

The Translation of Clausal Extension Collocation: A Contrastive Study of English-Indonesian Translation

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Abstract. Collocation is the co-occurrence of words comprising a node and one or more collocates. Insufficient studies have documented on the equivalence of source language (SL) collocation into more than one version of target language (TL) collocation. Hence, this study aims to explore the equivalence of English clausal extension collocations in the three versions of Indonesian translated novels, to identify the typology of the translations, to deal with the cohesive ties of the translations, to investigate the translation techniques used, and to observe the impact of translation techniques on the quality of the translation in terms of accuracy, acceptability, and readability. The methods applied in this research were quantitative and descriptive qualitative. The data were taken from a novel *Pride and Prejudice* and the three versions of Indonesian translated novels. Documentary analysis was implemented in collecting the data. They were pinpointed, coded, evaluated, classified and analysed. Further, the findings indicate that English clausal extension collocations are translated into Indonesian in the form of clausal extension, verbal extension, clausal enhancement, verbal enhancement collocation, and non-verbal node collocation. Meanwhile, the cohesive ties of the collocations include strong and weak cohesive ties. The translation techniques applied are generalization, established equivalence, modulation, amplification, and discursive creation. The use of generalization, established equivalence, modulation and amplification results in accurate, acceptable, and readable translations. On the other hand, discursive creation and deletion result in less accurate, less acceptable and less readable. It was concluded that it is the arbitrariness of language that results the different typology and cohesive tie of collocation among languages. Altogether, accuracy, acceptability and readability should be the goal of translation.

Keywords: *Arbitrariness; Clausal Extension Collocation, Translation Quality Assessment, Translation Techniques*

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INTRODUCTION

Every language has its own standardization with regard to the placement of words in sequences of lexemes. In some cases, this is identical between one language and another. However, in many cases words are juxtaposed in arbitrary trait in the lexical sequences. Thus, translators should pay attention to the differences in the ways certain lexemes are placed next to others when transferring messages from SL into TL. These differences can be shown in the example of the English juxtaposition *pay someone a visit* in the clause *She paid him a visit while he was in the hospital*. The sequence *paid him a visit* can be transferred into Indonesian using a single lexeme, i.e. *membesuk*. It cannot be translated word for word into *membayar* ‘paid’ *dia* (*laki-laki*) ‘him’, and *sebuah kunjungan* ‘a visit’. Another example can be described in the juxtaposition *make a suggestion*. The English verb *make* cannot be transferred literally into Indonesian as *membuat* ‘make’. *Make* should be translated as *memberi* ‘give’. The juxtaposition of *make a suggestion* is equal to *memberi saran*; *memberi* ‘give’ and *saran* ‘suggestion’.

On the other hand, the juxtaposition of *give birth* can also be transferred into Indonesian as a single lexeme, i.e. *melahirkan*. Transferring *give birth* into Indonesian by preserving the pattern will lead to an incorrect translation. The sequence of words **memberi kelahiran* (*memberi* ‘give’ and *kelahiran* ‘birth’) produces incorrect equivalence in Indonesian. The production of incorrect equivalence commonly occurred if the SL text is not familiar to learners (Shahivand, 2015).

The emergence of juxtaposing lexemes in a given text is a phenomenon known as collocation. Collocation is the co-occurrence of words comprising a node and one or more collocates. The semantic meaning of a node is determined by the collocates. As an example, the meaning of ‘make’ in ‘make a lot of money’ and ‘make a mistake’ is different. The meaning of ‘make’ in the former collocation is ‘gain’, while its meaning in the latter is ‘perform’. This concept constitutes the co-occurrence of two or more words in a text or the tendency for certain words to combine with one another. It may also be described as setting lexemes side by side or placing words next to each other in a text. Collocation *per se* comes from two Latin words: the word *cum* ‘with’ and the word *locus* ‘place’ (Firth, 1957). Additionally, Singleton (2000) explained that words which form collocations are repeatedly ‘placed with’ each other; they often co-occur within a short text (p.47).

It was John. R. Firth who first popularized the term collocation and defined it as the company that words keep or actual words in habitual company (Firth, 1957). Firth assumed that the intention of a word is governed by co-occurring words at a syntagmatic level. Firth proposed an example of *dark night* as a collocation and justified that one of the senses of *night* is its collocability with *dark* and one of the meanings of *dark* is its collocability with *night*. Another scholar, Sinclair, also presented his own definition of collocation. Sinclair (1991) stated that every collocation is comprised of two elements; they are node and collocate. Node refers to a thing in which its collocations are being investigated, while collocates are defined as lexemes in the environment of the node.

It is worth mentioning that the restriction of each combination influences the diversity of collocation among languages. The differences in the way words combined suit the characteristics of a language, i.e. arbitrary. For example, the English verb *take* collocates with *medicine*. This collocation cannot be translated literally into Indonesian as **mengambil obat* (*mengambil* 'take' and *obat* 'medicine'). The equivalence of *take* in *take medicine* is *minum* 'drink'. The English verbal collocation *take medicine* is translated as *minum obat* (*minum* 'drink' and *obat* 'medicine').

The difference between collocations in English and Indonesian is also influenced by the difference of collocational range in the two languages. McIntosh (1961) is one scholar who discussed collocational range. Collocational range deals with the specific collocations a person produces in a series of particular instances. Furthermore, McIntosh argued that some words have different ranges than others. For example, one may say *a blue car*, *a blue sky*, *a blue jacket*, *a blue shirt*; while *blonde* is restricted only to be used with *hair*. It can be concluded that *blue* has a wider collocational range than *blonde*. In other words, *blonde* has a very restricted collocational range. Carter (2012) had the same idea as McIntosh. He explained that some words have restrictive ranges. *Putrid*, *rotten*, *rancid*, and *addled* are virtually synonymous but *putrid* collocates with *fish*, *rancid* with *butter*, *oil*, *lard*, *addled* is limited to *eggs*, while *rotten* can collocate with *fish* and *eggs*. Furthermore, he gave the example of *friendly* and *amicable*. These two words are synonymous but only *amicable* is acceptable in the sentence: *The divorce was an amicable one*. Translators not only face problems in translating collocations in short texts; they also encounter problems in translating literary works.

Literary works does not only deliver social messages; it also acts as a bridge to build harmony in the society (Weda & Saleh, 2018). Translating collocations in a literary work, i.e. a novel, may produce certain obstacles due to the writer's intention to produce a poetic effect in his or her work. The poetic meaning of different languages may lead translators to translate a text, and especially a collocation, literally. Literal translation often fails to accommodate the poetic effect in a text. Furthermore, the different eras in which a novel is written and translated into another language may cause a different style of language to be used when transferring messages from the SL into the TL. Some words found in the SL novel may no longer be used in the era in which the novel is translated.

The lack of poetic effect and loss of the message contained in the SL are also influenced by the incorrect choice of translation technique. The choice of translation technique affects the quality of a translation. In order to investigate the translation quality of collocations, the researcher uses the translation techniques proposed by Molina and Albir (2002). The application of certain techniques has an impact on the typology of the collocation and the cohesive ties underlying the collocation, as well as influencing the quality of the translation. Accordingly, this study was conducted with the purpose of investigating the translation of collocations in terms of their typology, cohesive ties, translation techniques and the impact of translation techniques on the quality of the translation.

Clausal extension collocation

A number of scholars have contributed to the classification of collocation typology. [Benson et al. \(2010\)](#) developed two kinds of typology of collocation. They classify collocation as either grammatical collocation or lexical collocation. A dominant word combined with a preposition is categorized as grammatical collocation; lexical collocation, on the other hand, is composed of dominant words. Another classification of root sequence is introduced by [Martin \(1992\)](#). He focuses on nuclear relations, namely extension and enhancement. These two classifications are divided into three sub-classifications; they are clausal, verbal and nominal ([Martin, 1992, p. 320](#)).

Extension and enhancement are two categories which come under the heading of nuclear relations ([Martin, 1992, p. 309](#)). They reflect the ways in which actions, people, places, things and qualities configure as activities in activity sequences. Nuclear relations are also regarded as collocations. A clausal extension collocation *per se* is composed of a node realized in a process and one or more collocates in the form of participants. The example of clausal extension presented by Martin is *chase cat*. For verbal extension, [Martin \(1992\)](#) gave the examples *keep looking*, *happen to see*, and *promise to go* (p. 315). Meanwhile, adverbial realizations of manner are probably better treated as verbal enhancements ([Martin, 1992, p. 316](#)). He proposed as an example of verbal enhancement *chase furiously*. On the other hand, clausal enhancement is defined as a process modified by a circumstance as in *chase around the room*.

Cohesive ties

Types of collocation are also distinguished by the strength of the cohesive tie in the juxtaposition of a node and its collocates. Collocation is one of the cohesive devices introduced by [Halliday and Hasan \(1976\)](#). Every collocation has its own strength of cohesive tie. The two main classifications of cohesive ties are canonical and non-canonical. The acceptable or commonly used collocations by speakers of a language are called canonical cohesive tie collocations, whereas the unacceptable, untypical, unmarked or unusual collocations are referred to as non-canonical cohesive tie collocations ([Poulsen, 2005](#)).

The lower the strength of the cohesive tie of a collocation, the easier it is for learners or translators to master and use the collocation. This group of collocations is referred to as weak collocation. This type of collocation is composed of words which echo denotative meaning. [Lewis \(2000\)](#) gave a few examples of weak cohesive tie collocations; they are *red hair*, *blue shirt*, and *red car*. In these examples, *hair* denotes literal meaning. The English noun *hair* can be limited by various adjectives. Translating *hair* into Indonesian does not produce any significant constraints for translators; hence the collocations mentioned above can be translated literally into Indonesian as *rambut merah*, *kemeja biru*, and *mobil merah*. [Lewis \(2000\)](#) stated that a collocation with denotative meaning can be classified as an open collocation. It can be said that an open collocation consists of a denotative meaningful lexeme.

In contrast to weak collocations or open collocations, strong collocations have strong cohesive ties. Stubbs (2002, p. 117) used the example of *rancid butter*. To reveal the state of butter (margarine) that is no longer fresh or in good condition, the word *rancid* is used. *Rancid* cannot be used in relation to eggs, as in *rancid egg*, nor can it be used to limit *apple* as in *rancid apple*. This reasoning is the basic notion for categorizing *rancid butter* as a strong collocation.

Previous studies on translating collocation

Collocation is regarded as a pervasive phenomenon across languages. It takes a great deal of consideration for translators to realize that every language has its own specific components in juxtaposing words. Collocation does not merely rely on the structure of a language; more than that, it takes into consideration cultural aspects embodied in a given language. Based on this fact, many scholars have carried out research on the subject of translating collocation.

Various studies have been conducted to scrutinize the translation of collocation from one language into another (Feng et al., (2018); Hudcovičová et al., (2021); Igaab & Abdulhasan, (2018); Rivera et al., (2013); Sughair, (2007); and Wehrli and Nerima, (2013). To investigate form and meaning of collocation, Feng et al. (2018) delved into a study concerning the translation of Chinese collocation into English. The findings imparted that the translated texts were indicated by the over-use of free combinations and collocations with a literal meaning.

In the previous studies conducted by Hudcovičová et al. (2021), the general discussion was comparing the patterns of English grammatical of the verb and preposition collocation into Slovak language. They proclaimed that form verb followed by preposition in Slovak sentences was identical with the English patterns in almost all cases. Meanwhile, in a study conducted by Igaab and Abdulhasan (2018), it was mentioned that there are various similarities and differences between English and Arabic collocation. They unfolded that linguistically English collocation to some extent differs from Arabic collocation. On the other hand, they also carry some similarities.

Similar to Igaab and Abdulhasan (2018), the findings of Rivera et al. (2013)'s study revealed that the similarity of the two collocations cannot be transferred into the same equivalence in another language. An example the English collocation *fast food*. The adjective *fast* has a similar meaning to *quick*, *speedy*, and *rapid*. This similarity does not simultaneously transfer the equivalence of fast into one of the words of similar meaning. These words are not fully interchangeable. This study proposes patterns for translating English collocations into Spanish collocations. In the context of translation technique, Sughair (2007) explored the translation techniques used by students in translating collocations. The findings of this research show that the most dominant technique applied is calque. This is followed by other techniques, i.e. modulation, deletion, literal translation, explication, transformation, and paraphrasing.

In addition, Wehrli and Nerima (2013) conducted a research study on the subject of collocation. This research focuses on translating English collocations into French. They investigate the problems of translating English collocations which are composed of a verb followed by a noun. This research also discovers the

shortcomings of machine translation for translating collocations, and offers solutions to overcome the problems. The findings of this research show that the diversity of cultural aspects creates difficulties in translating verb and noun collocations. They suggest that one cannot rely on machine translation for translating collocations. This strengthens the argument that translating collocation is not the basic transfer of words into other words in the TL; it is the transfer of cultural elements. This characteristic is an arbitrary one.

Although there is a massive number of studies on collocation across the globe, there are however limited studies dealt with the comprehensive issues related to some respects in one research; they are typology, cohesive ties, translation techniques, and translation quality. Moreover, scarce studies explored a contrastive phenomenon on collocation involving three versions of novels in a TL.

It is crystal clear from the aforementioned research that related studies on collocation in typology, cohesive tie, translation technique and translation quality are still inadequate. To equip this, the present research aims to explore the equivalence, typologies, cohesive ties, translation techniques, and translation quality. These objectives were achieved by answering the research questions:

1. What are the equivalences of English clausal extension collocations in Indonesian?
2. What are the typologies of the equivalences of English clausal extension collocations in Indonesian?
3. What are the cohesive ties of English clausal extension collocations and the cohesive ties of their translations in Indonesian?
4. What techniques are implemented in translating English clausal extension collocations into Indonesian?
5. What are the effects of the implementation of these techniques on the quality of the translation?

RESEARCH METHOD

This research focuses on the translation of English clausal extension collocations into Indonesian. The aims of the research are to discover the equivalence of English clausal extension collocations in Indonesian, the typology of the translation of English clausal extension collocations in Indonesian, the equivalence of English cohesive tie clausal extension collocations in Indonesian and their cohesive ties in Indonesian, the translation techniques used in translating clausal extension collocations, and the impact of translation techniques on the quality of the translation.

In investigating the answers to the problems formulated, quantitative and descriptive qualitative method were employed. The study applied quantitative research method as in this respect a frequency analysis was managed to calculate the total number and the typology, the cohesive ties. Besides, frequency analysis was also undertaken to percentage the translation techniques used. The reason using a qualitative method was that the study was an inquiry process formed with words and conducted in a natural setting ([Spradley, 1980](#)).

There are four sources of data used in this study; they are a novel entitled *Pride and Prejudice* (Austen, 2013) and the three translated versions of the novel in Indonesian. The first translation of the novel was published in 2011 and translated by B. M. Nugrahani (Austen, 2011a). This version is labelled as TL1. The second translated version of the novel was published in 2014 and translated by Susilawati and Wahyuningsih (Austen, 2014). This version is labelled as TL2. Meanwhile, the third version was published in 2011 and translated Y. Chandra Austen, (2011b). It is labelled as TL3.

The selection of this data generates a diversity of knowledge about English collocations and has the potential to activate the emergence of new collocations in Indonesian. Another reason for the selection of this data is that the availability of data in the form of three versions of Indonesian translations of the novel is an indicator of the high level of interest in this novel.

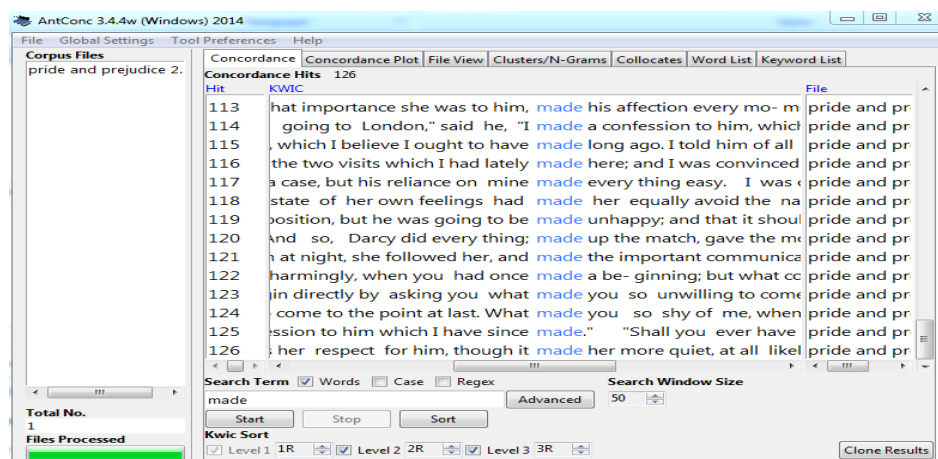


Figure 1. AntConc 3.4.4.w Program

In collecting the data, specifically the collocates that come after or before a particular node, a concordance tool is used. Figure 1 shows the AntConc 3.4.4.w concordance program. This concordance software was used to show all the collocates that appear before and after the node *made*. As can be observed in Figure 1, the verb *made* appeared 126 times. This concordance software shows which collocates are placed before and after the node *made*. As the topic of the research is clausal extension collocation, only participants or nouns appearing before and after the node *made* were selected to be used as data for the study.

The instrument of assessing the translation quality used in this research is the instrument provided by Nababan et al. (2012). This instrument of assessment uses the scale 3, 2, 1 for the three criteria: accuracy, acceptability, and readability. A score of 3 indicates that the translation is accurate, acceptable, and readable. Meanwhile, a score of 2 shows that the translation quality is less accurate, less acceptable, and less readable, and a score of 1 indicates that the translation is not accurate, not acceptable and not readable.

The techniques used to check the validity of the data were triangulation techniques, including source triangulation and method triangulation. The

triangulation of data sources involved a team of raters, while the method triangulation included a document analysis technique and focus group discussion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

English clausal extension collocation and its Indonesian equivalence

A clausal extension collocation is made up a node realized in a process. The process is manifested in the formula of a verb. The collocates of the node are manifested in the participants. Concordance AntCon 3.4.4w software was used to extract nodes and collocates. The use of particular collocates influences the meaning conveyed in a node. The equivalence of English clausal extension collocation in Indonesian is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 shows the equivalence of English clausal extension collocation in Indonesian. English clausal extension collocation is transferred into five different typologies in Indonesian, namely clausal extension collocation, verbal extension collocation, clausal enhancement, verbal enhancement and non-verbal node collocation.

Table 1. Equivalence of English Clausal Extension Collocation in the Three TLs

Equivalence of English Clausal Extension Collocation in Indonesian	Total number in TL 1	Total number in TL 2	Total number in TL 3
Clausal Extension	92(61%)	88 (58%)	83 (55%)
Verbal Extension	3 (2%)	6 (4%)	6(4%)
Clausal Enhancement	24 (16%)	24 (16%)	19 (13%)
Verbal Enhancement	3 (2%)	3 (2%)	5 (3%)
Non-Verbal Node Collocation	29(19%)	30 (20%)	38 (25%)
Total Number	151	151	151

A number of similarities in the translation of English clausal extension collocation in TL1, TL2, and TL3 is revealed thoroughly in Table 1. It can be seen that clausal extension is the most common typology used by the translators in translating English clausal extension collocation into Indonesian. This phenomenon occurs in all three TLs. On the other hand, in order to achieve a high quality of translation, the translators change the typology of English clausal extension collocation into other typologies in the three TLs. This can be seen in the changing of English clausal extension collocation into non-verbal node collocation in Indonesian. In this case, the node of the collocation in the TL is no longer a verb; rather the node is either a noun or an adverb. Non-verbal node collocation is the second most common typology used by the translators in translating English clausal extension into Indonesian. However, a study of [Veronika \(2020\)](#) revealed that the highest number of collocations identified in her study is adjective noun collocation. This is different from the finding of the present study that the highest pattern found in the data is clausal extension or in other words verb noun collocation.

Based on Table 1, 24 of the 151 English clausal extension collocations are translated into clausal enhancement. This occurs in both TL1 and in TL2, while in TL3,

there are 19 cases of English clausal extension collocation which are translated into clausal enhancement. Clausal enhancement is the third choice of typology used by the translators in translating English clausal extension into Indonesian. In addition to preserving the original pattern or typology and changing from clausal extension into non-verbal node collocation and clausal enhancement, the translators also change some cases of English clausal extension into another typology, i.e. verbal extension. However, there are very few cases of English clausal extension which are transferred into this pattern. In TL1, only three cases are found, while TL2 and TL3 each show six cases.

As seen in Table 1, only a small number of the 151 occurrences of English clausal extension collocation are translated into verbal enhancement. In TL1 and TL2, there are only three cases of verbal enhancement. The same tendency is also found in TL3. Verbal enhancement is the least common typology chosen by the translators in translating English clausal extension into Indonesian.

Referring to Table 1, it can be concluded that the translators tend to maintain the typology of English clausal extension collocation by using the same typology in the three TLs. This finding is still line with the result stated by [Veronika \(2020\)](#) that the equivalent collocations in Indonesian with similar structure reach 67.7%. This number is the highest phenomenon in her study.

The second highest tendency of the translators in TL1, TL 2 and TL3 is to change the typology of clausal extension into non-verbal node collocation. A relatively low trend occurs in the shift from the typology of clausal extension collocation into two other typologies, i.e. verbal extension and verbal enhancement collocation.

Below are a number of examples of data from the SL in which clausal extension collocation is translated into the same typology in TL1 and TL2. Meanwhile, in TL3 these examples are translated using the typology of verbal enhancement.

(1)	a.	SL	:	<i>made a strong effort</i>		
	b.	TL1	:	dengan with	usaha effort	keras great
	c.	TL2	:	dengan with	usaha effort	keras great
	d.	TL3	:	berusaha try	keras hard	

Based on its typology, the collocation *made a strong effort* in example (1) can be referred to as a clausal extension collocation. This is due to the fact that the node of *made a strong effort* is *made*. It is a lexical verb followed by the noun phrase *a strong effort*. The fundamental concept that this series fulfils in order to become a collocation is the formation of a span consisting of the node *made* and the collocate *a strong effort*. In addition, this string also displays co-occurrence (lexemes that are presented together in a given text). The concept of co-occurrence is the second concept which qualifies *made a strong effort* as a collocation

The third concept that the abovementioned word string complies with and determines it as a collocation is the range of meaning carried by *make* (the infinitive form of *made*). Based on the [Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary \(2000\)](#), *to make* has more than 19 meanings and the meaning of each verb is heavily dependent on the lexis that appears with the node or on the collocates. This means that the verb *make* is categorized as a verb that has a wide range of collocates or a broad scale of so-called pseudo concordance. The broad range of its collocation span causes the verb *make* to have a diversity of meanings that are not only denotative –a primary meaning, but also connotative– a secondary or figurative meaning. This secondary meaning acts as the idiomatic concept.

The fourth concept fulfilled by *made a strong effort* which qualifies it to become a collocation is the concept of arbitrariness. It can be seen in all three TLs that the verb *made* is not translated as *create* in Indonesian. In TL1, TL2 and TL3, the verb *made* is not translated into verb. Verb *made* has no one to one correspondence either in TL1, TL2 or in TL3.

The fifth concept which shows *made a strong effort* to be a collocation is its recurrent nature: the collocation appears repeatedly in the text. The next concept is the concept of unpredictability. This concept is in line with the concept of arbitrariness, namely that a collocation is constructed by concepts unexpected by other speakers of different languages, or the arrangement of collocation in a language differs from its arrangement in other languages.

The other concept which qualifies this lexical string as a collocation is the concept of restriction: the meaning of the collocation is limited. The meaning of the node *made* will change if the collocate of the collocation also changes. For example, when the verb *made* is followed by *his own cloth*, the meaning of *made* in this lexical bundle is different from the meaning of *made* in *made a strong effort*

The following examples show the translation of clausal extension collocation into the same typology in TL 1, 2, and 3.

(2)	a.	SL	:	<i>made him courteous</i>		
	b.	TL1	:	membuatnya making him	semakin more	bersahaja simple
	c.	TL2	:	membuatnya making him	kian more	bersahaja simple
	d.	TL3	:	diterima received	dengan baik well	

In example (2.a), the lexical string consisting of the verb *made* followed by *him* and *courteous* forms a collocation. This is due to the fact that this lexical sequence conforms to the relevant collocational concepts. The fundamental concept complied with in this example which qualifies it as a collocation is the formation of a span consisting of the single node *made* and two collocates *him* and *courteous*. In addition, this lexical sequence also displays co-occurrence. The verb *made* is repeatedly followed by collocate pronouns and adjectives. The third collocation concept which is fulfilled by this lexical series is that the meaning of

made has more than one meaning and its various meanings depend heavily on the lexis present before or after the verb *made*.

The fourth concept which qualifies *made him courteous* as a collocation is the concept of arbitrariness. The fifth collocation concept fulfilled by this word string is its recurrent nature: this collocation appears repeatedly in the text. The next concept is unpredictability (unexpectedness). This concept is in line with the concept of arbitrariness. It is not expected by other speakers of a different language. Another concept met by this lexical string which qualifies it as a collocation is the concept of restriction: the meaning of the collocation is limited. The meaning of the node *made* will change if the collocate also changes, e.g. the meaning of *make* in the *S/he urges me to make a will* is different from the meaning of *made* in the collocation *made him courteous*.

The collocation string *made him courteous* is classified as a clausal extension collocation due to the fact that this string is made up of the verbal node *made* and two collocates *him* and *courteous*. The participant *him* functions as the medium, on the other hand the word *courteous* functions as range quality.

The collocation *made him courteous* is translated into the same typology as the typology of the SL, i.e. clausal extension collocation. In both TL1 and TL2, the equivalence of the collocation *made him courteous* is *membuatnya semakin bersahaja* (*membuatnya* 'making him) *semakin* 'more' *bersahaja* 'simple'. *Semakin bersahaja* is categorized as participant range quality. This participant modifies the medium *-nya*. This equivalence is categorized as extension due to the addition of the lexical meaning *semakin bersahaja* after *membuatnya*.

In TL3 the collocation *made him courteous* is translated as *diterima dengan baik*. This word string is classified as a verbal enhancement collocation. In verbal enhancement, a verbal node is modified by a circumstance realized in the form of an adverb. In TL3, *diterima* 'received' functions as a node realized in the form of a verb; it is modified by the adverb *dengan baik* 'well'. The shift from clausal extension to verbal enhancement influences the quality of the translation. *Diterima dengan baik* 'well received' is not an accurate translation of *made him courteous*.

The following example shows clausal extension translated into clausal extension in TL1, 2, and 3.

(3)	a.	SL	:	<i>such pauses broken by Mrs. Annesley</i>		
	b.	TL1	:	keheningan such pauses	dipecahkan broken	oleh Mrs. Annesley by Mrs. Annesley
	c.	TL2	:	keheningan such pauses	dipecahkan broken	oleh Mrs. Annesley by Mrs. Annesley
	d.	TL3	:	keheningan such pauses	dipecahkan broken	oleh Mrs. Annesley by Mrs. Annesley

Example (3) shows the collocation *pauses broken* which is composed of the node *broken* and the collocate *pauses*. This collocation is transferred into the same typology, i.e. *keheningan dipecahkan*. *Keheningan* is the equivalent of *pauses* and *dipecahkan* is the equivalent of *broken*. The string *pauses broken* is categorized as a

collocation due to its idiomatic meaning. The meaning of *broken* will be different if the collocate of the collocation is changed into another word, e.g. *glass*, *promise*, or *password*. Furthermore, it also fits the criteria of co-occurrence. This collocation can be found in other texts, not only in this novel.

Strong and weak cohesive tie collocation

There are two kinds of cohesive ties found in the SL, namely strong cohesive ties and weak cohesive ties. The difference between the two is that the former is composed of both denotative and connotative meanings; on the contrary, the latter is composed of only denotative meaning. A collocation is categorized as a weak collocation if changing the collocates does not change the meaning of the node. On the other hand, in a strong cohesive tie collocation, changing the collocate brings about a change in the meaning of the node used. This phenomenon is quite often resulting difficulties for translators and learners in rendering the collocation. This fact is also stated by [Bartan \(2019\)](#). He proclaimed that more restrictions of collocations or strong cohesive tie collocation can cause poorer collocation production. He also added that students, as translators, spend a lot of time and energy of translating restricted collocations due to the lack of collocational competency of the TL.

After being transmitted into the TL, the cohesive tie of a collocation may be changed into the other type of cohesive tie or it may preserve the same type of cohesive tie as in the original text. In the current study, there are more cases in which the cohesive tie of the collocation is not changed in the TL. Table 2 shows the distribution of the translation of strong and weak cohesive ties in the TL.

Table 2. English Clausal Extension Cohesive Tie Collocation in the Three TLs

Cohesive Tie of SL's Clausal Extension Collocation	Equivalence of English Clausal Extension Collocation in TL	Cohesive Tie Collocation in TLs										Not Translated		
		Non-Canonical Cohesive Tie Collocation			Canonical Cohesive Tie Collocation									
					Strong			Weak						
		TL ₁	TL ₂	TL ₃	TL ₁	TL ₂	TL ₃	L ₁	L ₂	TL ₃	TL ₁	TL ₂	TL ₃	
Strong	Clausal Extension	1	3	2	66	62	5	1	4	19	4	3	3	
	Verbal Extension	1	1			1	1	2	4	4				
	Clausal Enhancement	2		1	17	18	8	3	4	9				
	Verbal Enhancement				3	3	4			1				
	Non-verbal node collocation	1			22	24	3	6						
							3							
Weak	Clausal Extension				4	6	1		5	1	1			

Clausal Enhancement	2	3	5
Verbal Extension			4
Non-verbal node collocation	6	3	1

From Table 2, it can be inferred that the cohesive ties of the SL can be classified into two types, namely strong cohesive ties and weak cohesive ties. Both strong and weak English cohesive ties can be transferred into two main kinds of cohesive ties in the TL, namely non-canonical cohesive ties and canonical cohesive ties. Non-canonical collocations refer to untypical collocations or uncommon collocations, whereas canonical collocations are regarded as strings of words that are commonly used by native speakers of a language. These canonical collocations are classified into the subcategories: strong and weak cohesive tie collocations.

As seen in Table 2, there are more strong cohesive ties in the SL than weak cohesive ties. English clausal extension collocations with strong cohesive ties are generally transferred into strong cohesive ties with the same typology in the three TLs. There are only five strong cohesive ties from the SL that are transferred into non-canonical cohesive tie collocations in TL1. Meanwhile in TL2 only four strong cohesive ties from the SL are found to be transferred into non-canonical cohesive tie collocations, and in TL3 only three strong cohesive ties from the SL are transferred into non-canonical cohesive tie collocations.

Based on Table 2, it can be inferred that the strong cohesive ties of the SL which are transferred into verbal extensions in the three TLs are commonly manifested in the form of weak cohesive ties rather than strong cohesive tie collocations. This means that changing from clausal extension into verbal extension causes a change in the level of cohesive tie collocation. Some strong cohesive tie collocations in English clausal extension are also transferred into clausal enhancement in the TLs. In most cases, they are transferred into strong cohesive ties in TL1 and TL2. However, in TL3 most are transferred into weak cohesive tie collocations.

As shown in Table 2, strong cohesive tie collocations of clausal extension from the English text are only transferred into strong cohesive tie collocations of verbal enhancement in TL1 and TL2. Meanwhile, in TL3 they are transferred into both types of cohesive ties: strong and weak. Many strong cohesive tie collocations of clausal extension are transferred into non-verbal node collocations. These are mostly manifested in strong cohesive tie collocations.

In the case of weak cohesive tie collocations of clausal extension in the English text, most are transferred into strong cohesive tie collocations in all three TLs. Transferring the weak cohesive tie collocations of clausal extension into verbal extensions does not change the cohesive ties of their translations in TL3. Table 2 shows five of the English clausal extension collocations are not translated in TL1, while in both TL2 and TL3 there are three cases that are not translated. It also can be summarized from Table 2 that the translations of the SL's clausal extension

collocations in the TLs may have the impact of changing their cohesive ties. These changes can be seen in the transformation from strong cohesive tie collocations into weak cohesive tie collocations or non-verbal node collocations, and in some cases the collocations are not translated in the TL. Some weak cohesive tie collocations are also changed into strong cohesive tie collocations.

Below is an example in which a cohesive tie collocation is translated into the same type of cohesive tie.

4	a.	SL	:	<i>took his station</i>
	b.	TL1	:	menempatkan diri put yourself
	c.	TL2	:	menempatkan diri put yourself
	d.	TL3	:	menempatkan diri put yourself

In example (4.a), the collocation *took his station* is composed of the node *took* and the nominal group collocate *his station*. This clausal extension collocation is categorised as a strong cohesive tie collocation. The meaning of *took* in this collocation denotes a connotative meaning. Changing the collocate *his station* into another collocate, e.g. *the money* will change the meaning of the node *took*. This collocation is translated as a strong cohesive tie collocation in Indonesian. The verb *menempatkan* as the equivalent of the verb *took* has a specific meaning if used alongside the collocate *diri*. The meaning of *menempatkan* will change into another meaning if the collocate *diri* is replaced by *flowers*.

Translation Techniques and Their Impact on the Quality of Translation

The quality of a translation is a reflection of the implementation of translation techniques. Molina and Albir (2002) proposed a number of translation techniques. These techniques are implemented here in the analysis of the techniques used in translating clausal extension collocation. Table 3 shows the percentage of use of each technique in translating clausal extension collocation in the novel *Pride and Prejudice*.

Table 3. Frequency of Translation Techniques in the Three TLs

Translation Techniques used in TL1	Percentage	Translation Techniques used in TL2	Percentage	Translation Techniques used in TL3	Percentage
Established Equivalence	60.1%	Established Equivalence	57.3%	Established Equivalence	53.2%
Discursive Creation	14.0%	Discursive Creation	15.7%	Discursive Creation	20.0%
Modulation	9.3%	Modulation	9.9%	Modulation	7.7%
Explicitness	5.3%	Explicitness	5.8%	Reduction	6.1%
Reduction	3.0%	Reduction	3.2%	Explicitness	3.6%
Pure Borrowing	2.0%	Pure Borrowing	2.0%	Generalization	2.6%
Literal	1.6%	Generalization	1.6%	Pure	2.0%

			Borrowing		
Generalization	1.4%	Literal	1.4%	Literal	1.4%
Addition	1.0%	Particularization	1.0%	Addition	1.2%
Particularization	0.8%	Addition	0.8%	Deletion	1.0%
Reduction	0.6	Deletion	0.4	Transposition	0.8%
Transposition	0.4	Transposition	0.4%	Variation	0.2%
Variation	0.4	Variation	0.4%	Adaptation	0.2%
Compensation	0.001%	Compensation	0.2%	Compensation	0.001%
			Adaptation	0.001%	

As illustrated in Table 3, established equivalence is the most frequently used technique by all the translators in translating collocations. It occurs in all TLs. This technique has a positive effect on the quality of the translation. It results in a high quality of accuracy, acceptability and readability. The second most common translation technique used by the translators in all three TLs is discursive creation. Although this technique is not categorized as a bad technique, the translators misuse the technique, leading to translations which are not good, or in other words are less accurate, less acceptable, and less readable. The third translation technique applied by the translators is modulation. This technique causes a change in the point of view.

Based on Table 3, there is a difference in the use of the fourth most common translation technique. In TL 1 and TL2, the translators use explicitness about 9 percent of the time, while in TL 3, the translators use this technique only 3.6 percent of the time, meaning that in TL3, the translator uses reduction more often rather than explicitness. The same usage of the fifth most common translation technique is also found in TL1 and in TL2, namely reduction, which comprises around 3 percent in TL1 and 3.2 percent in TL2. However, in TL3 the usage of reduction is higher than both TL1 and TL2. Reduction comprises around 6.1% in TL3.

Table 3 displays that the sixth most common choice of translation technique used by the translators is pure borrowing. This occurs in TL1 and in TL2. In both TL 1 and TL2 the percentage of usage is the same, namely two percent. Meanwhile in TL3, the sixth most common usage of translation technique is generalization which makes up about 2.6 percent. On the other hand, generalization is in seventh place as the choice of translation technique used by the translator of TL2. The technique of literal translation, which is only used about 1.6 percent of the time by the translator of TL1, is the seventh most common translation technique implemented.

As seen in Table 3, the order of translation techniques used in TL1, from the eighth to the tenth most common, is generalization, addition, and particularization. However, in TL2 the order of translation techniques from the eighth to the tenth is different from in TL3. In TL 2 the order is literal, particularization and addition, while in TL3 the eighth is the same as in TL2, i.e. literal, but the ninth and the tenth places in TL3 are different from those in TL2. In TL3 addition is in ninth place and deletion is in tenth position.

According to the results of this study, as shown in Table 3, deletion is not used by the translator of TL1. In contrast to TL1, in TL2 deletion is used 0.4 percent of the time while in TL3 it makes up 1.0 percent. The other translation techniques

which are rarely used by the translator of TL1 are reduction, transposition, variation, and compensation. This is also the case with the choice of translation techniques in TL2. These four translation techniques are rarely used by the translator. There is one translation technique that is only used by the translator of TL3, i.e. adaptation. Adaptation is not used by the other translators of either TL1 or TL2.

It was found that the translation techniques which result in a good translation in terms of accuracy, acceptability, and readability are generalization, established equivalence, modulation and amplification. The other translation techniques which have a bad impact on the quality of the translation are discursive creation, literal, and deletion. This result is as the same as [Shraideh et al. \(2015\)](#)'s finding. They also described that many respondents used synonymy and literal translation as primary strategies to render collocations, and this decision results in low quality of translation. Another study confirming the same result as the present study is [Obeidat and Mahadi \(2019\)](#)'s research. They concluded that low quality of translation is influenced by the use of literal translation.

5	a.	SL	:	<i>made no answer</i>
	b.	TL1	:	tidak menanggapi no respond
	c.	TL2	:	tidak berkomentar not comment
	d.	TL3	:	tak berkomentar n't comment

As seen in data (5.a), the clausal extension collocation *made no answer* is translated using the technique of established equivalence. The use of this technique has an effect on the quality of the translation. The degree of accuracy can be given a score of 3, acceptability is given a score of 3, and readability is also given a score of 3. A score of 3 indicates that the translation is accurate, acceptable, and readable. The equivalence of *made no answer* in TL1 is *tidak menanggapi* (*tidak* 'not' and *menanggapi* 'respond'). *Tidak menanggapi* is also classified as clausal extension collocation. This equivalence is a natural collocation in Indonesian. It has the same effect as the message conveyed in the SL. In TL2, the translation of *made no answer* is *tidak berkomentar*. *Tidak berkomentar* gains a score of three for its accuracy, acceptability and readability. This shows that the translation is accurate, acceptable, and readable. The same equivalence is used in TL3. The word *tak* is the same as the word *tidak*. *Tak* is a short form of *tidak* in Indonesian. The quality of TL 3 is also accurate, acceptable and readable.

CONCLUSION

Countless studies on collocation have been carried out far and wide. Yet, there is still inadequacy of research concerning translation of collocation on typology, cohesive tie, translation technique and translation quality in the three versions of Indonesian translated novels. Thus, the results of the current study can

fill the gap of the prior findings. This study found that the translation of English clausal extension collocation into Indonesian tends to preserve the same typology. In other words, only a few of the clausal extension collocations were changed into another typology. The changing of this typology into another typology was due to the difference in the concept of expressing the messages between the collocations found in the SL and the TL. The change in typology varies between clausal enhancement, verbal enhancement and non-verbal node collocation. Only a few clausal extension collocations were changed into verbal extensions. This change may have a bad effect on the quality of the translation. It is the translation techniques which influence the quality of the translation. The translation techniques that contribute to a translation which is less accurate, less acceptable and less readable are discursive creation and literal translation techniques.

With respect to cohesive ties, the translation of clausal extension may change its cohesive tie. This change is due to the different concept underlying each word that makes up a collocation. Many cohesive ties do not change. Despite maintaining the cohesive tie of a collocation, the typology may change. A change in typology is brought about by the technique implemented in translating the clausal extension collocation.

Furthermore, the translation techniques that contribute a positive effect on the quality of the translation vary between established equivalence, modulation, generalization, explicitness, reduction, pure borrowing, addition, particularization, transposition, variation and compensation. On the contrary, the translation techniques that have a bad effect on the quality of the translation are literal, discursive creation, and deletion.

To sum up, based on the findings of the research, it is the use of translation techniques which affects the quality of a translation. Accordingly, translators should exert the appropriate translation techniques to manage different pattern and cohesive tie of collocation. Translating a collocation with an underlying denotative meaning does not present a great obstacle to the translators. However, the connotative meaning contained in the SLSL collocation may present something of an obstacle. The realization of different meanings conveyed in each collocation can accommodate the qualities of good accuracy, acceptability and readability. All in all, this study shows that in translating collocation ones should bear in mind that collocation is regarded as one meaningful entity with various typologies, cohesive ties, and restrictiveness amidst languages.

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