



Mapping Collocations of Japanese Verbs Based on Relationship and Meaning Clarity

Ulfah Sutiarti¹, Akiha Takako²

¹Universitas Brawijaya, Malang, Indonesia

²Perfectural University of Kumamoto, Kumamoto, Japan

ulfah_s@ub.ac.id

Abstract. Collocation as a linguistic phenomenon has several aspects that need to be identified in order to be functional in language learning. Collocation in Japanese it is called rengo. Machida and Momiyama (1997) assert that rengo is a phrase / clause whose overall meaning can be known from the meaning of each word and each word that forms it cannot be replaced with another word even with the same meaning. In this study researchers set the name of the collocation for the entire word combination, the collocation mapping begins by dividing it into 2 (two), namely the collocation of the free combination category and the collocation of the idiom category. The collocation of the free combination category is further divided into 2 (two), namely the collocation of the weakly structured free combination category and the collocation of the free combination category with a strong structure, then the collocation of the idiom category is divided into the collocation of the weakly structured idiom category and the collocation of the strongly structured idiom category. This study added 1 (one) more category to the free combination category that according to researchers is needed for learning Japanese related to kotoba (言葉) 'kata'.

Keywords: collocation, japanese, verbs

1. Research Background

Collocation as a linguistic phenomenon has several aspects that need to be identified in order to be functional in language learning. Collocation in Japanese it is called rengo. Machida and Momiyama (1997) assert that rengo is a phrase / clause whose overall meaning can be known from the meaning of each word and each word that forms it cannot be replaced with another word even with the same meaning. Exemplified in the phrase yakusoku o yaburu, 'break promise' cannot be replaced with the term yakusoku o kowasu or yakusoku o kuzusu, although the verbs yaburu, kowasu, and kuzusu have the same meaning as yakusoku and yaburu. Another example is that the collocation of kaze o hiku 'cold' cannot be replaced with kaze ni kakaru, kaze o toru, or kaze o motsu. So it can be concluded that rengo, every word already has a pairing that cannot be replaced with another. Komiya (2001), gives an example of rengo (collocation) yama no sakura is a collocation, but yamazakura is a word, not Collocation.

The selection of collocation themes to be used as research topics is based on 1) The difficulty of Japanese learners in choosing the right collocation. This is evidenced by

the results of quizzes that have been carried out, learners often make mistakes on word pairing type test questions. This is because the teaching of kotoba (言葉) Japanese 'words' so far still uses single words, not paired words. This is even clearer if we look at Japanese learning books so far, in the word list section which is generally at the very beginning is still a single word list, so it is still not a word pair. Learners are asked to memorize as many single words as possible, so when they find the test for pairing words difficult, the word chosen does not match the word pair. One of the objectives of this study is to provide a new perspective on collocation mapping so that it can be introduced and used in teaching Japanese words. Introducing explicit word combinations/collocations in language classes is expected to overcome the difficulty of memorizing Japanese kotoba (言葉) 'words' so far. Learners are directed to be able to memorize kotoba (言葉) 'words' that are already in a combined word/collocation structure. 2) The term collocation is still not understood among Japanese language learners,

Based on the above background, this study aims to provide a new perspective for Japanese language learning, especially kotoba (言葉) 'kata' learning by explicitly including collocation as learning material. Of all the types of collocations, researchers chose collocations with the construction of these verbs as the theme of the study because 80% of all collocations in Japanese are collocations with verb construction (Akimoto, 2002).

2. Research Objectives

Finding a mapping of Japanese collocations and Indonesian constructing verbs based on the closeness of relationships and clarity of meaning between words.

3. Previous Research

This research requires previous research related to the theme that the author will research to then become the author's guide and reference in this study. The following are various previous research themes based on the type of research:

- 1) Data corpus-based collocation research has been conducted by several researchers. Srdanovic (2014) examined corpus-based collocation with Japanese language learners as a research target. Srdanovic uses the main corpus query tools Sketch Engine, NINJAL-NLP, Natsume, Chunagon. In his research focus, Srdanovic used adjective and noun collocation data extracted from two major corpora, BCCWJ and JpTenTen, consisting of 500 adjectives and 9,218 collocate nouns, and 500 adjectives and 23,220 collocate nouns from each corpus. From this research produced references to collocation nouns and adjectives that can be used for collocation comparison material in Japanese textbooks for foreigners. Further corpus-based collocation research was conducted by Park (2016) who has extracted collocations in Japanese and Korean with the construction of nouns + particles + verbs. The results of this study can be used for contrastive linguistics.

- 2) Collocation research with the theme of error analysis by English as a foreign language (EFL) learners has been conducted by several researchers with different language backgrounds. Biskup (1992) found that the main cause of the misproduction of B2 collocation in advanced Polish and German students studying English was due to the influence of B1. Bahns and Eldaw (1993) used data from translations of German students studying advanced EFL to determine the production of English collocations in which they were also able to paraphrase them, nouns and verb combinations. Caroli (1998) uses the results of errors of English learners in making collocations for further use in collocation learning. Li (2005) found that EFL learners from Taiwan make many collocation errors in English and collocation errors are because learners tend to translate Taiwanese collocations literally into English. Pereira, Manguilimotan, and Matsumoto (2013) discuss collocations in learning Japanese as a foreign language which concludes that Japanese learners although they can form grammatically correct sentences still sound unnatural.

Another study was conducted by Mahmoud (2005) who stated that 61% of lexical collocation errors of Arabic students are literal translations of the learner's mother tongue. Meanwhile, according to Riazi & Aryashokouh (2007), learners even though they already know the meaning of words, but are still in the level of single meaning and still make mistakes if they have to juxtapose the words with the right collocation. From the research of Webb, Newton and Chang (2013) it is known that 1) repetition techniques in collocation learning are very necessary. There is a significant difference among Taiwanese students who are learning English as a 2nd language at the comprehension level of the 18 collocation sets given. The more often the student practiced, the higher the level of understanding of the collocation given.

- 3) Translation-themed collocation research was conducted by Tambunsaribu (2016) who used the Google translate application to determine the accuracy of translating English collocation into Indonesian. From the results of his research, it was concluded that the translation of English collocation into Indonesian using Google Translate is still not good, in other words, it still produces a lot of collocation abnormalities. So it can be concluded that to produce an acceptable translation still has to require a touch of translator to polish the translation results using google translate.

Hardiyanti (2017) in her research concluded that to translate collocation, more emphasis must be placed on choosing diction and knowledge of the target language. Essa & Ali (2015) conclude that Indian students who are learning English have difficulty in translating collocations and according to them it is easier to translate lexical collocations than grammatical collocations.

The difficulty of research subjects on collocation translation is also found in the translation of collocation of political texts in English into Arabic carried out through synonym translation strategies and literal translation as the main strategies in translation (Shraideh & Mahadin, 2016). The influence of B1 is very strong in B2 collocation knowledge is also emphasized by Kurosaki (2010) who states that collocation teaching for English learning is recommended to

emphasize more on the use of verbs, nouns and propositions. In line with Kurosaiki, Michaud (2013) recommends collocation learning for English learners, so far in English learning learners have focused more on verb conjunctions which result in many errors of English learners in producing collocations in English. Most of the collocation errors they make are due to the influence of B1. This research also produced a collocation learning strategy using image media.

In agreement with previous research, Kasuya in his research stated that so far in learning English for Japanese students still has not touched collocation. This resulted in unusual collocations made by Japanese students who were learning English. In this study, alternative collocation learning strategies have also been found, including introducing collocation through reading material. Students are asked to find their own form of collocation in the readings provided. In addition, Kasuya also introduced the use of Japanese – English collocation dictionaries. By learning collocation correctly, students learning foreign languages will be able to produce acceptable collocations without the influence of B1.

Said (2010) in his research discussing the unusual use of collocation of BIPA learners concluded that BIPA learners make many collocations unusual. The unusual collocation of BIPA learners contains elements of negative transfer from the learner's mother tongue, namely English into the target language (which in this study is Indonesian).

3.1. Collocation

The definition of collocation according to de Saussure is one form of syntagmatic relationships, in other words that each element of language has proximity to other elements that are at a linear level (in presentia). The idea of collocation was started by John R. Firth (1890-1960) is etymologically derived from the Latin *locare*, 'to locate', and, 'together'. But before that pedagogical studies of first and second language acquisition have alluded to collocation, which according to them are parts of a language that are understood, memorized and then used by speakers as a whole as a means to achieve language fluency (Pawley and Syder, 1983). Harold Palmer (1877-1949 at the beginning of the XX century) pioneered the study of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) by listing more than 6,000 collocations that are often used in teaching and students can study them in blocks. Further studies of collocation were undertaken by Albert Sydney Hornby (1898–1978) who incorporated collocation information into dictionaries from a series he began with the *ISED*, the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* (1942), and which was continued with the *English Fluent Learning Dictionary* (1948), the *English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (1952), and the *Oxford Advanced Learning Dictionary* (reprinted several times). Anthony P. Cowie, Peter Howarth, and by Michael Lewis, who considered collocation to be the "island of reliability" of speaker speech (Lewis, 2000).

It can be concluded that collocation first arose from pedagogical studies on language acquisition that linked it to a high level of language proficiency, which can only be achieved by speakers through memorization and this is a privilege that only teak

speakers have. From the realm of pedagogical interest language acquisition to collocation ultimately provides a strong motivation for the study, collection, and analysis in the perspective of language teaching. The theory of collocation is continued by Bußmann (1990) and Glück (1993) who state that collocation is a word that is side by side and has a high frequency of occurrence, therefore an order will be formed and even proven in every appearance there is a dependence of one element with another. Furthermore, Reder (2006) suggests that in its use words are side by side with words that cannot be replaced with other words.

The limitation of collocation is which words can be used together, for example, which prepositions and verbs are used together, or which nouns appear with certain verbs (Richards, Platt and Platt, (1992). The occurrence of two or more words in a short space from each other in a text is called collocation. The usual measure of closeness is a maximum of four intervening words (Sinclair, 1991). Meanwhile, according to Quasthoff (2011) there are two elements in collocation, namely the dominating element called the base, and the next element that functions as a modifier is called a collocator. Benson, Benson, & Ilson (1997) suggest that collocation is divided into 2 (two), namely grammatical and lexical collocation. Shei and Pain (2000) assert that collocation is a group of words that tend to appear together. Meanwhile, in the Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2002) it is explained that collocation is that in every language there are words that combine to produce speech and writing that sounds natural.

Collocation as a linguistic phenomenon has several aspects that need to be identified in order to be functional in language learning. To identify collocation there are 2 (two) approaches as expressed by Barnbrook et al (2013) and Gyllstad (2014) that collocation can be identified in 2 (two) different approaches, namely statistical approaches and phrasological or linguistic based approaches. In agreement with this, Gyllstad (2014) states that collocation in language in general can be explained from two dominating theories: (a) a frequency-based approach that focuses on the usual co-occurrence of two or more words in natural language use and the identification of such co-occurrence on statistical grounds; and (b) a phraseological approach that focuses on collocation as a combination of words governed by semantic aspects, such as idiomaticity and finite substitution. This opinion is reinforced from several previous research results which suggest that collocations are identified variously according to the researcher's point of view. Hausmann (1984), Lehr (1996), and Evert (2004) also agree that definitions of collocation vary across research projects and practical relevance is an important element of their definitions. Collocation should be seen as a linguistic expression with its linguistic status demonstrated, so syntactic constructs must be formed and interrelated correctly. This condition will presumably outperform the contextual conditions that require them to appear in close proximity to each other.

According to Im and Kim (2002) collocation refers to the polar binary relationship of lexical dependence, where the dominating lexical unit is called the "base" choosing the dominated lexical unit is called the "collocation". In Japanese, a noun is "basic", while a verb is "collocated". In the Japanese sentence *hon-o yomu*, reading', noun-*hon*, 'book' serves as the basis in this collocation relationship, and chooses the *yomu* verb 'reading' as the collocation. At the stage of selection which units are the basis and which

are "collocated" can be assumed as follows; First, it may seem that the yomu verb 'read' selects nouns such as hon 'book' and kiji 'article.' In fact, it is widely assumed in the syntactic literature that (i) the verb is the head of the Verb Phrase and (ii) if the verb is transitive, it selects the NP object as the (internal) argument (Carnie:2012). Here, however, in the phrase omoshiroi hon o yonda 'reading an interesting book' yomu 'reading' is not choosing the noun hon 'book' alone but the whole part of NP omoshiroi hon ' interesting book.' While in the following example sentence:

Hon-O Yukkurit Yonda
'Read books slowly'

The noun in the sentence above, namely hon 'book' is in a collocation relationship with the verb yonda 'to read' not yukkurito yonda 'to read slowly'. Based on the above example it follows that in the case of collocation, the noun chooses the verb and not vice versa. Regarding the closeness of the relationship and clarity of meaning between words, there are differences of opinion among experts.

Table 1. Word Merge Term Mapping 1

Target language	Researchers	Free combination	Limited combinations	Fixed combination
English	Nesselhauf (2005), Laufer & Walman (2011)	Free combination	Collocation	Idioms
Japanese	Wang & Shaw (2008)	Free collocation	Limited collocation	Idioms
	Craig (1985)	Words	Collocation	Idioms
	Miyaji (1985)	Collocation of common categories	Collocation of idiom categories	Idiom kiasan
	Muraki (1985,1991)	Free collocation	Collocation	Idioms
	Yamada (2007)	General categories	Collocation	Idioms
	Fukada (2008), Miyoshi (2011)	Free combination	Collocation	Idioms
	Akimoto (1992, 2002)	Free combination	Collocation	Idioms
	I (2014)	Collocation		
		Free combination	Limited combinations	Idioms

Based on the table above, it is known that there are several opinions regarding the terms used for word combinations. In this study researchers set the name of the collocation for the entire word combination, the collocation mapping begins by dividing it into 2 (two), namely the collocation of the free combination category and the collocation of the idiom category. The collocation of the free combination category is further divided into 2 (two), namely the collocation of the weakly structured free combination category and the collocation of the free combination category with a strong structure, then the collocation of the idiom category is divided into the collocation of the weakly structured idiom category and the collocation of the strongly structured idiom category. This study added 1 (one) more category to the free combination category that according to researchers is needed for learning Japanese related to kotoba (言葉) 'kata'.

3.2. Idioms

a. Understanding idioms and characteristics of idiomatic phrases

Idioms are forms of speech whose meanings have been unified and cannot be interpreted from the meanings of their formers, either lexically or grammatically. According to Kridalaksana (2008) idioms are constructions of elements that choose each other, each member has a meaning that exists only because it is with the other or a construction whose meaning is not the same as the combined meaning of its members. According to Chaer (2014) idioms are language units either in the form of words, phrases or sentences whose meaning cannot be drawn from the general grammatical rules that apply in the language, or cannot be predicted from the lexical meaning of the elements that make it up.

It is also said by Chaer (2014) that although the meaning of idioms cannot be drawn according to general grammatical rules that apply or cannot be predicted from the lexical meaning of the elements, historically comparative and etymological it seems that the overall meaning can still be found with the lexical meaning of the elements. That is, the meaning of the idiom can still be predicted from the lexical meaning of the elements that make it up. In Indonesian exemplified like a "miserly" yellow butt, going to the land of "dead" worms. The meaning of idioms is exocentric, meaning that their meaning cannot be spelled out either lexically or grammatically from the meaning of the elements. In Japanese, the idiom is called kanyoku (慣用句), which is an expression formed from several words whose overall meaning is not the meaning of the constituent elements (Akimoto: 2002).

Idioms are often referred to as word combinations, constructions, word groups, language units and others. This is because the form of idioms is indeed in the form of combining words with words or a combination between two or more words. Basically, the combination of words forms one word that has a new meaning and figurative meaning. It is also known that there are combined words in the form of phrases and combined words in the form of compound words and have figurative meanings. In addition, there are several forms of words that when undergoing a looping process become new meanings, figurative meanings (do not have the lexical meaning of the word itself) and have straightforward meanings, for example spies, sweets, uses. So,

language units in the form of idioms can take the form of rewords, compound words and phrases.

The combined words aizuchi o utsu (相槌を打つ) 'strike', ashi o arau (足を洗う) 'wash feet', abura o uru (油を売る) 'selling oil' are idioms in Japanese. An idiom is a combination of two or more words and the following are the characteristics of idioms in the Japanese language.

- a. Unlike the usual collocation, its constituent elements cannot be freely replaced by synonyms or antonyms. For example, abura o uru (油を売る) 'selling oil' has the synonym oiru o uru (オイルを売る), 'selling oil' cannot be replaced with the antonym abura o uru 油を売る 'buying oil'
- b. The rules of word combinations that apply to idioms are not the same as the rules of collocation in general. For example, in the idiom aizuchi o utsu (相槌を打 'forging', although it can be changed into a negative sentence to aizuchi o utanai (相槌を打たない), 'not forging' or inserting the conjunction aizuchi o jouzuni utsu (相槌上手にを打つ), 'very good at forging', but aizuchi which is the element of nouns forming this idiom cannot be changed like nouns in general, such as utta aizuchi (打った相槌) 'forged aizuchi ga utareru (相槌が打たれる) 'forged aizuchi'. So it can be concluded that the rules of word combinations that apply to idioms cannot be functioned all like the rules of combining words for nouns in general. When compared to the combined word kotoba o iku (言葉を言う) 'pronouncing a word', for this compound words can be changed by any syntactic operation.
- c. The overall meaning is fixed / cannot be replaced with other nouns and cannot be derived from the meaning of each component. For example, ashi o arau (足を洗う) 'washing feet' has the literal meaning of cleaning the feet using water but when used as an idiom, this combination of words is used when a person spends a long time in a job or situation that is not good or a lifestyle that is not and at some point finally decides to live the right way / wants to live a normal life

b. Types of Idioms

According to Akimoto (2002), idioms in Japanese in terms of meaning are divided into 3 (three) types, namely:

- 1) Idioms whose constituent elements are unclear and there are parts of idioms that can only be applied to idioms

Example: Kuda o maku (管を巻く) 'tube reel'

Saying things you don't understand or saying things you can't do over and over again. It is often used to describe drunkenness, such as "getting drunk and winding a pipe."

'Saying things you don't understand or repeating them repeating over and over again. Often used for drunken conditions.'

- 2) Idioms whose constituent elements can be estimated from their constituent elements.

Example: me ni hairu (目に入る) 'visible'

The above idiom can be estimated after looking at its constituent noun, namely me (め) 'eye', so it can be inferred that the action uses me (め) 'eye, which is "accidentally visible to the eye'

- 3) The literal and idiomatic meaning that an idiom has.

Example: ashi o arau (足を洗う) 'washing feet' who have 'left a job that is generally not good / insyaf' (Kanyoku Jiten :1992)

4. Collocation Mapping Indicator

The following indicators have been determined by researchers to describe each collocation found in the data source:

Table 2. Collocation Mapping Indicators

No	Indicator	Sub indicators	Collocation			
			Categories Weakly structured free combinations	Categories Strongly structured free combinations	Categories Weakly structured idioms	Categories Strongly structured idioms
1	Order of meaning in the dictionary (Gensen, Kokugo Jiten)	1st meaning	O	O	X	X
		2nd meaning dst	X	O	O	O
2	Meaning of collocation	The meaning is very clear	O	O	X	X
		Meaning is only implied	X	X	O	O
		The meaning is completely absent from its forming word	X	X	X	O
3	Use of nouns containing fields of meaning		X	O	X	X
4	Free noun substitution		O	O	X	X

5	Diverse formation structure		O	O	X	O
6	Adverb insertion		O	O	X	O
7	There are times when it is connected with the concept of thinking /cultural elements and customs of the language-speaking community		X	X	O	O

Based on the table above, the collocation of each type can be described. The following is a discussion of each collocation category.

4.1 Collocation constructs verbs of weakly structured free combination categories.

Collocations that fall into this category have the following characteristics:

- a. Collocations whose constituent nouns can be freely replaced or it can be said that this type of collocation is not a fixed pair.

Here is an example of this category collocation.

Table 3. Weakly Structured Free Combination Table 1

No	Nomina	Partikel	Verb
1	お寺 otera	を o	見ました <i>mimashita</i> 'see'
	桜 sakura 'cherry blossom'		
	紅葉 koyou 'autumn leaves'		
	星 Hoshi 'star'		
	富士山 fujisan 'Mount Fuji'		
2	荷物 Nimotsu 'goods'	を o	持ちます Mochimasu 'bring'
	お弁当 Obento 'Bekal'		
	服 Fuku 'clothes'		
	傘 Kasa 'payung'		
	喫茶店 Kissaten 'coffee shop'	に	入ります

3	ここ Coco 'Disini'	in	Hairimasu 'Sign in'
	部屋 heya' room		
	交番 Kouban 'polis post'		

b. Diverse structure

One of the characteristics of the next weakly structured free combination collocation is that it has a varied formation structure. Here are some examples of sentences contained in the data source.

Table 4. Weakly Structured Free Combination Collocation Formation Structure Table

No	Formation structure	Sentence
(1)	nomina + partikel (ni) + verba	Why don't you go into that coffee shop? The kiss of the hairy 'How about we walk into that coffee shop?'
(2)	nomina + partikel (o) + verba	Mr./Ms. Miller, <u>can you help me unload my luggage</u> Mira-san, <u>nimotsu is</u> the tetsudatteromoraemasen. 'Mira, can you ask for help to unload (this) item?'
(3)	Nomina + partikel (ga) + verba	There is a mirror hanging on the wall Don't <u>just pray and pray</u> 'There is a mirror hanging on the wall'
(4)	nomina + partikel (no) + adj (i) + nomina + partikel (o) + verba	<u>I saw a new personal computer with power</u> <u>electricity.</u> Pawa-Denki no Atrashu Pascon and Mimashita. 'see the latest computer from Pawadenki'
(5)	Adj na+ nomina + partikel (o) + verba	I saw beautiful flowers in the mountains. In the name of the Name of Hana 'On the mountain (I) saw a beautiful flower'
(6)	noun modifier + partikel (o) + verba	While studying in Japan, he was surprised to <u>see a</u> <u>map of the world that an American student had</u> <u>created.</u> It's been a long time coming, it's been a long time coming. "The man was shocked after seeing the world map created by American students."
(7)	nomina + partikel (no) adverb + partikel (no) +	I'm in trouble because my <u>bicycle or motorcycle is</u> <u>parked in front of my house</u> near the station.

	nomina +partikel (o)+verba	I'm going to take a shower, I'm going to take a shower. 'Because my house is near the station, it makes it difficult for me to park my vehicle in front of my house.
(8)	adj (i) +nomina +partikel (ga) + verba	It has a large pocket on the outside. Sotogawa ni ookii poketto ga tsuite imasu 'There is a big pocket on the outside'

Based on the example above, it is known that there are several structures formed from the collocation of the category of weakly structured free combinations. The collocation structure above serves to describe nouns, from simple form structures that only add adjectives to complex ones using modifier noun sentences. The more complex the formation structure, the more difficult it will be for learners to understand the meaning of collocation. However, in the collocation of the category of weak structure free combinations, it is assumed that it is still not so difficult for Japanese learners because learners can trace the meaning of collocation based on the meaning of each word that makes it up. It is also facilitated by the meaning of each word that makes up the collocation of this category is a lexical meaning. The learner can quickly understand the collocation as a whole if he has memorized the meaning of each of the words that make up this free-combination category collocation.

c. Can be inserted adverbs.

One of the characteristics of the next weakly structured free combination category collocation is that this category collocation can be inserted adverbs. Here is an example of a free combination collocation found in a data source and sorted by adverb type according to Masuoka and Takubo (1989).

4.2 Collocation constructed nouns of categories of strongly structured free combinations

Collocations that fall into this category have the following characteristics:

- a. This type of collocation uses the 1st verb meaning in the Japanese dictionary Gensen Kokugo Daijiten and is side by side with nouns that have a field of meaning.

Here is an example of a collocation of this category

Table 5. Collocation of Strongly Structured Free Combination Categories

No	Nomina	Partikel	Verb
	ペット petto' petto'	を	飼う

(1)	羊 hitsuji'sheep'	o	'kau ' keep
	動物 doubutsu'animal'		
(2)	布 Nuno 'kain'	が Ga	破れる Yabureru 'torn'
	紙 We are 'paper'		
	袋 Fukuro 'Pouch'		
	靴下 Kutsushita 'socks'		
(3)	赤い靴 Akai kutsu 'red shoes'	を o	履く Haku 'wear'
	ズボン Zubon 'trousers'		
	シューズ Shu-zu 'shoes'		

Based on the data above, it can be seen that the collocation of the construction of verbs of the category of free combinations with strong structures has entered the category that is difficult for Japanese language learners who use Indonesian as B1. This is because this category collocation is a strong pair, the nouns that are alternative substitutes are not as many as those used in weakly structured free category collocations. So that the learner must memorize pairs of nouns as a whole or in pairs even though the nouns used still use lexical meaning

- b. Collocations that use verbs that are not the 1st meaning and accompanying nouns are freely replaced by other nouns.

This category collocation in addition to using the 1st meaning verb also uses the meaning verb instead of the 1st meaning. As exemplified above, for those who use the meaning of 1, the accompanying noun is a bound noun / noun that cannot be freely replaced. Meanwhile, if you use a verb instead of the 1st meaning, the noun that follows it is an unbound noun / a noun that is free can be replaced without changing the overall meaning.

Here is an example sentence for collocating a category of strongly structured free combinations using verbs that are not the 1st meaning

- (1) Santosu Sun wa Densi Yeshe and Motteimasu
'Santosu san has an electronic dictionary'

- (2) Don't pray for the Lord's Prayer
'Is he going to compete?'

Nihon de wa anten mengkoushou o motte, mibunshaumeisho to suru bai ga aaru

'In Japan, a driver's license can be used as an identity card'.

The meaning of the verb *motsu* in sentence (1) above has the meaning of *jibun no mono toshiteiru. Shoyuu shiteiru.* 'has' (自分のものとしている。所有している) (Gensen, Kokugo Jiten, p: 2294) and in sentence (2) a collocation is found that uses the verb *deru* (出る) with the meaning *aru basho ni sugata o arawasu* (ある場所に姿を現す) 'appearing at the meeting'. (Gensen, Kokugo Jiten, p: 1605). The verb *deru* (出る) and verb *mots* (持つ) are the meaning of the 2nd (two) meaning.

c. This category collocation has a diverse formation structure

This category collocation is the same as the free combination collocation still using a varied formation structure. Although the verbs that make up this category collocation still use lexical meanings, the verbs used are verbs, not the 1st meaning, so it is assumed that it will be quite difficult for Japanese learners to quickly understand the collocation in question.

4.3 Collocation Categories of weakly structured idioms

Here are some examples of sentences that use the weakly structured Idiom Category collocation found in the data source:

Table 6. Collocation Table of Weakly Structured Idiom Categories

No	Nomina	Partikel	Verb	Meaning
(1)	Ocha 't'eh' (お茶.)	o	ならいます Naraimasu	Learning the t'eh drinking ceremony
(2)	Ocha 't'eh' (お茶)	o	たてます Tateru	Making tea
	Puran 'plan' (プラン)			plan
	Hara 'belly' (腹)			angry

From the examples above, it is concluded that the collocation of weakly structured idiom categories is what has distinctive characteristics:

1. Collocations that use meaning instead of 1st meaning
2. Collocations that cannot freely change nouns or it can be said that these collocations are already permanent pairs.
3. Collocations that cannot be interpreted one by one from the verb nouns that form them must be translated in pairs, but the meaning elements of the verb nouns that form them are still implied (using grammatical meaning).
4. Collocation that is sometimes related to the concept of thinking / cultural elements and habits of the language-speaking community
5. Structurally, this type of collocation is very tight so that adverbs of any type cannot be inserted.

4.4 Collocation of Strongly Structured Idiom Categories

The collocation of constructing strongly structured idiom category verbs as exemplified in the introduction is not found in the data source of this study. Here is an example of a collocation of strongly structured idiom categories and their understanding drawn from other sources.

1. Aizuchi o Utsu = Nodding or tuning while listening.
Aizuchi o Utsu = Hanashi and Kikingara, Unazuitari Chaushi and Awassetari Suru
'Nodding or listening while listening to someone speak.'
2. Horses fit (horses fit) = good compatibility.
Uma ga au = aishou ga hi koto
'something very suitable'

3. nail piercing (nail pointing) = Be careful in advance not to break your promise by mistake.
 Kugi ga sasu = machigate yakusoku o yabuttari shinai yau memotte aayini chui shitiyoku koto.
 'Warn the other party in advance not to accidentally break a promise'
 From the examples above, it is concluded that the collocation of strongly structured idiom

categories has distinctive characteristics:

1. Collocations that use verbs that are not the 1st meaning
2. Collocations that cannot freely change nouns or it can be said that these collocations are already permanent pairs.
3. Collocations that cannot be interpreted individually from the verb nouns that form them must be translated in pairs
4. Collocation that is sometimes related to the concept of thinking / cultural elements and habits of the language-speaking community
5. Structurally, the formation of this type of collocation is not tight so that adverbs can be inserted.

5. Conclusion

From the explanation of the research results above, we can conclude that collocation is a linguistic phenomenon that is very difficult for Japanese language learners. Collocation is also a multifaceted phenomenon related to the culture of the target language speakers. So it is not always enough to understand the lexical meaning to understand sentences or conversations in Japanese. When words are combined to create new expressions, there is a slight difference in nuance from the original meaning of the word. Therefore, it is very important for Japanese language learners to learn the use of words in the form of collocations rather than memorizing words separately.

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