Translation of Adjectival Collocations in Sidney Sheldon's *Tell Me Your Dreams* into Indonesian

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Abstract

Translating collocation is one of the most challenging tasks due to the linguistic and semantic features they have. This study analyzes the translation of the adjectival collocations of "Tell me your Dreams" into Indonesian. To be more specific, it aims at (1) discovering how English adjectival collocations are translated into Indonesian; (2) figuring out how many types of equivalence there are in the Indonesian translation from the English adjectival collocations; (3) discovering how many types of shift there are in the Indonesian translation from the English adjectival collocations; (4) figuring out whether shift happens more than equivalence or vice versa; and (5) figuring out whether the collocation translation makes the TL cohesive and coherent or not. This study uses a qualitative descriptive method, because all of the data that are analyzed in this research are in form of words and sentences not numbers and it is directed to answer research questions concerning the status of the subject of the study. The result shows that equivalence dominates the translation of English collocations into Indonesian in the novel with 30 (58.8%) of the whole data, and the amount of shift is 21 (41.2%) of the whole data.

INTRODUCTION

Collocations, the patterns of lexical items that co-occur, are essentially a cohesive and coherence device in any text. Since they are words combined together in phrases or sentences to form semantically unified expressions (Larson, 1984), collocations are an

important part of a text as they play a significant role in the formation of cohesion and coherence (Hatim & Mason, 1997), to present comprehensibility. If a text combines elements that do not collocate, it will look unnatural, alien, and exotic to the target reader, and this will consequently affect its comprehensibility. Moreover, it may also emerge a negative impact on the thematic structure of the text alongside the level of coherence and cohesion of the whole text.

Collocations are common in languages and become an umbrella that generally covers all fixed expressions and phrases in all types of texts (Brashi, 2009). However, since they concern with the link between lexical items in a particular language that are connected arbitrarily as they are primarily based on common usage rather than on rules (Benson et al, 1997), collocations are language-specific. Thus, they may cause a problem particularly to novice translators when the collocation construction of source text (ST) is different from those in the target text (TT). The potential linguistic and cultural divides between the source text (ST) and target text (TT) has indeed makes the translation of collocational expressions challenging. Palmer (1979) accentuated that collocations do not cause a problem to novice translators or second/foreign language learners but also to native speakers. A native speaker who learn words mainly in isolation can encounter problems in collocating specific lexemes in certain written contexts. Such problems can be avoided if one learn word collocations, i.e. common combinations of lexical items (Khuwaileh, 2000).

Various studies on the translation of collocations have been conducted. Faris and Sahu (2013) explored students' ability of to translate English collocations into Arabic. The results show that 70% of the students encounter problems in translating English collocations into Arabic due to difficulty of generalization, collocations variability, and cultural idiomatic collocations. In another study, Jabak, Abdullah & Mustapha (2016) examined students' difficulty in translating Arabic collocations into English. The researchers reported that a majority of the students encounter difficulty in translating collocations correctly because due to their extensive use of literal translation. Additionally, the students have little knowledge of collocations concepts in both languages. More recently, Bartan (2019) explored the errors in translating collocations in Turkish literary texts into English. The findings reveal that more restrictions of collocations cause poorer collocation production. Moreover, students, as translators, spent much time and energy in translating restricted collocations due to their lack of collocational competency of the English (the target language).

This study explores the translation of English adjectival collocations into Indonesian Equivalence and Shift. It focuses on how English adjectival collocations are translated into Indonesian and whether the shift occurs more than equivalence or the opposite. For the researcher English adjectival collocations are interesting to study because adjectival collocations are extensively used in most languages, including in books, newspapers, novels and magazines.

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LITERATURE REVIEW
Translation

According to Nida and Taber (1982), "Translating consists in reproducing the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (p. 12). Based on the definition, it is clear that the primary purpose of translating is to reproduce the message, and the reproduction must be in a form of close natural equivalent. Style, although it is not the main concern, should be retained as much as possible. Newmark (1981) posited that the translation is "The attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language" (p. 7). Thus, the fundamental purpose of translation is to communicate the intention of the author, the translator is professionally obligated to transfer ideas and thoughts explicitly marked or implicitly suggested by the SL in order to generate a response from the targeted readership comparable to the one generated by the SL. Other authors in translation used different words yet convey similar message on defining translation. Catford (1965) stated that translation is "the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)" (p.20). In translating, we involve two languages: SL means source language and TL means target language. The important thing in translating is how to replace SL by the appropriate equivalence in TL. Larson (1984) mentioned that translation consists of "transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language. This is done by going from the form of the first language to the form of a second language by way of semantic structure" (p.3). The form of the first language is called source language (SL) and the form of the second language is called receptor language or target language (TL).

In short, translation is a process of transferring, rendering, and reproducing the meaning, style, idea, and the closest natural equivalent of the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). However, the transfer of meaning and intent across language and cultural barriers is inherently problematic since meaning is naturally abstract, and as such it defies quantification. Moreover, the translation process is further complicated if the ST is heavily embedded with concepts deeply entrenched in culture.

Head Word and Phrase

In grammar, a phrase is a group of words functioning as a single unit in the syntax of a sentence (www.wikipedia.com). Tallerman (1998) categorizes phrases into five examples namely Noun Phrase (NP), Verb Phrase (VP), Adjective Phrase (AP), Adverb Phrase (AdvP), and Preposition Phrase(PP) (p.90-91). The example of NP is *very bright sunflowers* (N) or *bunga matahari yang sangat cerah*. The example of VP is *overflowed* (V) *quite quickly* or *mengalir dengan agak cepat*. The example of AP is *very bright* (A) or *sangat cerah*. The example of AdvP is *quite quickly* (Adv) or *agak cepat*. The example of PP is *inside* (P) *the house* or *di dalam rumah*. From the examples above, the conclusions are an NP is headed by a Noun, a VP is headed by a Verb, an AP is headed by an Adjective, an AdvP is headed by an Adverb, and a PP is headed by a Preposition.

Tallerman (1998) stated that the Head Word determines the meaning of the entire phrases (p.90). In this research, the researcher focuses on adjective phrase. An adjective phrase can act as *attributive* in a sentence (e.g. she likes *very dark* chocolate) and as *predicative* in a sentence (e.g. Rudi is *extremely dilligent*).

Equivalence

Nida and Taber (1982) stated that there are two different types of equivalence, the first one is called formal and the other is dynamic (p.22). According to Bob L. Ross (as cited in Hasibuan, 2008), Formal equivalence is the method whereby the translator's purpose is to give a literal, almost word-for-word rendition or translation whenever possible. Dynamic equivalence refers to the use of "almost word-for-word" translating whenever possible, dynamic equivalence, is related to the use of "thought-for-thought" translating. Equivalence means equal in amount, value and meaning (Hasibuan, 2008).

Shift

Catford (1965) divides shifts into level shifts and category shifts. Level shifts occurs in lexis and grammar. Category shifts are departures from formal correspondence in translation. Catford also describes category of shifts into four types, they are: structure shifts, class shifts, unit shifts, and intra system shifts (P.75-82). Structure shifts is a type of category shift that involves a transposition in grammatical structure between SL and TL. For example: *Budi ate chicken porridge*, which is translated into *Budi makan bubur ayam*. In English, the phonological form of the verb *eat* /iy/ is transposed into *ate*/ey/ while in Indonesian, the phonological one is not transposed. From the example mentioned above, *ate*, a past verb, is translated into *makan* and the grammatical structure, *ate*, of SL is different than that, *makan*, of TL.

Class shifts is a type of category shift which involves translating an SL item by means of a TL item belonging to a different grammatical class. For example: *a medical student* is translated into *seorang mahasiswa kedokteran*. *Medical* (Adjective) in SL becomes *kedokteran* (Noun) in TL. In other words, shift occurs from adjective to noun. Unit shifts involves changes of rank-that is-departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL is a unit at a different rank in the TL. Unit shifts happens in translation of words into phrase and vice versa. Example: *restaurant* (word) is translated into *rumah makan* (phrase). Intra-system shifts are translation shifts that occurred because of intra-system shift from SL into TL. For example, *glories* (plural noun) is translated into *kejayaan* (singular noun).

Collocation

Larson (1984) stated that collocation is "how words go together, i.e. which words may occur in constructions with which other words" (p. 141). Baker (2011) defined collocation as "...semantically arbitrary restrictions which do not follow logically from the proportional meaning of a word" or "the tendency of certain words to cooccur regularly in a given language" (p. 47). Additionally, Hatim and Munday (2004:249) refer to collocation as "the way that words are typically used together." In similar vein, Ghazala

(2006) defined collocation as "a combination of two or more words that always occur together consistently in different texts and contexts in language."

Collocations, therefore, are arbitrary, habitual, or regular co-occurrences of words or lexical items to produce typical, natural, and consistent language in different written or spoken contexts. Although the combinations of words that form English collocation sound right to native English speakers, it can be very difficult for non-English speaking people (Benson, Benson and Ilson, 1997). Collocation is different from phrase but we can find collocation in phrase. For example: *completely satisfied* is translated into *sangat memuaskan. Completely satisfied* is adjective phrase since the headword is *satisfied* (adjective) and also collocation since the combination of *completely* and *satisfied* sounds right to native English.

Translation of Collocations

Collocations require appropriate attention from translators due to its importance in both SL and TL. Samdja et al (1995) listed three reasons for paying special attention to the translation of collocations. First, they are opaque constructions untranslatable on a word-by-word basis. Second, they are domain dependent. Each domain has a various phrases having specific meanings, and translations should apply only in the given domain. Third, the correspondences between collocations in bilingual dictionaries, including the widely studied languages, are largely unexplored. Sarikah (2006) accentuated that since every language has its own words and structures with peculiar organization, while translating collocations into the TL, the translator should be keen on the word relations and grammatical systems of the SL. Otherwise there would be a loss of meaning in the translation.

Collocation Categories

Collocations can be classified into various categories, depending on the criteria employed. Consequently, there is no definitive approach to classify collocational expressions. Baker (2011) differentiate two major types of collocations: free word combinations and fixed expressions and idioms. Ghazala (2007) classifies collocations into 17 grammatical and lexical types. Benson, Benson and Ilson (1997) differentiated collocations into Grammatical Collocation and lexical collocation. Grammatical collocation is defined as a phrase consisting of a dominant word (noun, adjective, verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause. Examples of grammatical collocations are: decide on; account for; depend on; afraid of; adapt to, etc. Lexical collocations is defined as a type of construction where nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs form a predictable connection with another word as in: 'warmest regards' not 'hot regards.'

Table 1. Adjectival Collocation in Lexical Collocation

Patterns	Rules	Examples
L6	Adverb + Adjective	(SL)They are *keenly aware* on drugs addiction (TL) Mereka *sangat peduli* tentang masalah kecanduan obat-obatan terlarang.

The patterns that will be used in this research are L6. Listed in Table 1. The letter L in the table above stands for Language and number 6 stands for type 6 of Lexical Collocation Patterns. In the examples of the table above, SL of L6 is translated into TL of L6. The examples of L6 explain about the Rules of Adverb + Adjective. The word *keenly* in SL is an adverb while the word *aware* in SL is an adjective. In conclusion, according to Benson, Benson, and Ilson. (1997), lexical collocation is a type of construction where nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs form a predictable connection with another word.

METHOD

This study uses a qualitative descriptive method, because all of the data that are analyzed in this research are in form of words and sentences not numbers. This research is also a descriptive research, because it involves the collecting data in order to answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. (Wilkinson, 2007). In this study, adjectival collocations in Sheldon's (1998) *Tell Me Your Dreams* were identified and compared to their translated collocations in Srisanti' (1999) *Ceritakan Mimpi-Mimpimu*, the Indonesian version of the former. The data identification was conducted by reading the SL carefully sentence-by-sentence or paragraph by paragraph. Then the adjectival collocations were compared to their translation in the TL to analyze the types of shift and equivalence grounded on relevant theories.

In collecting data, expressions having adjectival collocations in lexical collocation were underlined and numbered. Then they were transferred them into the corpus of the research. The corpus of the research is classified into a pattern, namely: Adverb + Adjective. The corpus of the research in above pattern, then, was classified into two main categories and six subcategories namely Equivalence (which consists of: Formal Equivalence and Dynamic Equivalence) and Shift (which consists of: Structure Shift, Class Shift, Unit Shift, Intra-System Shift).

The corpus of the research is presented in a clustered bar chart, a table and sequence of sentences as examples. The clustered bar chart covers two main categories of the Indonesian translation from the English adjectival collocation with its frequencies. Those two main categories and their subcategories are presented in a table including their data and frequencies. The result in the form of clustered bar chart and table will be interpreted by giving more explanation under each list. Only some of the corpus of the research from each categories and subcategories are presented. The rest of the corpus of the research are in the appendices.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the careful reading of the ST, 51 adjectival collocations were identified, which were classified into two main categories namely equivalence and shift (Table 2). Then the equivalence was further grouped into two sub-categories namely formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. The shift was classified into four sub-categories

namely structure shift, class shift, unit shift, intra-system shift. It means that these two main categories on this research are suitable with the pattern of lexical collocation that has been mentioned earlier in theoretical review.

Table 2. Categories and Sub-Categories of Collocation Translation

No	Categories and Sub-Categories	Number of Data	%
1	**Equivalence**	**30**	**58,8%**
	Formal Equivalence	25	49 %
	Dynamic Equivalence	5	9,8%
2	**Shift**	**21**	**41,2%**
	Structure Shift	16	31.4%
	Class Shift	1	2 %
	Unit Shift	4	7,8 %
	Intra- System Shift	-	0 %
	Total	**51 Data**	**100%**

Equivalence

As shown in Table 2, based on frequency, equivalence is more dominant than shift. The majority of equivalence is formal equivalent. The followings are three examples of them.

(1) Bloody easy   :   betapa mudahnya
(2) Simply pretty   :   hanya sekadar cantik
(3) Vividly real   :   rasanya nyata sekali

The first collocation above shows that the phrase in SL is adjective phrase since the headword of it is *easy* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called formal equivalence since formal equivalence is related to the "word-for-word" translating. The data in SL has the same meaning with that in TL The second collocation indicates that the phrase in SL is adjective phrase since the headword of it is *pretty* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called formal equivalence since formal equivalence is related to the "word-for-word" translating. The data in SL has the same meaning with that in TL. The third shows that the phrase in SL is adjective phrase since the headword of it is *real* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called formal equivalence since formal equivalence is related to the "word-for-word" translating. The data in SL has the same meaning with that in TL.

From the findings and discussion above, the researcher concludes as follows:
Example number (1) Bloody easy is cohesive with *betapa mudahnya* since both are adjective phrases and have the same headword. The same goes to examples number (2) and (3).

Those three in SL are also coherent with those in TL since data in SL have the same meaning with those in TL, are formal equivalent and collocate to each in TL naturally.

In the SL, five dynamic equivalences are identified. The followings are three examples of dynamic equivalent.

(1) Vaguely familiar-looking   : orang asing yang serasa dikenalnya
(2) Terribly wrong   : sangat tidak beres
(3) Completely gone   : langsung buyar

The first collocation shows that the SL is an adjective phrase since the headword of it is *familiar-looking* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called dynamic equivalence since dynamic equivalence is related to the "thought-for-thought" translating. The "thought-for-thought" translating is also identified as paraphrasing. *Orang asing yang serasa dikenalnya* in TL is a paraphrase of and has the same meaning with *vaguely familiar-looking* in SL. The second
indicates that the SL is an adjective phrase since the headword is *wrong* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called dynamic equivalence since dynamic equivalence is related to the "thought-for-thought" translating. The "thought-for-thought" translating is also identified as paraphrasing. *Sangat tidak beres* in TL is a paraphrase of and has the same meaning with *terribly wrong* in SL. The third shows that the SL is an adjective phrase since the headword is *gone* (adjective). The translation of SL into TL is called dynamic equivalence since dynamic equivalence is related to the "thought-for-thought" translating. The "thought-for-thought" translating is also identified as paraphrasing. *Langsung buyar* in TL is a paraphrase of and has the same meaning with *completely gone* in SL.

From the findings and discussion above, the researcher concluded that *vaguely familiar-looking* is cohesive with *orang asing yang serasa dikenalnya* since both are adjective phrases and have the same headword. Those three in SL are also coherent with those in TL since data in SL have the same meaning with those in TL, are dynamic equivalent and collocate to each in TL naturally.

Shift
As shown in Table 2, three types of shift were identified in which structure shift is the most dominant (16 items), followed by unit shift 94) and class shift (1). The followings are three examples of structure shift.

(1) Neatly dressed   :   berpakaian rapi
(2) Attractively furnished   :   didekorasi menarik
(3) Puckishly heart shaped   :   berbentuk hati

All three collocations above indicate that data in SL and TL are adjective phrases. In these phrases, *adverb+adjective* in SL is shifted into *adjective+adverb* in TL that constitutes *Structure Shift*. All of the SL phrases above have the same meaning with those in TL.

The only class shift identified in the novel is the following:

(1) Unnaturally quiet   :   kesunyian tidak wajar

This collocation is an adjective phrase since the headword of it is *quiet* (adjective). It is called class shift because *quiet* (adjective) is shifted into *kesunyian* (noun). The data of SL has the same meaning with the data of TL.

The third type of shift identified in the novel is unit shift. The followings are three examples:

(1) Really good   :   bagus
(2) Really well-known   :   terkenal
(3) Actually committed   :   dilakukan

These three collocations are adjective phrases. The shift from SL to TL above is called unit shift because *really good* (phrase) of data (1) is shifted into *bagus* (word), *really well-known* (phrase) is shifted into *terkenal* (word). *Actually committed* (phrase) is shifted into *dilakukan* (word). All data of SL has the same meaning with those of TL.

From the findings and discussion above, the researcher concluded that all structure shifts above in SL are cohesive with those in TL since those three are adjective phrases and each in SL collocate with each in TL. *adverb+adjective* in SL is shifted into *adjective+adverb* in TL that constitutes *Structure Shift*. Those three are also coherent since data in SL have the same meaning with those in TL. Those three in SL collocate to those in TL naturally.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, fifty-one collocations classified into equivalence and shift were identified in the translation of Sheldon's *Tell Me Your Dreams* into Indonesian language entitled *Ceritakan Mimpi-Mimpimu*. The Equivalence is classified into two formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence, the shift is grouped into three sub-categories namely structure shift, class shift, and unit shift, Equivalence happens more in the translation of English into Indonesian with 30 (58,8%) of the whole data, the collocation translation makes the TL cohesive and coherent.

Since this study involves only fifty-one adjectival collocations identified in a novel and its translated version, the writer would like to suggest the next researcher to analyze other part of lexical collocation, particularly verbal collocation that is still rarely analyzed. Involving collocations obtained from various types of texts is also recommended.

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