The Patterns and Translation Techniques of English-Indonesian Verbal Node Collocations

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the patterns of English verbal node collocations and to explore the patterns of their translation in Indonesian. In addition, this study also examines the translation techniques employed in translating English verbal node collocations into Indonesian. The study used the novel *Pride and Prejudice* and three translated versions of the novel. A total of 117 verbal node collocations were analysed. The data were collected using Ant.Conc. 3.4.4.w Software. The findings show that most of the verbal node collocation patterns are in the form of clausal extension and clausal enhancement. Others are in the form of verbal extension and verbal enhancement. This study also finds that English verbal node collocations are transferred into the same patterns as they are in English and also into different ones. In addition, English verbal node collocations are sometimes translated into nonverbal node collocations. With regard to translation techniques, the two most frequently used translation techniques found are established equivalence and discursive creation. Other techniques, from the highest to the lowest usage, are modulation, explicitness, reduction, pure borrowing, generalization, literal translation, addition, particularization, deletion, transposition, variation, adaptation and compensation.

Keywords: Collocation, English-Indonesian translation, node, translation patterns, translation techniques

INTRODUCTION

When translating a text, a translator should be aware that patterns of juxtaposition in the source language text (SLT) differ from those in the target language text (TLT). The difference is not only influenced by the grammatical construction underlying the two but is also affected by the lexical meaning conveyed in each word. This

juxtaposition of words is referred to as collocation. Collocation is a term coined by Firth (1957, as cited in Seretan, 2011) who defined collocation as "the company that words keep or actual words in habitual company". Firth assumed that the meaning of a word was determined by the co-occurrence of words at a syntagmatic level (Firth, 1957, as cited in Seretan, 2011). He used as an example the clause *John ate the apple*. *Apple* stood in syntagmatic relation with the words *ate* and *John*. In other words, Firth described collocation as meaning at a syntagmatic level. This syntagmatic relation between lexis in a collocation is not always the same among different languages. However, each collocation is composed of a node. Sinclair (1991) stated that *a node* was the word that was being studied. Since this study explores collocations made up of verbs, the node of the collocations is a verb. Meanwhile, for any word that occurs in the specific environment of a node is called *collocate* (Sinclair, 1991).

In a study focusing of verbal node *do*, the collocate *hair* will come after *do*. English permits a collocation *do somebody's hair.* On the other hand, in Indonesian this is equal to '*menata rambut'* (*menata 'arrange'* and *rambut 'hair'*). In English, a verbal node *draw* collocates with *a conclusion* and builds the collocation *draw a conclusion*; while in Indonesian *kesimpulan 'a conclusion'* collocates with a node *menarik 'pull'.* This sequence yields the collocation *menarik kesimpulan.* Another example is a verbal node *make* which collocates with *a lot of money*; which in Indonesian becomes *menghasilkan uang* (*produce money*).

In juxtaposing a sequence of lexemes, one cannot ask the reason why the co-occurrence of certain words is unacceptable or the reason for positioning one word after another. Another example in English is the sequence *strong tea.* This collocation is acceptable, while the juxtaposition of **powerful tea* is unsuitable. The similar meaning of *strong* and *powerful* does not automatically make the use of these two lexemes interchangeable. In Indonesian, *strong tea* is not translated literally as **teh kuat* (*teh 'tea'* and *kuat 'strong'*); the proper translation of *strong tea* is *teh kental* (*teh 'tea'* and *kental 'thick'*). This phenomenon was clearly stated by Menon and Mukundan (2010) that any of the collocational combinations which formed compound nouns with similar syntactic characteristics or lexical patterns (noun+noun and adjective+noun) did not have similar semantic associations.

Studies on collocation have focused on the translation of collocation from SLT into TLT (Feng et al., 2018; Haghighi & Hemmati, 2018; Izwaini, 2016; Pastor, 2015; Setiarini, 2017; Zinel'aabdin & Ahmed, 2017). A study on translating English verbal collocation into Spanish was conducted by Pastor. Pastor (2015) examined the collocational verbal range for prima facie translation equivalents of words like *decision* and *dilemma*. She built a corpus on the identification of what nouns followed by the verbal node of decision and dilemma in Spanish and the co-existing national varieties.

A research on translating collocation from Arabic into English was done by Izwaini (2016). In conducting his work, he started with the key element, which was usually the node in those collocations and then proceeded to the collocate. Methods in rendering collocation had also become his interest.

Translating collocation from SLT into TLT deals with the translation techniques applied by either professional translators or students. A research on discussing translation techniques was carried out by Setiarini (2017). She found out that the most common translation technique applied in translating a bilingual recipe from English into Indonesian was established equivalence. On the other hand, Zinel'aabdin and Ahmed (2017) showed that literal technique was commonly used by the leaners in translating collocation from English into Arabic.

Haghighi and Hemmati (2018) also conducted a research on translating collocation. They found out that the procedures mostly used in translating collocation verb+noun and adjective+noun from English into Persia were equivalence, literal translation, and transposition. This study revealed that some changes inevitably happen in translating collocations from SLT into TLT. They reported that the changing was in the pattern of collocation.

Attempts to scrutinize the translation of collocation from SLT into TLT were also done by Feng et al. (2018), and Lei and Liu (2018). Feng et al. (2018) provided an evidence that the use of collocations in the translational business text from Chinese into English could be characterized as over-use of collocations with a literal sense and under-use of collocations with a delexical sense. Lei and Liu (2018) carried out a study in identifying the pattern of collocation in a corpus driven study. Out of eleven patterns, two most common patterns are verb followed by noun and adjective followed by noun. However, the least pattern used is adverb followed by adverb. This research only focused on the pattern of collocation using content words.

To our knowledge, few studies on translating collocation have been done in the area of translating collocation from English novel into three versions of translated novels. Since few studies have been conducted in the three translated Indonesian novels and there has also been a need in finding out the patterns of collocation found in the three translated novels and also the translation techniques employed, this study is saliently to be carried out. This study expands and fills the gap of the related studies by exploring the verbal node collocation in SLT and the translation in the three TLTs.

Therefore, the purposes of this study are to explore the patterns of English verbal node collocations and to discuss the patterns of their translations in Indonesian. Moreover, the aim of the study is also to point out the translation techniques employed in translating English verbal node collocations into Indonesian by professional translators.

Accordingly, based on the different patterns of juxtaposing words, the authors formulated three research questions: 1) what

patterns of English verbal node collocations are most commonly used in the novel *Pride and Prejudice*? 2) What are the translations and the patterns of English verbal node collocations in the three translated versions of the novel? 3) What translation techniques are used in translating English verbal node collocations into Indonesian?

In conducting the study, the authors used a novel *Pride and Prejudice* written by Jane Austen (1813/2013) as source of data. This novel contains 291 collocations. Out of the 291 collocations, 117 data are categorized as verbal node collocation. The availability of the data is considered as the reason of choosing this novel as source of data. The different era in which the novel was written and then translated has also become the reason of choosing the novel as source of data. This different era contributes obstacles in translating the novel, especially the collocation.

Over and above that, this novel is a best-selling novel. It is proven that the three versions of the Indonesian translated novels are published in Indonesia. The obtainable of the three translated versions gives the chance for the authors to compare the translation of the collocations found in the three novels.

On the Definition of Collocation

The notion of collocation is referred to as "arbitrarily restricted lexeme combinations" (Nesselhauf, 2005). This notion comes under the sub manifestation of cohesion, i.e., lexical cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976) argued that collocation refered to "the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur". They gave the example of *fork* goes with *knife*, *lend* goes with *money* and *snow* goes with *white*. On the other hand, Stubbs (2005) claimed that "collocations create connotations." He gave the example that *grass* was usually associated with *death, decay* and *desolation.* He agreed with the statistical view that not all types of co-occurrence were considered to be collocations. In his opinion, collocation was frequent co-occurrence. Co-occurrence was the number of times a *node* was accompanied by one or more collocates. Stubbs (2005) provided a more specific definition of collocate. A collocate refers to a word which co-occurs with a node in a corpus (Sinclair, 1991; Stubbs, 2005). Let us take as an example the co-occurrence of *make* and *money*. *Make* is categorised as a node and *money* is classified as a collocate. The identification of words followed by *make* or preceded by *make* brings about the categorization of *make* as a node.

The study of collocation in this research is implemented through a lexical composition approach and a structural approach. In the lexical composition approach it can be said that words get their meanings from the words with which they co-occur. This is in line with the concept of collocation proposed by Firth (as cited in Gitsaki, 1996) i.e. "a mode of meaning: the meanings of words are closely related to the meaning of their surroundings". By contrast, in the structural approach, it is understood that grammar has a close relation

to juxtaposing words; in other words, an acceptable collocation can be judged by its syntax.

There are certain words which can be juxtaposed side by side as long as they meet the regulations of the syntax in the language concerned. Take the example of the word *school*. *School* has a number of specific collocates which bear different meanings, such as in *go to school* (an institution for education), *skip school* (play truant), *a school of dolphins* (a large group of), *school a horse* (train or ride) and *the school of medicine* (a department). Based on the structural approach, the meaning of *school* in each collocation is influenced by the syntactic pattern and the collocates which come before and after the word *school.*

Patterns of Collocation

Collocation is a form of lexical cohesion (Halliday, 1985/2014; Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Meanwhile, Martin (1992) argued that collocation is reflected in nuclear relations−the ways in which actions, people, places, things and qualities configured as activities in activity. Based on the relationship between the lexis constituents, lexical cohesion is divided into extension and enhancement pattern (Martin, 1992).

Extension and Enhancement

These two classifications fall under the heading of nuclear relation in English. In addition, these two classifications can be divided further into three sub classifications, namely clausal, verbal and nominal (Martin, 1992). Since this study focuses on the verbal node collocation, the sub categorisations discussed are only clausal and verbal. Nominal is discussed under the analysis of nominal node collocation.

Clausal extension collocation is composed of a node realised by a verb and one or more collocates in the form of nouns. Martin (1992) provided the example of the nuclear relation of clausal extension *chase cat* and *climb fence.* Meanwhile, his example of verbal extension was *start to chase.* In this study, the writers adopt these patterns as the basis of the collocation patterns, in which clausal extension is composed of a node in the form of a verb and a collocate in the form of a noun. On the other hand, clausal enhancement is composed of a node in the form of a verb and a collocate in the form of an adverb. Meanwhile, verbal extension is composed of a verb functioning as the node and a verb functioning as the collocate. This juxtaposition is categorized as a verbal group composed of two events. It is on the basis of Martin's categorization that this current research study was carried out.

On the Overview of Translation

Translation is a product of the activity of translating. The material to be translated is called the SLT and the result of the activity is the TLT. Many scholars have proposed different definitions of translation. Catford (1965) argues that translating refers to "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)". By this definition it can be said that the activity of translating is equal to replacing. According to this

definition, translating means changing the text of a language into the text of another language. Larson (1984), on the other hand, described the activity of 'translating' as 'transferring'. In his opinion, translation consisted of transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language. Meanwhile, Nida and Taber (1982) stated that translating meant reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, primarily in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style.

According to these definitions, translation covers three areas: the activity and the two materials (the source text and the product). The product–as the result of the activity–should be equivalent to the message of the material to be translated. Pym (2014) suggested that the relation between the original text or TLT and the translation was one of equivalence or *equal value*, where *value* could be on the level of form, function, or anything in between. Moreover, Baker (2011) explained that equivalence was at the level of word, phrase, grammar, text and pragmatics. She also offered a more detailed distinction between word-level and above-word level equivalence. Collocation comes under the heading of above-word level. A number of different categorizations of solutions which can produce equivalence of certain collocations may be implemented. The procedures applied by the translator are called translation techniques.

Translation Techniques

In translating a text from SLT into TLT, translators may find problems. To solve the problems, translators activate translation strategies. Strategies are procedures (conscious or unconscious, verbal or nonverbal) used by the translator to solve problems that emerge when carrying out the translation process. The solution to the problems will be materialised by using a particular technique (Molina & Albir, 2002).

The translation techniques discussed in this study are derived from the techniques presented by Molina and Albir (2002). Molina and Albir (2002) stated that translation techniques were neither good nor bad. They classified 18 translation techniques. (1) *Adaptation*. To replace a ST cultural element with one from the target culture, e.g., to change *for a kingdom*, for *Ya ampun 'My Godness'* in a translation. (2) *Amplification*. To introduce details that are not formulated in the ST, e.g., when translating from Arabic to add *the Muslim month of fasting* to the noun *Ramadan*. (3) *Borrowing*. To take a word or expression straight from another language, e.g., to use the English word *hot dog* in Indonesian. (4) Calque. Literal translation of a foreign word or phrase, e.g., the English translation *secretary general* for the Indonesian *sekretaris jendral*. (5) Compensation. To introduce a ST element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the TT because it cannot be reflected in the same place as in the ST, e.g., *They have never visited Indonesia 'yet'.* This is translated into *Mereka belum pernah mengunjungi*

Indonesia. The translation of *yet* in TLT is not put at the end of the sentence, but after subject *mereka* '*they'.* (6) Description. To replace a term or expression with a description, e.g., to translate the Indonesian *becak* into *three wheeled-bicycle used as a means of transport in Indonesia.* (7) Discursive creation. To establish a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of context, e.g., the novel *The Naked Face* is translated into Indonesian *Wajah Sang Pembunuh 'The Face of the Murderer'.* (8) Established equivalence. To use a term or expression recognized (by dictionaries or language in use) as an equivalent in the TL, e.g., to translate *brush your teeth* as *sikat gigimu. Sikat 'brush', gigi 'teeth', -mu 'your'.* (9) Generalization. To use a more general or neutral term, e.g. to translate *son* into *anak 'child'.* (10) Linguistic amplification. To add linguistic elements, e.g., to translate the Indonesian *siswa pintar* (*siswa 'student'* and *pintar* 'smart') into *a smart student.* (11) Linguistic compression. To synthesize linguistic elements in the TT, e.g., to translate *It is cold* into *dingin 'cold'.* (12) Literal translation. To translate a word or an expression word for word, e.g., *They will come* is translated into *Mereka akan datang. Mereka 'they', akan 'will', datang 'come'.* (13) Modulation. To change the point of view. *Keep off the grass* is translated into *Dilarang menginjak rumput. Dilarang 'do not', menginjak 'step on', rumput 'grass.* (14) Particularization. To use a more precise or concrete term, e.g., *red* is translated into *maroon.* (15) Reduction. To suppress a ST information item in the TT, e.g., *the month of fasting* in opposition to *Ramadan* when translating into Arabic. (16) Substitution. To change linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) or vice versa, e.g., to translate *the Arab gesture of putting your hand on your heart* as *thank you.* (17) Transposition. To change a grammatical category, e.g., *It is raining* is translated into *hujan* (*rain*). (18) Variation. To change linguistic or paralinguistic elements (intonation, gestures) that affect aspects of linguistic variation. *I* is translated into *gue* '*Jakarta's dialect.*

METHODS

This study employed a descriptive, comparative and qualitative method. The data was described in a natural setting and the study compared verbal node collocations in the SLT and their translations in the three TLTs. There are four materials used in this study: a novel entitled *Pride and Prejudice* (Austen, 1813/2013) and three versions of the novel translated into Indonesian – Austen 1813/2011a, Austen 1813/2011b, Austen 1813/2014. In this study, the translated novels are indicated by TLT1, TLT2 and TLT3. The novel translated by Berlini Mantili Nugrahani, i.e. Austen (1813/2011a) is referred to as TLT1; the novel translated by Susilawati and Wahyuningsih, i.e. Austen (1813/2014) is indicated by TLT2 and the novel translated by Yunita Chandra, i.e. Austen (1813/2011b) is labelled as TLT3.

The data for this study includes clauses which represent verbal node collocation in the SLT and their translations in the TLTs. In collecting the data, the concordance

program Ant.Conc. (version 3.4.4.w) was used. With the use of this concordance tool, the writers were able to identify 117 English verbal node collocations, which were then classified as: verbal node followed by collocate noun, collocate noun followed by verbal node, verbal node followed by collocate verb and verbal node followed by adverb.

After analysing the English verbal node collocations, the writers highlighted the translations in the three Indonesian versions of the novel and identified the translation techniques used. The selected data of English verbal node collocations and their Indonesian translations were triangulated by method and source. In collecting the data, the methods employed were documentary analysis and focus group discussion. In the documentary analysis, the writers investigated the patterns and their equivalence found in the documents, i.e. the novels. In the focus group discussion, three raters were actively involved in analysing the translation techniques applied. All of the raters were experts in both English and Indonesian linguistics and also in translation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Verbal Node Collocations in the SLT

This study found that the total number of verbal node collocations identified in the novel *Pride and Prejudice* was 117 (see Supplementary Data). Supplementary Data shows that the most commonly used verb functioning as a node was *make* with a total of 20 occurrences. In second place was the verb *cry*. The number of clauses containing the verb *cry* as a node was 18. The third most common verb was *take* which appeared 17 times. Fourth was the verb *give,* with 13 clauses using *give* as a node. In fifth and six places were the verbs *break, have* and *bear* which were found 12, 12, and 11 times respectively. In addition, three other kinds of verbs appeared which functioned as nodes. These verbs, which appeared nine times in the results of the study, were *return, run* and *see.* All the other verbs were used less than nine times as nodes in the collocations.

The results of the study, as illustrated in Figure 1, show that the verbal node collocations found in the SLT were classified as four different patterns of collocation, i.e. clausal extension, verbal extension, clausal enhancement and verbal enhancement. The
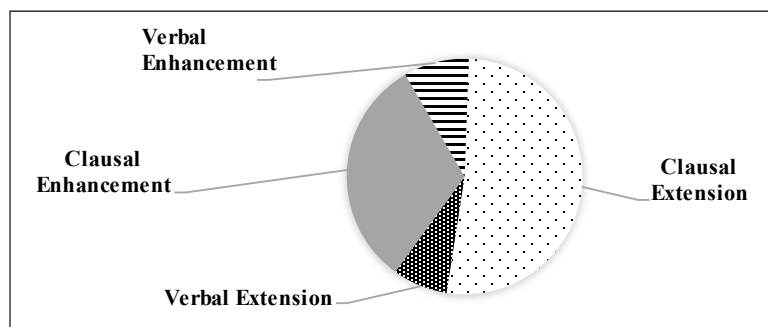

Figure 1. Patterns and the use of collocations in the SLT

manifestation of the patterns of verbal node collocation in the SLT is presented in Figure 1. A research on identifying the collocational pattern was also done by Izwaini (2016). This present study corresponds to the findings reported by Izwaini (2016). He stated that patterns in both SLT and TLT helped the translator to make lexical choices in constructing the TLT. He continued that the constraints of the TL collocational patterns played a significant role in shaping the rendition of a collocation.

If we look at Figure 1, it can be seen that most of the collocations in the SLT were in the form of clausal extension. This pattern is in line with the findings in a study conducted by Feng et al. (2018). In their research they found that one of the most commonly pattern in collocation was verb followed by noun.

The total number of occurrences of clausal extension in the SLT was 151. Clausal enhancement appeared more frequently than verbal enhancement in the patterns of collocation used in *Pride and Prejudice*. The total number of appearances of clausal enhancement was 92 or 32%. Only a small number of collocations in the SLT used verbal enhancement, namely 26 collocations or 9%. In contrast with the occurrence of clausal extension—as shown in Figure 1— the number of collocations using verbal extension was found to be the least. This pattern was found only 22 times, or making up 7% of all the different patterns used.

Clausal Extension Collocation in the SLT and its Equivalence in the Three TLTs

The relation across the elements in a clause is regarded as collocation, and particularly the relation among the lexical items of process realized in verbs and participants realized in nouns (Martin & Rose, 2007). This relation, between the process and the participants, is referred to as clausal extension (Martin, 1992). In other words, clausal extension collocation is composed of a node, manifested in the form of a verb, and one or more collates, manifested in the form of a noun.

The distribution of the equivalence of the SLT's clausal extension collocation in the three Indonesian translations of the novel is illustrated in Figure 2.

Based on Figure 2, this study found that the most common pattern of English clausal extension collocation when translated into the three TLTs was clausal extension. As shown in Figure 2, 92 of the clausal extension collocations in the SLT were translated into the same pattern in TLT1. Meanwhile, 88 of the SLT's clausal extension collocations were also transferred into clausal extensions in TLT2. The lowest number of clausal extension collocations from the SLT which were transferred into the same pattern in the TLT was found in TLT3, which included only 83 cases.

If we look at Figure 2, it can be observed that the second most common pattern of translation of the English clausal extension in the TLT was clausal enhancement. This occurred in all three TLTs. Figure 2 shows
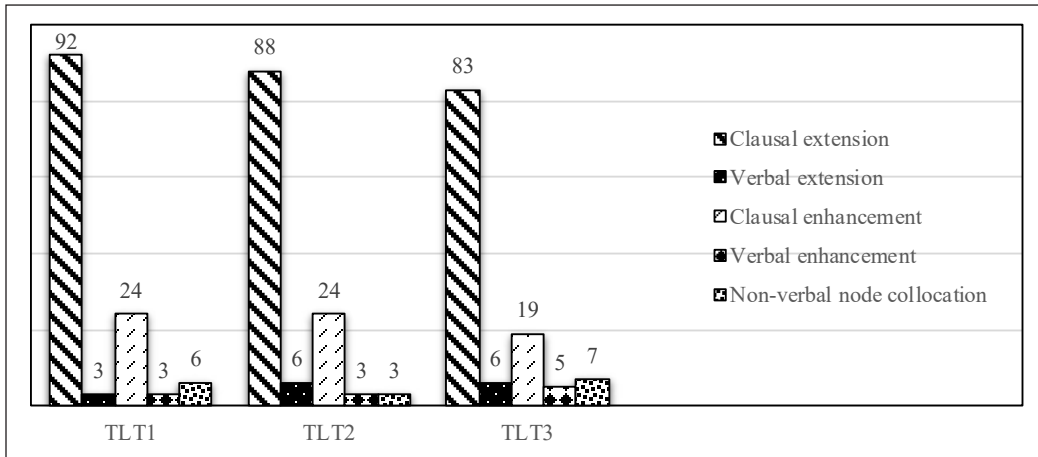
Figure 2. Equivalence of SLT's clausal extension in the three TLTs

that both TLT1 and TLT2 had the same number of cases using clausal enhancement; each TLT showed 24 incidences of the SLT's clausal extension transferred into clausal enhancement.

As shown in Figure 2, the order of the translation of clausal extension collocation from the SLT as found in TLT1, from the highest usage to the lowest, is clausal extension, clausal enhancement, nonverbal node collocation, verbal extension, and verbal enhancement. In contrast to TLT1, the order of the translation patterns found in TLT2 is clausal extension, clausal enhancement, verbal extension, verbal enhancement, and nonverbal node collocation. On the other hand, the order of equivalence of the SLT's clausal extension in TLT3, from the highest to the lowest usage, is clausal extension, clausal enhancement, nonverbal node collocation, verbal extension, and verbal enhancement.

The following example shows an English clausal extension and its equivalence in the three TLTs.

(1) *Sir William Lucas had **made a tolerable fortune**.* (SLT1)

(2) *Sir William Lucas **mendapatkan cukup banyak kekayaan**.* (TLT1)
Gloss: *mendapatkan 'earned', cukup 'enough', banyak 'a lot of', kekayaan 'profit'.*

(3) *Sir William Lucas **meraup banyak laba**.* (TLT2)
Gloss: *meraup 'earned a lot', banyak 'a lot of', laba 'profit'.*

(4) *Sir William Lucas **berkembang cukup berhasil**.* (TLT3)
Gloss: *berkembang 'growing', cukup 'quite', berhasil 'successfully'.*

In (1) the collocation is shown by *made a tolerable fortune*. This is made up of the node *made* and the collocate *a tolerable fortune*. The pattern of the SLT collocation is clausal extension. The node is in the form of a verb and the collocate is in the form of a noun. Based on the results of

the study, the total number of collocations using the verb *made* was found to be 20. Of these 20 appearances, 13 used the pattern of clausal extension and seven used the pattern of clausal enhancement. In (2) the collocation *made a tolerable fortune* is translated as *mendapatkan cukup banyak kekayaan.* This equivalence is categorised as clausal extension collocation. The node of the collocation is a verb, i.e. *mendapatkan* '*earned*'; meanwhile, the collocate is in the form of a noun, i.e. *cukup banyak kekayaan*. For the translation technique, the translator used established equivalence. Thus, the meaning of the source language is as equal as the meaning conveyed in the target language.

Similar to TLT1, in TLT2, the collocation *made a tolerable fortune* was translated into the same pattern as it appeared in the SLT, i.e. clausal extension. The translation in TLT 2 is *meraup banyak laba*. *Meraup* is a node in the form of a verb and *banyak laba* is a noun phrase. The translation technique used was amplification. The meaning of *tolerable* is amplified into the Indonesian: *meraup banyak 'earned or got a lot'*.

In both (2) and (3), the equivalence of the SLT collocation *made a tolerable fortune* is in the form of clausal extension, whereas in (4), as found in TLT3, the equivalence uses the pattern of verbal enhancement: *berkembang cukup berhasil* (*berkembang 'grow'* and *cukup berhasil 'quite successfully'*)*'*. The node of the collocation is *berkembang*, which is a verb, and *cukup berhasil* is the collocate, which is in the form of an adverb. The juxtaposition of verb and adverb produces the pattern of verbal enhancement. This change in the point of view, from *tolerable fortune* into *berkembang 'grow'*, is due to the use of the translation technique, i.e. modulation.

Verbal Extension Collocation in the SLT and its Equivalence in the Three TLTs

Verbal extension collocation refers to a verbal group. The lexical process in a verbal group is known as the event (Martin & Rose, 2007). A verbal group may include more than one event. In a collocation, one of the events functions as the node and the other functions as the collocate. Martin (1992) used the verbal group *start + to chase* as an example of verbal extension. The denotation or symbol of extension is '+'. The distribution of verbal extension from the SLT in the three TLTs is shown in Figure 3.

Based on Figure 3, it can be seen that the order of usage of the equivalence of verbal extension in TLT1, from highest to lowest, is verbal extension, clausal enhancement, nonverbal node collocation, and clausal extension. Meanwhile, in TLT 2, the order is clausal enhancement, verbal extension, nonverbal node collocation, and clausal extension. On the other hand, in TLT3 the order is verbal extension, nonverbal node collocation, clausal enhancement, and clausal extension.

One similarity among the three TLTs is that no examples of data were found which used the pattern of verbal enhancement. The following examples show verbal extension and its equivalence in the TLTs.
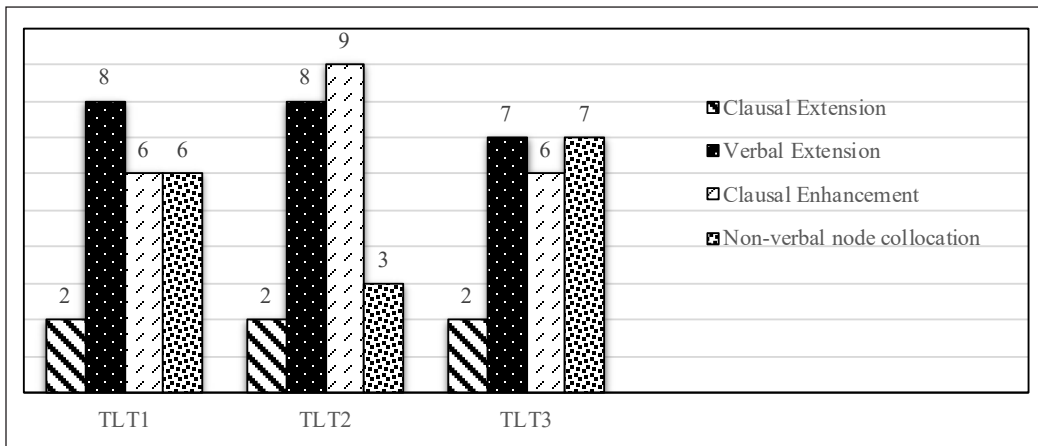
Figure 3. Equivalence of SLT's verbal extension in the three TLTs

(5) *took **leave and rode** on with his friend* (SLT)

(6) ***berpamitan dan berlalu** bersama kawannya* (TLT1)
Gloss: *berpamitan 'said good bye', dan 'and', berlalu 'passed, bersama 'with', kawannya 'his friend'.*

(7) ***berlalu pergi dan menunggang kuda** kembali bersama temannya* (TLT2)
Gloss: *berlalu pergi 'went away, dan 'and', menunggang kuda 'rode a horse', bersama 'with', temannya 'his friend'.*

(8) ***mohon diri dan pergi** bersama temannya* (TLT3)
Gloss: memohon *diri 'leave', dan 'and', pergi 'go', bersama 'with', temannya 'his friend'.*

Based on example (5), it can be seen that the collocation *took leave and rode* is categorized as verbal extension. This is

due to the elements of the collocation, i.e. a verbal group. The node of the collocation is *took leave* and the collocate is *rode*. In (6) this collocation is translated as *berpamitan dan berlalu*, as found in TLT1. *Berpamitan dan berlalu* is also classified as a verbal extension collocation. *Berpamitan* is a verb and it is followed by the other event *berlalu*. The translation techniques used were established equivalence and generalization. By using established equivalence, the message in (5) is as the same as the message conveyed in (6). On the other hand, the use of generalization changes the meaning from specific into general. The generalization is found in the meaning of *berlalu 'went away'*. In (5), the message conveys *the way of leaving*, i.e. *by using a vehicle*, whereas in (6) this information is omitted.

In contrast to (6), in (7) the translation technique used was producing the explicit meaning. The translator translated *rode on* into *menunggang kuda 'riding a horse'*. This translation was found in (TLT2). This

translation provides additional information which is more explicit than that in (5). Meanwhile, the pattern used in (8) is also verbal extension as it is composed of the verbal group *mohon diri* and the other event *pergi*.

In (8), the pattern used is verbal extension *mohon diri dan pergi*. This equivalence was found in TLT3. This collocation is composed of a verbal group embracing two events. The first event is a node *mohon diri* '*leave'* and the other event is *pergi 'go'*. The translation technique used was established equivalence and generalization. By using established equivalence, the translation of *took leave* into *memohon diri* achieves a high level of accuracy; meanwhile the translation of *rode* into *pergi* shows the use of generalization: no vehicle is mentioned to indicate the way of leaving as stated in (5).

Clausal Enhancement Collocation in the SLT and its Equivalence in the Three TLTs

Clausal enhancement collocation is a string of words comprising a process and circumstance. The process is realised in the form of a verb and the circumstance is manifested in the existence of a conjunction (Martin, 1992). Martin's example of clausal enhancement is *chase x around the room*. The notation 'x' represents enhancement. Furthermore, the types of conjunction that may be applied are temporal, comparative, causal, conditional and concessive (Emilia, 2005).

There were 92 occurrences of English clausal enhancement found in the SLT. Meanwhile, as shown in Figure 4, this pattern was mostly transferred into the same pattern, i.e. clausal enhancement in TLT1, TLT2 and TLT3. In TLT1, the total number of appearances was 39, whereas in both TLT2 and in TLT3 the total number was 34. This finding supports a research done by Izwaini (2016). He declared that a collocation comprising of verb followed by adverb in Arabic retained the structure in the English collocation.

Nonverbal node collocations were also chosen to be used in translating English clausal enhancement in the three TLTs. This pattern was the third most common
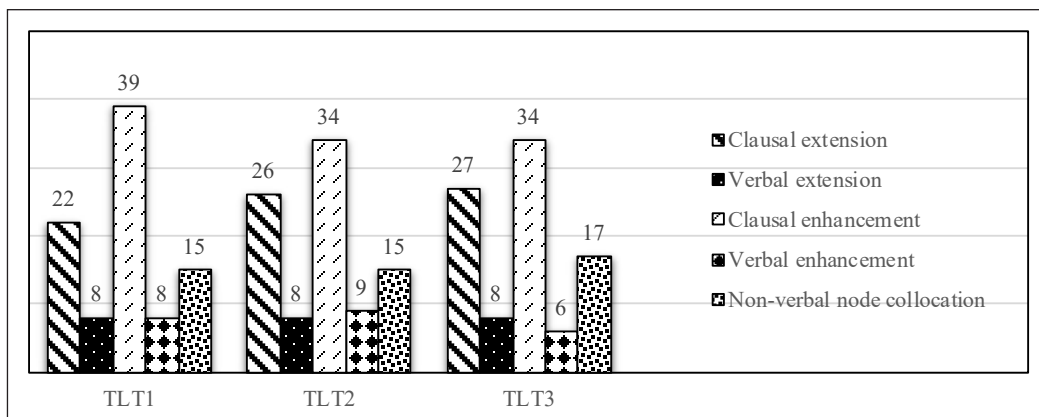

Figure 4. Equivalence of SLT's clausal enhancement in the three TLTs

in TLT1, TLT2 and TLT3, with 15 cases of nonverbal node collocation across the three TLTs. In TLT3, there were 17 cases of verbal extension from the SLT which were transferred into nonverbal node collocations.

Based on Figure 4, the two least common patterns found in the TLTs were verbal extension and verbal enhancement. This was the case in all three TLTs. The total number found in TLT1 was eight cases of verbal extension and 8 cases using the pattern of verbal enhancement. In TLT2, in forth and fifth places were verbal enhancement and verbal extension, with nine and eight appearances respectively. In TLT3, verbal extension was in fourth place and verbal enhancement in fifth place, with six appearances in total.

The following examples show an example of English clausal enhancement collocation and its equivalence in the three TLTs.

> (9) *escape from Mrs. Bennet's civilities.* (SLT)

> (10) melarikan diri dari keramahan Mrs. Bennet (TLT1, TLT2, TLT3)
> Gloss: *melarikan diri 'escape from', civilities 'keramahan'.*

The pattern of the collocation in the SLT, as seen in (9), is clausal enhancement. The node is in the form of a verb, i.e. *escape* and the collocate is the circumstance *from Mrs*. Bennet. The SLT was translated into *melarikan diri dari keramahan Mrs. Bennet* as seen in (10). This translation was found in all three TLTs. This equivalence is also categorized as clausal enhancement. The node is *melarikan diri*, which is in the form of verb. Meanwhile, the collocate is the circumstance *dari keramahan Mrs. Bennet.* The translation technique used was established equivalence. By using established equivalence, the meaning of the SLT is the same as the meaning in the TLT.

Verbal Enhancement Collocation in the SLT and Its Equivalence in the Three TLTs

In contrast to verbal extension, which is composed of a verbal group, verbal enhancement is made up of a process and a circumstance in the form of an adverb of manner. This adverb gives quality to the verb in the process. Martin (1992) used as an example of verbal enhancement *chase x furiously* in which *chase* was the node and *furiously* was the collocate.

The results of the study, as shown in Figure 5, found that none of the verbal enhancements from the SLT were translated into verbal extension. The most commonly used pattern in translating English verbal enhancement into Indonesian was verbal enhancement. There were 13 occurrences of this found in both TLT1 and TLT2. Meanwhile, in TLT3 there were nine uses of the pattern of verbal enhancement. From the 26 appearances of verbal enhancement in the SLT (see Figure 1), eight were found in TLT1, seven in TLT2 and six in TLT3.

In Figure 5, it can be seen that only a few verbal enhancements were translated into nonverbal node collocations. In TLT1 there were only 4 cases, while in TLT2 the total number of the equivalence of verbal
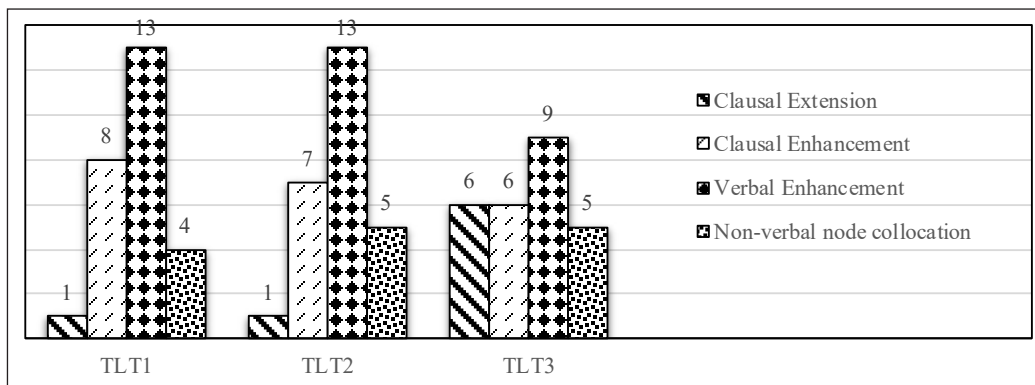
Figure 5. Equivalence of SLT's verbal enhancement in the three TLTs

enhancement translated into nonverbal node collocations was five cases. In TLT3, meanwhile, as mentioned above, the second most common patterns were clausal extension and clausal enhancement.

The following examples show English verbal enhancement collocation in the SLT and its equivalence in the TLTs.

(11) *She had **instinctively turned away*** (SLT)

(12) *Elizabeth **tanpa sadar membuang muka*** (TLT1, TLT2)
Gloss: *tanpa sadar 'instinctively', membuang muka 'turned away'.*

(13) *Elizabeth **seketika ingin berbalik*** (TLT3)
Gloss*: seketika 'suddenly', ingin 'want', berbalik 'to turn around'.*

The pattern of the collocation from the SLT as shown in (11) is verbal enhancement. It is composed of a node in the form of verb, i.e. *turned away* and the collocate in the form of an adverb of manner *instinctively*. This collocation was translated into the same pattern across all three TLTs. In TLT1 and in TLT2, the translation technique used was

established equivalence. The node is also in the form of a verb, i.e. *membuang muka*, and the collocate is in the form of an adverb of manner *tanpa sadar* as shown in (12). The equivalence of *instinctively tuned away* in TLT3 was *seketika ingin berbalik* as shown in (13). The pattern of this equivalence is also verbal enhancement. In contrast to TLT1 and TLT2, the translation technique used in TLT3 was discursive creation. This produced a different meaning from the meaning found in the SLT. The meaning of *turned away* is different from the meaning of *berbalik*. The meaning of *berbalik* is *to turn back*. Meanwhile, the meaning of *instinctively* and its equivalence, i.e. *seketika* are not the same. *Instinctively* conveys the meaning of *unconsciously*; however, *seketika* implies the meaning of *suddenly*.

Translation Techniques Used in Translating English Verbal Node Collocations into Indonesian

Several translation techniques were identified in the three translated versions of the novel. Table 1 presents the translation techniques used in translating English verbal

node collocations into Indonesian. The table is presented in descending order from the highest to the lowest frequency.

Based on Table 1, there were 15 kinds of translation techniques used in translating English verbal node collocations into Indonesian; these were adaptation, addition, exploitation, deletion, generalization, literal translation, established equivalence, compensation, discursive creation, modulation, particularization, pure borrowing, reduction, transposition and variation.

As seen in Table 1, established equivalence was the technique most commonly used in translating English verbal node collocations into Indonesian. This technique was found in all three of the TLTs. In total 305 of all data used this kind of translation technique in TLT1. In TLT2,

this technique was implemented as many as 288 times. Meanwhile, in TLT3 it was used 263 times. With regard to translation techniques, this findings support the result of the research done by Setiarini (2017). She found that established equivalence was the most frequent technique used by translator in translating a bilingual recipe from English into Indonesian.

The findings also correspond to the research conducted by Pungă and Pârlog (2017). Based on their study, the translation techniques employed by the translators in translating English collocation into Romanian to obtain naturally-sounding Romanian collocations are equivalence, modulation, and transposition. They argued that English collocations were only sometimes translatable directly, by applying the word-for-word technique.

Table 1
Translation techniques used in translating English verbal node collocations

Translation Techniques in TLT1	Σ	Translation Techniques in TLT2	Σ	Translation Techniques in TLT3	Σ
Established Equivalence	305	Established Equivalence	288	Established Equivalence	263
Discursive Creation	71	Discursive Creation	79	Discursive Creation	99
Modulation	47	Modulation	50	Modulation	38
Explicitness	27	explicitness	29	Reduction	30
Reduction	15	Reduction	16	explicitness	18
Pure Borrowing	10	Pure Borrowing	10	Generalization	13
Literal	8	Generalization	8	Pure Borrowing	10
Generalization	7	Literal	7	Literal	7
Addition	5	Particularization	5	Addition	6
Particularization	4	Addition	4	Deletion	5
Deletion	3	Deletion	2	Transposition	4
Transposition	2	Transposition	2	Variation	1
Variation	2	Variation	2	Adaptation	1
Compensation	1	Compensation	2	Compensation	1
		Adaptation	1		

However, the result of the present study is not in line with the study conducted by Feng et al. (2018). The findings of Feng et al. (2018) show that literal translation is over used in translating Chinese to English translation in a business text. The overuse of literal translation is also reflected in a study conducted by Zinel'aabdin and Ahmed (2017). They found out that in translating collocation from English into Arabic, Saudi EFL students tended to use literal technique to produce translation. This technique results the unnatural collocation.

In this present study, the second most common technique was also the same across all three TLTs, i.e. discursive creation. In third place it was modulation, with 47, 50 and 38 respectively found in TLT1, TLT2 and TLT3.

Based on Table 1, there were seven cases of generalization used in TLT1. One similarity found in TLT1 and TLT3 was that addition was the ninth most common translation technique used. In TLT2, particularization was in ninth place. Based on the results, there were very few cases of translation techniques using transposition, variation, compensation and deletion. Adaptation was only used in TLT2 and TLT3.

CONCLUSIONS

The patterns of verbal node collocations found in SLT are clausal extension, verbal extension, clausal enhancement and verbal enhancement. For clausal extension, most of the data showed that the collocations were translated into the same pattern.

Some examples were translated into clausal enhancement and some into nonverbal node collocations. Only a few were translated as verbal extension and verbal enhancement. For verbal extension, it found that most of the collocations were translated into the same pattern as they were in SLT. Some were translated into nonverbal node collocations. Meanwhile, for clausal enhancement, the most frequently used pattern was clausal enhancement and the other common pattern found was clausal extension. The study also discovered the translation techniques used, namely established equivalence, discursive creation, modulation, explicitness, reduction, pure borrowing, generalization, literal translation, addition, particularization, deletion, transposition, variation, adaptation, and compensation. It revealed that the most frequently used translation technique was established equivalence.

However, this study is limited to only the patterns of collocation and the translation techniques implemented by the translators. Further studies can be conducted in investigating the translation quality assessment and the cause of the mistranslation. Moreover, the authors suggest further study on comparing the patterns in the translation of collocation produced by professional translators, novice translators, and students of translation.

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