, such as 'commit a murder', or 'break the law'. This fixed structure is idiomatic. However, their meanings are still predictable from the combined elements. In comparison, in loose collocations, the collocates are freely combined, such as 'analyze/study/witness a murder' and 'practice/study law'. The meanings of these loose collocations can still be derived from their words.

McCarthy and O'Dell (2005) state that the co-occurrence of two or more words in lexical collocations has two essential features. Firstly, there are constant collocational relationships between the words that collocate even though several words exist between them, for example, 'they collect stamps', 'they collect foreign stamps', and 'they collect many things, but chiefly stamps'. Secondly, lexical collocations do not depend on grammatical types, for instance, collocation 'strong argument' can be expressed as in 'He argued strongly or the strength of his argument or his argument was strengthened'.

Erman (2007) argues that collocations are a heterogeneous type of multiword expressions that can be formed or included in all phrase classes (VP, NP, Adj P, etc.). The combination of verb + noun and adjective + noun collocations is recognized. The first group includes collocations commonly used for lexical functions, including verbal ones, for example, the support verbs 'wreak havoc' and fulfillment verbs 'burn fossil fuels', and adjectival ones such as 'appropriate measures'. The second group includes expressions representing some specific states, conditions, properties, or activities that are typically socioculturally motivated; thus, it is invoked by frames, which may be institutions 'go to seminars', 'write a check', or pertaining to social life 'bright future', 'entertain friends', or be the result of democratic processes 'a free country', 'a parliamentary debate'. Members in these two groups have lexical status whose specific unitary meanings like single words may be stored as a whole or at least are easily retrieved; one member can call through association networks. In fact, they are highly few pauses in these drives.

Benson et al. (1986) and Lewis (2000) state that lexical collocations include neither infinitives nor prepositions. They divide lexical collocations into seven types. The first category is a verb (denoting creation or activation) + noun, for example, 'composing music', and 'making an impression'. The second is a verb (meaning eradication or nullification) + noun, for example, 'revoke a license'. The third is adjective + noun as in 'strong tea'. The fourth category is noun + verb, for instance, 'bomb explodes'. The fifth is noun + noun, for example, 'herd of buffalo'. The sixth is adverb + adjective as in 'hopelessly addicted'. The last type is verb + adverb, for example, 'argue heartedly', and 'anchor firmly'.

### 3. METHODS

This study employed a qualitative approach to investigate a phenomenon of the North Aceh dialect collocation used in the Blang Mee village of Bireuen District of the Aceh Province. Sukmadinata (2010) defines qualitative methods as a tool to understand the social phenomenon from participants' perspectives. In this research, the interview was conducted to investigate the collocations used in Blang Mee village to obtain valid data. It was then presented in descriptive analysis. It is convenient for the researchers to obtain the data since the research area is located in an accessible location close to the primary access.

Furthermore, case studies were used as the research design to give a deep investigation of the village, especially the language used by the villagers. Miles et al. (2014) characterize a case study as a phenomenon occurring in a limited setting since the utterances occur in some context. Thus, having a particular context of the study forms the unit of analysis, which might be an individual, an organization, an

intervention, or a process. According to Gomm et al. (2000), a case study refers to research investigating some cases in significant depth. Thus, besides the language used in Blang Mee village, the researchers also considered the aspects of the language speakers, including age, origin, education, and experience. Those aspects provide necessary information that can assist the researchers in choosing the subjects of the study.

Six Acehnese speakers from Blang Mee were taken as language informants. The speakers selected were fifty years and above, never traveled and lived outside of Blang Mee, and did not complete the lowest level of education. All the informants have always lived there in their entire life. They were interviewed using an interview guide to get the language data, with some additional questions not prescribed in the guide as felt necessary (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). The informants were asked to discuss a general topic using Acehnese, their native language (For example, *pu buet ureueng gampong nyoe umum jih?* ‘What do most people in this village generally do?’ After listening to the informants’ responses, the writers asked follow-up questions related to the collocations used in Blang Mee village to obtain more data on collocations. Finally, the recordings of the discussions were used to analyze the collocations.

A written guide adapted from Savin-Baden and Major (2013) was used as the interview protocol. It is a relatively easy-to-follow guide consisting of four parts: the title, the script, the question set, and the closing. The informants were facilitated during the interviews so that they could talk about the topics targeted so that they had the opportunity to use the targeted collocations. It was done so that the facilitation did not affect what they said.

The data analysis technique for this research was presented descriptively by using the framework proposed by Miles et al. (2014). The framework is suitable for this qualitative research. According to Miles et al. (2014), there are three stages in analyzing the qualitative research data: data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification.

Firstly, in data condensation, the writers read the notes taken during the interview while listening to each audio-recording. At the same time, the new notes were written on the paper to refine the data relevant to the research questions. Secondly, it is a data display, presenting the result of data condensation. The data were shown in tables by classifying the data considered as collocations into collocation categories proposed by Benson et al. (1986, 2010). The meanings are provided in a way suggested by Popescu (2019), i.e., the meanings of the examples (narrow meanings) and other possible combinations using elements of the collocation under discussion (broad meanings). In cases where no other combination is possible, it was indicated. The examples (data) were also glossed in English. Lastly, the final step is the conclusion drawing and verification in which the data were concluded and verified based on the results of data condensation and data display. The conclusion becomes the answer to the research questions of this investigation.

#### 4. RESULTS

The analysis of the extracted data from the interviews shows seven lexical collocations and seven grammatical collocations used by speakers of the North Aceh



dialect. The following sections present these collocations and their contextual meanings.

#### 4.1 Lexical Collocations

All seven lexical collocations defined by Benson et al. (1986) are found in the North Aceh dialect. These collocations are presented in the tables below. Table 1 presents verbs meaning creation (causative) or action in combination with nouns.

**Table 1.** Verb meaning creation or action + noun.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>peuèm ija</i> leave unattended-clothes	<i>peuèm</i> = verb <i>ija</i> = noun	leave the clothes unattended
2.	<i>sinteue ija</i> put onto drying line-clothes	<i>sinteue</i> = verb <i>ija</i> = noun	put the clothes onto the drying line
3.	<i>bôh jeuleubab</i> put on the scarf (women's headcover)	<i>bôh</i> = verb <i>jeuleubab</i> = noun	wear a scarf

From Table 1, the verb *peuèm* 'leave' in Example 1 derives from two morphemes, the causative *peu* (dependent morpheme, prefix, meaning 'make') and the adjective *èm* (meaning 'left unattended'). Together, these form a verb that means 'to leave unattended'. It is used to express the act of neglecting something after using it, and its use is confined to clothes or dresses.

The verb *sinteue* 'dry' in Example 2 is used to express the act of putting the clothes or laundry onto drying lines, but not necessarily under the sun. The only nouns that can be combined with *sinteue* are those belonging to clothes or clothing articles. Another possibility is to combine the verb *sinteue* with prepositional phrases as presented in Example 3 in Table 1. The verb *adèe* is used when the clothes or laundry is dried under the sun. In Example 3, instead of using the verb *sôk* 'wear', the verb *bôh* 'put' is used. The former is used for a more general act of putting on a scarf, while the latter is used to refer to the careful act of putting on a scarf.

The next category of lexical collocations is a combination of verbs meaning eradication (getting rid of) or nullification and noun as presented in Table 2.

**Table 2.** Verb meaning eradication or nullification + noun.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>cui duroe</i> pick out-thorn	<i>cui</i> = verb <i>duroe</i> = noun	remove the thorn (splinter) from the skin
2.	<i>teulheup igoe</i> fall out-tooth	<i>lheup</i> = verb <i>igoe</i> = noun	a tooth falls out

From Table 2, the verb *cui* in Example 1 means 'to remove using a sharp object' something that gets into the skin. Its combination is only with *duroe* 'thorn, splinter' or anything that gets into the skin. The noun *duroe* originally refers to a thorn from a plant, but it is also used to refer to anything sharp that can get into the skin or flesh by accident.

Meanwhile, in Example 2, the verb *teulheup* is derived from the prefix *teu* combined with *lheup* 'pluck off, pull out'. Prefix *teu* in Acehnese is similar to Indonesian *ter-* which refers to accidental action, not deliberately performed and thus,

*teulheup* means ‘accidentally pulled out or falls out’. In Acehnese *teulheup* is collocable with a limited number of nouns, including *subang* ‘earring’ and *gukèe* ‘nail’.

In the next category, Acehnese collocation from the North Aceh dialect shows a combination of adjective + noun. An important note should be made that in Acehnese adjective + noun combination is inversely constructed relative to English. Therefore, instead of adjective + noun, the Acehnese construction has a noun + adjective pattern as illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Adjective + noun collocation.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>jan laén</i> occasion-another	<i>jan</i> = noun <i>laén</i> = adjective	on another occasion
2.	<i>sinyak meutuwah</i> child-blessed	<i>sinyak</i> = noun <i>meutuwah</i> = adjective	a blessed child
3.	<i>röt tunong</i> direction-south	<i>röt</i> = noun <i>tunong</i> = adjective	southern direction
4.	<i>ureueng tari</i> person-beautiful	<i>ureueng</i> = noun <i>tari</i> = adjective	a beautiful person

From Table 3, the collocation *jan laén* ‘another occasion, next time’ in Example 1 is the Acehnese parallel for ‘a rain check’ to express that one cannot accept an invitation for now but would like to do so at a later time. The collocation consists of the noun *jan* and the adjective *laén* and thus, adjective + noun collocation.

In Example 2, the adjective *meutuwah* ‘blessed’ is commonly used for praising a child. Thus, the adjective is collocable with the noun *sinyak* ‘child’. The noun *sinyak* ‘child’ is a more endearing term than its counterpart *aneuk* ‘child’. Example 3 shows the noun *röt* ‘route, direction’ which collocates with a cardinal direction ‘south’. It can collocate with any other adjectives which show a direction such as *röt timu* ‘from eastern section’, *röt barôh* ‘northern direction’, and *röt barat* ‘western direction’. In Example 4, the noun *ureueng* ‘person’ is collocates with the adjective *tari* ‘good looking’. It can also collocate with any other adjectives describing a person’s characteristics such as *ureueng pungo* ‘a crazy person’ and *ureueng bangai* ‘a stupid person’.

The fourth category of lexical collocation found in the North Aceh dialect is the noun + verb collocation. This is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Noun + verb collocation.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>kamèng meuröt</i> goat-graze	<i>kamèng</i> = noun <i>meuröt</i> = verb	goat grazes
2.	<i>tikôh kap</i> mouse-bite	<i>tikôh</i> = noun <i>kap</i> = verb	mouse bites
3.	<i>manok coh</i> chicken-peck	<i>manok</i> = noun <i>coh</i> = verb	chicken pecks

From Table 4, the verb *meuröt* ‘graze’ for example is also collocable with other nouns like *leumo* ‘cow’. The verb *meuröt* is specifically used to express the process of eating performed by grass-eating animals, such as *leumoe* and *kameng* ‘goat’ and ‘cow’. The verb *kap* ‘bite’ in Example 2 is an act performed by *tikôh* ‘mouse’ with its

teeth, whether it is the activity of eating food or the activity of damaging something. Meanwhile, in Example 3, the noun *manok* ‘chicken’ performs the act of pecking *coh* ‘peck’. The verb *coh* ‘peck’ can also collocate with any other nouns like *cicém coh* ‘bird pecks’ and *iték coh* ‘duck pecks.’

Another category of lexical collocation in Acehese is noun + noun collocation, as presented in Table 5.

**Table 5.** Noun + noun collocation.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>minyeyuk gah</i> oil-gas	<i>minyeyuk</i> = noun <i>gah</i> = noun	kerosene
2.	<i>eungkôt sie</i> fish-meat	<i>eungkôt</i> = noun <i>sie</i> = noun	meat
3.	<i>ôn ue</i> leaf-coconut	<i>ôn</i> = noun <i>ue</i> = noun	coconut leaf
4.	<i>peureudèe trieng</i> clump-bamboo	<i>peureudèe</i> = noun <i>trieng</i> = noun	clump of bamboo

From Table 5, the collocation of *minyeyuk gah* ‘kerosene’ is so attractive that the writers were eager to find information on the reason why most North Aceh people tend to use the collocation. Based on the interview result, the informants explained that the North Aceh people used the oil that used to be explored by a gas (Acehnese: *gah*) company, LNG PT. Arun. Therefore, the people of North Aceh believed that the oil they used for lamps or other energy power came from the sources of the company. Thus, the people of North Aceh called it *minyeyuk gah*. The collocation of *eungkôt sie* ‘meat’ is also intriguing to be discussed. The two elements are *eungkôt* ‘fish’ and *sie* ‘meat’. The informants explained that the noun *eungkôt* can be used together with a fish name, such as *eungkôt surèe* ‘tuna fish’. They also said that as *eungkôt* ‘fish’ is a standard side dish, the noun is used for any non-vegetable side dish eaten with rice including the meat of a land animal, thus *engkôt sie*, to refer to meat eaten as a side dish with rice. The noun *ôn* ‘leaf’ can also collocate with other nouns like *ôn geurusông* ‘dry banana leaf’, and *ôn geulinyueng* literally ‘ear leaf’, the part of an ear which stands out from the head. The noun *peureudèe* ‘clump’ is specifically used for the trees which grow together in a clump, such as bananas and bamboo.

Table 6 presents another category of lexical collocation in Acehese, i.e. category 6 or adverb + adjective collocation.

**Table 6.** Adverb + adjective collocation.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>kureueng jeulah</i> lack+clear	<i>kureueng</i> = adverb <i>jeulah</i> = adjective	rather unclear
2.	<i>beureutôh jai</i> exploding+numerous	<i>beureutôh</i> = adverb <i>jai</i> = adjective	extraordinarily numerous
3.	<i>kôp digèe</i> extremely+annoyed	<i>kop</i> = adverb <i>digèe</i> = adjective	extremely annoyed

From Table 6, the adverb *kureueng* can collocate with adjectives, such as *kureueng mampu* ‘underprivileged’ which is a direct adoption of the Indonesian’s *kurang mampu* ‘not able (financially)’ and *kureueng trang* ‘less bright’. The informants described that the adverb *beureutôh* is basically derived from the verb

*beureutoh* ‘explode’ which is usually collocated only with the adjective expressing a quantity. It is used to describe a significant quantity of something like *beureutôh jai* ‘largely many, extraordinarily many’. The adverb *kôp* ‘very, extremely’ can also collocate with other adjectives, such as *kôp jai* ‘very much’ and *kôp gawat* ‘terrible’.

Finally, the other category of lexical collocation is s verb + adverb collocation, as presented in Table 7.

**Table 7.** Verb + adverb collocation.

No.	Lexical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>mumat beuköng</i>	<i>mumat</i> = verb <i>beuköng</i> = adverb	grip tightly
2.	<i>mat beurangkaho</i>	<i>mat</i> = verb <i>beurangkaho</i> = adverb	hold carelessly
3.	<i>kalön beurap</i>	<i>kalön</i> = verb <i>beurap</i> = adverb	look closely

From Table 7, the adverb *beuköng* ‘tightly’ is also collocable with other verbs like *ikat beuköng* ‘bind tightly’. Meanwhile, the adverb *beurangkaho* literally means ‘anywhere’ and has two meanings, depending on the purpose of speaking. For example, *bek mat pingan beurangkaho* means ‘do not hold the plate carelessly’, but *bek jak beurangkaho beuh!* means ‘do not go anywhere, okay’. The adverb *beurangkaho* ‘anywhere’ in the first example is to tell the interlocutor to be careful of doing something carelessly. The interviewees stated that the adverb *beurap* ‘closely’ is collocable with any other verbs, such as *tôp beurap* ‘close tightly’ and *döng beurap* ‘stand closely’.

An important note to make is that *beuköng* is actually *beu-köng*. This can also be perceived as a small complement clause on its own, rather than an adverb. It means ‘hold it so that it is tight.’ This is also the case for *kalön beu-rap*. The adverb *beurangkaho* is different. So, the *mumat beu-köng* and *kalön beu-rap* phrases are collocations of three lexical components, two of which are joined together (M. Durie, personal communication, March 6, 2022).

#### 4.2 Grammatical Collocations of North Aceh Dialect

Seven combinations were found to be used by the North Acehnese speakers who were interviewed in this study. The first combination is provided in Table 8.

**Table 8.** Noun + preposition combinations.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>ureueng i rumoh</i> people/person-at-home	<i>ureueng</i> = noun <i>i</i> = preposition	the person at home
2.	<i>ureueng lam gampong</i> people/person-in-village	<i>ureueng</i> = noun <i>lam</i> = preposition	people in the village

The combination of noun + preposition has been found in this study and shown in Table 8. It was found that the noun *ureueng* ‘people’ is collocable with different prepositions, as in *ureueng i rumoh* ‘people at home’ and *ureueng lam gampong* ‘people in the village’. From the example, it shows that the preposition *i* (spoken version of *di* meaning ‘at’) is used to explain the existence of someone in a smaller place like *rumoh* ‘home’ while the preposition *lam* ‘in’ is used to explain the existence

of someone in a more prominent place like *gampong* ‘village’. Another explanation is that there is a difference between something which is thought of as one place (a house) and something which is thought of as a region or container of more than one place. You can also be *lam rumah* ‘in the house’ but the meaning is different from *di rumah* ‘at home’ (M. Durie, personal communication, March 6, 2022).

**Table 9.** Preposition + noun combinations.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>keu bijèh</i> for-seeds	<i>keu</i> = preposition <i>bijèh</i> = noun	for the seeds
2.	<i>bak panteue</i> at-bench	<i>bak</i> = preposition <i>panteue</i> = noun	on the wooden/bamboo bench
3.	<i>i cōng bak</i> at-top-tree	<i>i</i> = preposition <i>cōng bak</i> = noun	on top of the tree
4.	<i>bak phôn</i> at-first/beginning	<i>bak</i> = preposition <i>phôn</i> = noun	at the beginning

From Table 9, the preposition *keu* ‘for’ is used to describe the goal of something while the preposition *bak* ‘at’ is generally used to describe the source or the location of things. The preposition *i* ‘on’ is also collocable with other several nouns such as *i cōng rangkang* ‘on top of wooden hut’, *i cōng bubōng* ‘on top of a roof’, and *i cōng panteue* ‘on top of a wooden bench. The interviewees articulated that the noun *cōng* ‘top’ is only used to describe the position of something in a higher place. Thus, if a thing is in the lower place easily reached by hands, the word *cōng* is not needed.

**Table 10.** Adjective + preposition combinations.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>hek bak jak</i> tired-at-go/walk	<i>hek</i> = adjective <i>bak</i> = preposition	tired of walking
2.	<i>meumada ngōn nyan</i> enough-with-that	<i>meumada</i> = adjective <i>ngōn</i> = preposition	enough with that
3.	<i>digèe keu gop</i> annoyed-to-someone	<i>digèe</i> = adjective <i>keu</i> = preposition	angry with someone

The preposition *bak* ‘of’ can collocate with the adjective *teuga* as in *that teuga bak peugah haba* ‘too much talk’. The preposition *keu* is also collocable with other adjectives such as *palak keu jih* ‘mad at him’ and *malèe keu jih* ‘shy with her’. The adjective *meumada* ‘enough’ frequently comes with the preposition *ngōn* as shown in Table 10.

**Table 11.** Intransitive verb + adverbial combinations.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>seuk keudéh lom</i> move about-to there-more	<i>seuk</i> = verb <i>keudéh lom</i> = adverb	move over further
2.	<i>döm teuman</i> stay overnight-next time	<i>döm</i> = verb <i>teuman</i> = adverb	stay overnight next time
3.	<i>galak raya</i> like-huge	<i>galak</i> = verb <i>raya</i> = adverb	like so much

In Table 11, the first collocation is *seuk keudéh lom* ‘move over further. The second collocation found is that the collocations are formed in the sentence. For



example, *singoh tadöm bak lông teuman* ‘please stay overnight at my home next time’. The last collocation is *kapiké galak-ku raya* ‘do you think I really like him that much’ which usually represents a sarcastic remark. The last is verb *galak* ‘like’ which is collocable with the adverbial *that* ‘very’ as in *hana galak-ku that pih* ‘not that I like it that much’.

**Table 12.** Intransitive verb + preposition or prepositional phrase.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>piyôh bak reului</i> stop-at-shade	<i>piyôh</i> = verb <i>bak reului</i> = prepositional phrase	make a stop in a shade
2.	<i>teubit lam</i> exit-in	<i>teubit</i> = verb <i>lam</i> = preposition	come out from
3.	<i>woe i</i> return-at	<i>woe</i> = verb <i>i</i> = preposition	return from
4.	<i>jak u</i> go-to	<i>jak</i> = verb <i>u</i> = preposition	go to
5.	<i>phop bak aleue</i> sit abruptly-at-floor	<i>phop</i> = verb <i>bak aleue</i> = prepositional phrase	sit on the floor

From Table 12, collocations of this combination are generally used in the sentence, as in *jiteubit lam eumpueng* ‘it comes out from the nest’. The next collocation is *ayah ka geuwoe i glé* ‘ayah has returned from the mountain’. The last collocation is *kakak ka geujak u keudè* ‘sister has gone to market’. The researchers found that the word *phop* is used only for a particular activity such as sitting directly on the floor without any underlay. The verb *phop* ‘sit’ can also be collocable with other prepositional phrases; *bak seumen* ‘on the cement floor’, *bak tanoh* ‘on the ground’. In addition, *phop* might be the ‘onomatopoeia’ in which the word comes from the sound of the carelessly sitting activity.

**Table 13.** Transitive verb + (specific) preposition and (an) object.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>adèe lam uroe</i> dry-in-day	<i>adèe</i> = verb <i>lam</i> = preposition <i>uroe</i> = object	dry under the sunlight
2.	<i>lhat bak labang</i> hang-at-nail	<i>lhat</i> = verb <i>bak</i> = preposition <i>labang</i> = object	hang on the nail hanger
3.	<i>sinteue u luwa</i> dry-to-outside	<i>sinteue</i> = verb <i>u</i> = preposition <i>luwa</i> = object	dry (it) outside

There is a difference in meaning and usage between the verbs *adèe* and *sinteue* in Table 13. The verb *sinteue* is used to describe the activity of drying clothes indirectly under the sun; the temporary drying activity is because of some reasons like nighttime or raining, while *adèe* is the activity of drying things under the sun.

**Table 14.** Transitive verb + pronoun.

No.	Grammatical collocations	Part of speech category	Contextual meaning
1.	<i>pakoe jih</i> pay attention-him	<i>pakoe</i> = verb <i>jih</i> = pronoun	pay attention to him

Table 14 continued...

2.	<i>peugah beurangkapu</i> say-any random thing	<i>peugah</i> = verb <i>beurangkapu</i> = pronoun	say any random thing
3.	<i>patéh beurangkasoe</i> trust-any random person	<i>patéh</i> = verb <i>beurangkasoe</i> = pronoun	trust anyone

The meaning of *pakoe* is also commonly expressed by another word which has a similar meaning as in *peureumeun jih* ‘pay attention to him’. The verb *patéh* ‘believe’ can collocate with the pronoun *sapu* ‘anything’ as in *hana patéh sapu* ‘not trust anything’.

## 5. DISCUSSION

This section discusses the result of the study. The discussion takes into consideration theories and findings from past studies and uses them as contexts for the findings of the present study. The discussion looks closely at lexical and grammatical collocation combinations as proposed by Benson et al. (1986, 2010).

### 5.1 Lexical Collocations of the North Aceh Dialect

The interview results showed that the North Aceh dialect has lexical collocation combinations as proposed by Benson et al. (1986, 2010). However, Acehnese and English are two different languages. Although both languages have similar grammatical categories, in specific, they are different. Durie (1985) mentions that Acehnese has no inflectional morphology as many languages do, including English.

Among seven lexical collocations proposed by Benson et al. (1986, 2010), verb (denoting creation or action) + noun category of the North Aceh dialect was found more relatively frequent. The second collocations found in the interview are noun + noun combinations which consist of several similar nouns that collocate with a different noun. For example, *trieng* ‘bamboo tree’ and *peureudèe* ‘clump’ collocate with *pisang* ‘banana’. The interviewees explained that the word ‘*peureudèe*’ is only used for a clumping plant with no branches.

The word order of the third lexical collocations Adjective + Noun is different from English collocations which consist of Noun + Adjective. This is because the language structure between English and Acehnese is not similar in that they are derived from different language roots. Durie (1985) argues that due to its origins in the Southeast Asian Mainland, Acehnese is considered a phonological type characteristic of Austroasiatic languages. Further, Durie (1985) states that there are no adjectives in Acehnese as he identified morphological, semantic, and syntactic characteristics of adjectives. Meanwhile, Asyik (1987, p. 107) argues that even though several Acehnese verbs can be used in comparative degrees, such as *galak* ‘like’, and *banci* ‘hate’, they are different from the adjectives; the verbs have to be used with an object and no such requirements for the adjectives.

The fourth collocations are verb + adverb combination. The data showed that North Acehnese has several similar adverbs collocable with different verbs. The adverb *beurap* is collocable with the verbs *kalon*, and *döng*, which means these combinations are generally used in daily communication among societies of North Aceh. Then, the fifth lexical collocation category is the combination of adverb +

adjective. It shows that the word *kôp* indicates the meaning ‘very’. It might come with another word, but it is collocable only with some adjectives like *kôp brat seupôt* ‘very dark’.

The sixth is the noun + verb combination, in which only three collocation examples were identified. The last is verb + noun combination, which is the least lexical collocation found in the interview. However, not all verbs can be included in this collocation category because the verbs used have particular categories. [Benson et al. \(1986, 2010\)](#) categorize the verbs used in this combination are only the verbs that denote creation or activation.

## 5.2 Grammatical Collocations of the North Aceh Dialect

Grammatical collocations consist of a dominant word, such as a verb, an adjective, or a noun, and a preposition or grammatical structure like an infinitive or a clause ([Farrokh et al., 2012](#)). The grammatical collocations that refer to [Benson et al. \(1986, 2010\)](#) are classified into eight types. Four of those are noun + to-infinitive, noun + that-clause, adjective + to infinitive, and adjective + to-infinitive which are not found in the North Aceh language structure.

Meanwhile, the other four types were found in the interview. The first is the preposition combination with the least data obtained: two noun + preposition combinations and four adjective + preposition combinations. The findings show that the prepositions used in the North Aceh dialect are simpler than those in English. The North Aceh dialect prepositions are small closed word classes that are much simpler and more straightforward than in English even when it is used to encode verbal arguments ([Durie, 1985](#)).

The third is the combination of preposition + noun. It revealed that prepositions which appear in the initial position are more frequent than prepositions used as the second word. Eight collocations were found, and most of them consist of a similar preposition that collocates with several nouns.

The last is the verb patterns type which indicates the uniqueness of the formation of the North Aceh dialect. The verbs of Acehnese are not specifically formed, unlike the verbs in English, which are easily detected. The Acehnese verbs do not have a particular marking, such as moods, aspects, tenses, and derivative participial constructions to indicate that they are verbs ([Durie, 1985](#)).

## 6. CONCLUSION

The North Aceh dialect has the collocations as other languages in general. It has both grammatical and lexical collocations, grouped from some parts of speech including a verb, adverb, noun, pronoun, preposition, and adjective. However, the North Aceh dialect does not have ‘that-clause’ and ‘to-infinitive’ in its language structure. Thus, the four combinations of grammatical collocations as proposed by [Benson et al. \(1986\)](#) in the North Aceh grammatical collocations were not found, such as noun + to-infinitive, noun + that-clause, adjective + to-infinitive, and adjective + that-clause.

In the process of conducting this study, the scarcity of literature, particularly related to the Acehnese collocations, was found. This condition becomes an obstacle

in the development and completion of this study. Thus, it is suggested that other researchers researching the relevant studies focus on a similar topic to provide comprehensive research findings related to the Acehnese collocations. It can also be an approach to documenting and preserving the Acehnese language.

In this study, several types of collocations were found in the North Aceh dialect. As previously mentioned in the introduction that Acehnese has several dialects, it is recommended that further studies conduct parallel research and discover more types of collocations in the dialects from different regions of Aceh. Furthermore, this research was sourced from interview data which is a good entry point to conduct further research based on corpus data. Therefore, future investigation on collocations in Acehnese, using the framework from the present study, will benefit more from larger sets of data in order to provide more comprehensive insight into collocations in Acehnese.

## REFERENCES

- Abdulameer, M. H. (2013). *A linguistic study of the use of collocation in some selected English novels* [Unpublished master's thesis]. University of Baghdad.
- Asyik, A. G. (1987). *A contextual grammar of Acehnese sentences* [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Michigan]. University of Michigan Library.
- Aziz, Z. A. (2016). Speakers' attitudes towards Acehnese different dialects. In Y. Q. Yusuf (Ed.), *Proceedings of the First Reciprocal Graduate Research Symposium between University Pendidikan Sultan Idris and Syiah Kuala University* (pp. 243-250). Syiah Kuala University Press.
- Bahns, J. (1993). Lexical collocations: A contrastive view. *ELT Journal*, 47(1), 56-63. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/47.1.56>
- Baker, P. (2016). The shapes of collocation. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 21(2), 139-164. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.21.2.01bak>
- Benson, M., Benson, E., & Ilson, R. (1986). *Lexicographic description of English*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Benson, M., Benson, E., & Ilson, R. (2010). *The BBI combinatory dictionary of English: Your guide to collocations and grammar*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Cowie, A. P., & Mackin, R. (1993). *Oxford dictionary of phrasal verbs* (No. 425 C874o). Oxford University Press.
- Cruse, A. (2006). *Glossary of semantics and pragmatics*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Durie, M. (1985). *A grammar of Acehnese on the basis of a dialect of North Aceh*. Foris Publications.
- Erman, B. (2007). Cognitive processes as evidence of the idiom principle. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 12(1), 25-53. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.12.1.04erm>
- Farrokh, P., Kambiz, M., & Aolfaz, R. (2012). Corpus-based application for translation of English grammatical collocation in Azeri. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 3(11), 2262-2267.
- Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in linguistics*. Oxford University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Coherence in English*. Longman

- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (2001). *Cohesion in English Beijing: Foreign language teaching and research press*. Edward Arnold (Publishers) Limited.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (2014). *Cohesion in English (English language series; no. 9)*. Routledge.
- Hanafiah, M. A., & Makam, I. (1984). *Struktur bahasa Aceh* [Acehnese grammar]. Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
- Hausmann, F. J. (1984). Wortschatzlernen ist kollokationslernen. Zum lehren und lernen französischer wortverbindungen [Vocabulary learning is collocation learning: To teach and learn French word combinations]. *Praxis Des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*, 31(4) 395-406.
- Hill, J. (2000). Revising priorities: From grammatical failure to collocational success. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation. further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 47-69). Language Teaching Publications.
- Howarth, P. (1998). Phraseology and second language proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(1), 24-44. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.1.24>
- Hung, M., & Chin, Y. H. (2018). The use of corpus and a collocation framework in the comparison of the English tests of two major college entrance examinations in Taiwan. *Asian Journal of Language, Literature and Culture Studies*, 1(1), 1-11.
- Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., & Foster, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Case study method: Key issues, key texts*. Sage.
- Kolesnikova, O., & Gelbukh, A. (2012). Semantic relations between collocations: A Spanish case study. *Revista Signos*, 45(78), 44-59. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0718-09342012000100003>
- Léon, J. (2007). Meaning by collocation: The firthian filiation of corpus linguistics. In D. A. Kibbee (Ed.), *History of linguistics* (pp. 404-415). John Benjamins.
- Lewis, M. (2000). *Language in the lexical approach*. In M. Lewis (Ed.), *Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach* (pp. 133-134). Language Teaching Publications.
- Liu, C. P. (1999a). An analysis of collocational errors in EFL writings. In J. E. Katchen & Y. N. Leung (Eds.), *The Proceeding of the Eighth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 483-494). The Crane Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Liu, C. P. (1999b). A study of Chinese Culture University freshmen's collocational competence: "Knowledge" as an example. *Hwa Kang Journal of English Language & Literature*, 5, 81-99. <https://doi.org/10.7109/HKJELL.199907.0081>
- Liu, C. P. (2000). A study of strategy use in producing lexical collocations. In J. E. Katchen & Y. N. Leung (Eds.), *Selected Papers from the Tenth International Symposium on English Teaching* (pp. 481-492). The Crane Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Majeed, S. H., & Dabbagh, L. A. (2016). Collocation in English conversation classes. *Journal of Humanity Sciences*, 20(4), 36-41.
- McCarthy, M., & O'Dell, F. (2005). *English collocations in use: How words work together for fluent and natural English; Self-study and classroom use*. Ernst Klett Sprachen.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*. SAGE Publications, Inc.



- Muliawati, I., Ismail, N. M., & Zalha, F. B. (2019). Acehnese adolescents' awareness of Acehnese idiom and simile. *Studies in English Language and Education*, 6(2), 319-332. <https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v6i2.14180>
- Muthalib, K. A., Silviyanti, T. M., & Fahlevi, R. (2020). *Bulut or basah?* Which wet is preserved? An investigation of disappearing Acehnese adjectives among young speakers. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, 8(3), 412-425. <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2020.8345>
- Nation, P. (2004). Vocabulary learning and intensive reading. *English Australia Journal*, 21(2), 20-29.
- Nattinger, J. (1987). *Collins Cobuild English language dictionary*. Collins.
- Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Longman.
- Nesselhauf, N. (2003). The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching. *Applied linguistics*, 24(2), 223-242. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/24.2.223>
- Popescu, F. (2019). *A paradigm of comparative lexicology*. Cambridge Scholar Publishing.
- Savin-Baden, M., & Major, C. H. (2013). *Qualitative research: The essential guide to theory and practice*. Routledge
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge university press.
- Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation*. Oxford University Press.
- Sukmadinata, N. S. (2010). *Metode penelitian pendidikan* [Educational research method]. Remaja Rosdakarya
- Sulaiman, B. (1977). *Kedudukan dan fungsi bahasa Aceh di Aceh* [The roles and functions of Acehnese in Aceh]. Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, Depdikbud.
- Ulfa, N., & Muthalib, K. A. (2020). Lexical bundles in students' essay writing. *English Education Journal*, 11(3), 367-379.
- Wang, C. J. (2001). *A study of the English collocational competence of English majors in Taiwan* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Fu-Jen Catholic University.
- Wildan. (2010). *Kaidah bahasa Aceh* [Acehnese grammar]. Geuci.
- Wu, W. S. (1996). Lexical collocations: One way to make passive vocabulary active. *Proceedings of the Eleventh Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China* (pp. 461-480). The Crane Publishing Co. Ltd.
- Wu, S., Li, L., Witten, I. H., & Yu, A. (2016). Constructing a collocation learning system from the Wikipedia corpus. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT)*, 6(3), 18-35.