

Collocation as Source of Translation Unacceptability: Indonesian Students' Experiences

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Abstract

The aims of the present study are to explore wrong English collocations made by some Indonesian English learners and to find out the causes of the wrong collocations. Twenty seven wrong English lexical collocations and nine wrong grammatical collocations collected from the students' translation and writing assignments have been examined. After comparing the patterns of English collocations and the Indonesian collocations it is found out that the erroneous English collocations are attributed to four causes: (1) learners' lack of knowledge of collocation, (2) differences of collocations between English and Bahasa Indonesia, (3) learners' low mastery of vocabulary and (4) strong interferences of the learners' native language. It is suggested that the students should be informed that collocation, like grammar, is one aspect of not only English but all other languages that should be learnt if they want their English sound natural and mastery of vocabulary can contribute to the constructing of correct collocations.

Keywords: collocation, translation, vocabulary, interference

1. Introduction

In learning a foreign language a learner is faced with a variety of problems. The problems are concerned with every aspect of the language: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and even pragmatics. If the foreign language being learnt is still related to the learner's native language the learner normally will find many similarities between the foreign language and his/her native language. So the problems he/she will face are not so serious but when the two languages are not related like Bahasa Indonesia, the national language of the Republic of Indonesia, a language that belongs to Austronesian family and English, one that belongs to Indo-European family, the problems may become more serious and complicated.

The problems of learning a foreign language is not an unusual phenomenon. It is natural since one is faced with a language which is, in almost every aspect, is distinct from his/her own language. Some of the problems of learning the foreign language can be resolved in the course of learning the language. Grammatical differences can be resolved by learning the grammar books which are widely available. Pronunciation difficulties can be overcome by consulting dictionaries which provide "how to pronounce words". Complete dictionaries can be consulted as well when the problems are concerned with meanings. However when the problems are about collocation (which word goes with what) it is not easy to find dictionaries which can show learners appropriate combination of words. Unlike grammatical mistakes which can be easily decided wrong since they violate the rule/grammar of the language such as not attaching the 's' to the end of a verb when the subject is singular or the third person singular and the tense is simple present, collocational errors are hard to identify especially by a non-native speaker because he/she may think that he/she has constructed his/her sentences according to the grammar of the language but to the native speakers his/her grammatically correct sentence sounds odd. For example, *Ali drives his bike to college* is grammatically correct (*Ali* as the subject is singular followed by a verb in present tense with suffix -s and because *Ali* is male the use of *his* is correct and since *drive* is a transitive verb the presence of the *bike* as the object is obligatory and *to college* functioning as adverb modifies the verb *drive*) but sounds foreign to the ears of native speakers of English because it is not normal to combine *drive* and *bike*. In other words it is collocationally incorrect.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Collocation

Two or more words may have similar meaning but only a certain word that habitually goes with (collocates with) other word. For example, *handsome* and *beautiful* have similar cognitive meaning but only *handsome* that usually collocates with *man*. In contrast, only *beautiful* that usually collocates with *woman*. *Handsome woman* and *beautiful man* sound odd or unnatural to English native speakers

Collocation is not an unusual linguistic phenomenon. Like idiom, it does not only exist in English but in every human verbal language. In other words collocation can be found in any language. Collocation is derived from the verb *to collocate* which means to 'locate or to put things together'

Numerous definitions of collocation can be cited, however since all of the definitions generally express the same basic meaning but use different wording, six definitions are considered sufficient to show the concept of the collocation. English Club 16 Years defines collocation as "... two or more words that often go together. These combination just sound "right" to native English speakers who use them all the time. On the other hand, other combinations may be unnatural and just sound "wrong". Two examples are given, they are *the fast train* not *the quick train* or *a quick shower* not *a fast shower*. Another definition given by Wikipedia: "... a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected". And English leap .com defines collocation as "... a combination of words that are commonly used together; the simplest way of describing collocation is to say that they "just sound" right to native speakers of English". A straightforward definition of collocation is given by Nottinger and DeCorrico (cited in Chia-Lin Kuo, 2009) that is "...high frequency word combination". A definition provided by Oxford Collocation Dictionary for Students of English, 2002:vii cited in Achmad (2010) reads: "collocation is the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing. And finally Baker (1992, p. 47) defines it as "tendency of certain words to co-occur regularly in a given language". In the six definitions six key phrases are used when collocation is dealt with that is (1) *words that often go together*, (2) *a sequence of words* (3) *a combination of words*, (4) *high frequency of word combination*, (5) *natural sounding* and (6) *tendency of certain words to co-occur*. These definitions clearly show that a collocation is "a combination or a sequence of two or more words that often go together which sounds natural to native speakers of the language". The use of adverbs *often*, *commonly* and *regularly* indicate a habit of the native speakers to combine two or more words together. Since it is a habit, a wrong collocation will sound unnatural. When we compare collocation and grammar we can see a big difference. Grammar indicates a clear-cut division between what is correct and what is wrong. A sentence like *She speak English very good* is grammatically wrong and it is therefore rejected but *My sister can cook cake* is grammatically correct but the combination of *cook* and *cake* is unusual for a native speaker of English since *cake* is *made* not *cooked*.

The pattern of collocation may differ from one language to another. In Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian), for example, the word *memasak* (to cook) may co-occur with *kue* (cake) and foods like *sayur* (vegetables), *nasi* (rice), *sop* (soup) etc. The word *angry* in English collocates with *with* while *kind* collocates with *to*, *rely* with *on*. In Bahasa Indonesia *marah* (angry), *baik* (kind) and *bertumpu* (rely) all collocate with the same preposition *kepada* (to) as in *marah kepada*, *baik kepada*, *bertumpu pada* (*kepada*).

A native speaker is quite aware of the collocation in his/her language (words which may or may not be allowed to go together). When a non-native speaker uses a wrong collocation, say, for example, *to follow an exam* as it is commonly used by the writer's Indonesian university students, it is understood but sounds odd to native speakers of English.

Mastery of collocation in the foreign language being learnt is obligatory if the learner wants to speak or write as a native-like speaker/writer because knowledge of appropriate collocation is part of the native speakers' competence (Taiwo, 2004). Unfortunately foreign language learners usually pay more attention to grammar and pay less or no attention to collocation. Mastery of collocation is no less important than mastery of grammar. Taiwo (2004) sees that collocational errors are equally significant as grammatical errors and in fact, more disruptive in communication. Again unfortunately, very few studies have been made dealing with collocation (Kuo, 2009).

According to Benson et al. (1986) as cited in Achmad (2010) collocation is commonly distinguished into lexical collocation and grammatical collocation. "Lexical collocation consists of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs. Grammatical collocation consists of dominant word (like a verb, a noun, or an adjective) and a preposition or grammatical structure. Some patterns of English collocation can be seen below together with examples.

1. Verb + Noun e.g., make friends, hold a meeting

2. verb + adverb e.g., speak loudly, fly high
3. Adjective + Noun e.g., heavy traffic, dense forest
4. Adverb + verb e.g., entirely disagree, strongly recommend
5. adverb + adjective e.g., highly complicated, extremely hot
6. noun + verb e.g., car runs, dogs bark
7. Noun + noun e.g., factory worker, horse breeder
8. Preposition + noun e.g., in the room, beside the building
9. Verb + preposition e.g., depend on, pass by, good at, interested in
10. noun + preposition e.g., passer-by, fly-over, turn-around, top-down

Pattern 1 to 7 belong to lexical collocation whereas 8 to 10 belong to grammatical collocation.

2.2 Translation

Translation can be defined as the transfer of meaning from one language (technically called source language) to another language (target language). It is the meaning which is transferred not the form of the source text (ST). Since the ideal mission of translation is to make the readers of the translated text understand and accept it as a reading which is both linguistically and culturally natural as his/her own native language, it is the meaning which must be translated. If only the form which is translated (literal translation) not how the meaning is commonly expressed in the target language (TL) an Indonesian sentence like *Hujan turun lagi* would be translated into *Rain comes down again* which may be understood by English native speakers but which sounds awkward since it never exists in their linguistic repertoire. “*I am waiting for your reply*” as the result of literal translation of “*Saya menunggu jawaban Saudara*” is equally understood but that is not how native speakers of English express the message for what they usually write is “*I am looking forward to your reply*”.

Numerous examples of collocational errors like these made by Indonesian learners when writing or speaking English can be cited ranging from simple collocational errors like the examples shown above to serious collocational errors such as *Please kill the machine of the mobile* (a direct translation of *Tolong matikan mesin mobil itu*).

Young learners of foreign language tend to translate literally the patterns of their native language to the foreign language. This is quite common. This is not only a case of Indonesian learners but also of other nationalities as stated by Taiwo (2004): “Studies of collocational errors reveal that collocations in the MT (mother tongue) are often translated directly into English”. His example of direct translation made by the learners from Yoruba into English is the use of *house money* instead of *rent*.

Literal translation however is not always inaccurate for it is one of a number of translation techniques. According to Nababan (1999, p. 31) when the structure of the English sentence is similar to that of Bahasa Indonesia, a literal translation technique can be applied. His example is *I will go to New York tomorrow* can be translated literally into *Saya akan pergi ke New York besok*. Similarly according to Larson (1984, p. 10) a literal translation can be done when the SL and the TL are closely related languages, from the same language family. Then Hatim and Munday’s (2004, p. 12) statement implies that a literal translation can be done if the ST is so close or similar to the TT. On the other hand a literal translation is not so common when the languages in question are more distant. And finally Moentaha (2006, p. 50) clearly states that translation at word level can be done and can produce an acceptable translation if the structure of the ST is very simple. Thus we can conclude that if every word in the ST contains its literal/primary meaning. A literal translation then can be done as

My father	likes	to drink	coffee	at my uncle’s coffee shop.
Ayah saya	suka	minum	kopi	di warung kopi paman saya.

but when a certain word contains an extended/non-literal meaning in a sentence, applying a literal translation can be very misleading as when *The child nose always runs* is translated into *Hidung anak itu selalu berlari* because the primary meaning of *to run* in Bahasa Indonesia is *berlari*. It is quite illogical that human nose is able to run in the sense that the nose can move. In English the primary meaning of *to run* for human is to move using both feet faster than walking while one of the non-literal meanings of *to run* is ‘nose gets wet’.

3. Methodology

3.1 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study are (1) to disclose uncommon English collocations made by Indonesian learners when they translated Indonesian phrases and sentences into English, (2) to compare the English wrong collocations with the collocations in Bahasa Indonesia, and (3) to find out the possible causes of the wrong English collocations.

3.2 Source of Data

Teaching English to Indonesian university students for more than thirty years is a sufficient time to watch how the students made collocational errors when they were asked to do a task like translating an Indonesian text into English, writing an English essay or when writing their own thesis as the final task. So the data presented here were not collected from a certain source such as a single writing assignment or a translation homework but from the writer's daily records of collocational errors they made while they were attending the writer's English classes.

3.3 Data

Twenty seven items of wrong English lexical collocations have been collected and nine items of wrong English grammatical collocations have been collected as well. They are listed in the two columns below where those on the left are Indonesian correct collocations while those on the right are the translation of the Indonesian collocations into English.

1. mengambil keputusan	1. take decision
2. mencari napkah	2. find salary
3. mengenderai sepeda motor	3. drive a motorcycle
4. mengikuti kuliah	4. follow a lecture
5. mengikuti ujian	5. follow examination
6. mencari uang	6. find money
7. mengerjakan pekerjaan rumah (PR)	7. Work homework
8. memerlukan waktu	8. need time
9. berbicara baik	9. speak good
10. datang cepat	10. come fast
11. berbicara lancar	11. speak smoothly
12. menambah lagi	12. add again
13. sangat menyukainya	13. very like it
14. daging matang	14. ripe meat
15. nilai buruk	15. bad mark
16. rambut lebat	16. dense hair
17. makanan enak	17. enjoyable food
18. orang besar	18. big man
19. mobil kuat	19. strong car
20. dibutuhkan segera	20. needed fast
21. ibu itu melahirkan bayi	21. the mother yielded a baby
22. upah buruh	22. worker's salary
23. murid Taman Kanak-kanak	23. Kindergarten students
24. sekolah dokter	24. doctor school
25. kamus dua bahasa	25. double language dictionary
26. industry mobil	26. mobile industry
27. layanan umum	27. general service

1. marah kepada	1. angry to
2. takut kepada	2. afraid to
3. tertarik kepada	3. interested to/with
4. sama dengan	4. same with
5. sedih dengan	5. sorry with
6. bangga dengan	6. proud with
7. di depan sekolah	7. at front of the school
8. di belakang kantor pos	8. in the back of the post-office
9. di samping kiri rumah sakit	9. at the left side of the hospital

3.4 Analysis

First, all of the collocations were grouped into two groups that is one group of lexical collocation (Table 1) and one group of grammatical collocation (Table 2).

All correct collocations in Bahasa Indonesia are presented on the left column and the English wrong collocations are presented in the middle column as the result of the translation of the Indonesian collocations made by the students and the common English collocations, the collocations which are acceptable to native speakers of English are presented on the right column.

Then the items that belong to the same category were grouped together such as the items that belong to verb+ noun pattern, adjective + noun pattern, adverb + adjective pattern and so on. Every item of English erroneous collocations was examined and compared with the Indonesian collocation to find out the causes of the students' English collocational errors.

Table 1. Common erroneous English lexical collocations

No	Indonesian Collocation	Erroneous English Collocation	Common English Collocation
1	mengambil keputusan	take decision	make decision
2	mencari napkah	find salary	earn a living
3	mengendarai sepeda motor	drive a motorcycle	ride a motorcycle
4	mengikuti kuliah	follow a lecture	attend a lecture
5	mengikuti ujian	follow examination	take/sit for an examination
6	mencari uang	find money	make money
7	mengerjakan pekerjaan rumah (PR)	work homework	do homework
8	memerlukan waktu	need time	take time
9	berbicara baik	speak good	speak well
10	datang cepat	come fast	come early
11	berbicara lancar	speak smoothly	speak fluently
12	menambah lagi	add again	add more
13	sangat menyukainya	very like it	like it very much
14	daging matang	ripe meat	cooked meat
15	nilai buruk	bad mark	poor grade
16	rambut lebat	dense hair	thick hair
17	makanan enak	enjoyable food	delicious food
18	orang besar	big man	great man
19	mobil kuat	strong car	powerful car

20	dibutuhkan segera	needed fast	urgently required
21	ibu itu melahirkan bayi	the mother yielded a baby	the mother gave birth to a baby (the mother bore a baby)
22	upah buruh	worker's salary	worker's wage
23	murid Taman Kanak-kanak	kindergarten students	kindergarten pupils
24	sekolah dokter	doctor school	medical school
25	kamus dua bahasa	double language dictionary	bilingual dictionary
26	industry mobil	mobile industry	car factory
27	layanan umum	general service	public service

Table 2. Common erroneous English grammatical collocations

No	Indonesian Collocation	Erroneous English Collocation	Common English Collocation
1	marah kepada	angry to	angry with
2	takut kepada	afraid to	afraid of
3	tertarik kepada	interested to/with	interested in
4	sama dengan	same with	same as
5	sedih dengan	sorry with	sorry for/about
6	bangga dengan	proud with	proud of
7	di depan sekolah	at front of the school	in front of the school
8	di belakang kantor pos	in the back of the post-office	at the back of the post-office
9	di samping kiri rumah sakit	at the left side of the hospital	on the left side of the hospital

4. Discussion

The twenty seven of lexical collocations and nine grammatical collocations are the most commonly erroneous collocations in English made by the writer's students when they were attending the writer's English classes. Those errors were not made only while they were doing translation exercises or projects but also when they were doing writing exercises.

By observing all the wrong English collocations made by the students, the wrong English collocations explicitly show that as foreign language learners the students found English collocations as a serious problem. When they translated the collocations in their native language into English, or when they constructed the collocations directly in their writing tasks, the results were very unacceptable.

The discussion below will show how the English words were wrongly combined due to some factors and which resulted in unacceptable collocations.

4.1 Lexical Collocation

The examination of each of the erroneous English collocations indicates that the errors are derived from direct/literal translation of the (correct) collocations in Bahasa Indonesia. As we see in number 1 to number 8 of lexical collocation the students did literal translation of those verbs into English. The verb *mengambil* in (1) is literally equal to *take*, *mencari* in (2) and (6) is equal to *find*, *mengendarai* in (3) is equal to *drive/ride*, *mengikuti* in (4) and (5) is equal to *follow*, *mengerjakan* in (7) as a transitive verb *is* equal to *do* not to *work*, and *memerlukan* in (8) is equal to *need*. The students did not know that in English the verb *take* does not collocate with *decision* but with *make*, *living/money/salary*. cannot collocate with *find* since *find* is equal to *discover*. In Bahasa Indonesia the verb *mencari* means 1. To try to get something, and 2. To make an effort to get money or food. *Pencarian* as its noun means *wealth* or *possession* collected. In English *money* is not *found* but *made*. In Bahasa Indonesia a distinction is not made whether the vehicle driven runs on two wheels like bicycle or motorcycle or on four wheels like car or bus. The verb *mengendarai* or *mengemudi* as its synonym can be used for the two types of vehicle. Unlike English where *drive* collocates with *car, bus, truck* etc while bicycle or motorcycle is not driven but ridden. The verb *mengikuti* means *to follow* as in *mengikuti perintah* "to follow an

instruction” or *Anjing itu mengikuti tuannya* ‘The dog is following its master’. It can be also used to show attendance at a ceremony or meeting as in *Mengikuti upacara nasional* ‘To attend a national ceremony’ or *mengikuti kuliah* ‘to attend a lecture’. So, since the use of *mengikuti* is wide enough, the students collocated *follow* with *lecture* which is certainly unusual. In English one *is to sit for* or *take an examination* but in Bahasa Indonesia again the verb *mengikuti* can go with *ujian* ‘exam’ that is why they made a wrong collocation: *follow reexamination*. In Bahasa Indonesia *bekerja* means *to work* in order to get money or food and *mengerjakan* means to do a piece of work like homework. In English *to work* is equal to *bekerja* as in *He works at an office* which can be literally translated into *Dia bekerja di sebuah kantor*. But a piece of work is not *worked** in English but is *done*. While in Bahasa Indonesia the intransitive verb *bekerja* can change into transitive by adding an affix (confix *me-kan*) and *mengerjakan* can collocate with a piece of work like homework so, that is why they made *work homework* as the equivalent of *mengerjakan pekerjaan rumah*. The verb *memerlukan* is equal to *need*, thus they can say *memerlukan waktu (time)/uang (money)/tenaga (energy)* etc. But in English especially for time it is more common to say *to take time* than *to need time* as in *It will take an hour to repair the watch*.

Of the pattern V+Adv from 9 to 13 the errors are concerned with the use of the adverbs. The word *baik* in 9 can be used both as adjective as in *orang baik* ‘good people’ and as an adverb as in *berbicara baik* ‘to speak well’ or *bertingkah laku baik* ‘to behave well’. In English it is not common to say *to speak good* except in an informal speech because *good* is not an adverb although in other cases we can say both *a fast train* and *the train runs fast*. The same is true for *cepat* ‘fast’ in 10 and *lancar* ‘fluent’ in 11. Both can be used as adjective as in *bus cepat* ‘fast bus’ and as an adverb as in *bus datang cepat* ‘Literally: bus comes fast’ which means ‘the bus came early’. Again *lancar* can be used both as adjective and adverb as in *lancar kaji* ‘fluent reading’ (the reading of the Koran) and *membaca lancar* ‘to read fluently’ while in English *fast* is not similar to *early*. The word *fast* is concerned with manner of moving while *early* is concerned with period of time. The adverb *lagi* in 12 means ‘again’ and ‘more’ as in *datang lagi besok* ‘come back again tomorrow’ and *ambil lagi kalau kurang* ‘take some more if not enough’. In English *again* is concerned with time or frequency, for example, *do it again (do it one more time)* whereas *more* is concerned with ‘addition’ for example, *take some more if you like*. In Bahasa Indonesia the adverb *sangat* ‘very’ in 13 can collocate with mental verbs like *suka* ‘like’, *cinta* ‘love’, *benci* ‘hate’ but not with material verbs as *menulis* ‘write’, *berlari* ‘run’ or *membaca* ‘read’ so *sangat suka*, *sangat cinta* and *sangat benci* are collocationally correct. It is clear that the wrong collocation *very like it* resulted from the direct translation of *sangat menyukainya* without realising that *very* as the equivalent of *sangat* cannot modify verbs even mental verbs in English. In Bahasa Indonesia the adjective *matang* of 14 may mean ‘ripe’, ‘cooked’. It can be used together with meat, fruit, rice, water etc, as in *daging matang* ‘cooked meat’, *mangga matang* ‘ripe mango’, *nasi matang* ‘cooked rice’, *air matang* ‘boiled water’. In English, meat is not ripe but cooked. What is ripe is fruit like apple, mango etc. Both *food* and *fruit* are *masak* for Indonesians but for English speakers *food is cooked* while *fruit is ripe*. Speakers of language differ in the way they portray an event or a state as claimed by Baker (1992, p. 49). For example, *money* or *water* is viewed as a different thing from, say a *book* or *cat*. *Money* or *water* for them is a thing which is not normally counted so that they say *much money/water*. Conversely *book* or *cat* is commonly counted. That is why they say *many books/cats*. For Indonesian speakers, on the contrary, the difference is not significant. They view *money* and *book* as two similar things and that is why they say *banyak uang* and *banyak buku*. An example cited from Malaysian Malay might be a good one to show how they view a *Dutch wife* differently from Indonesians do. For Malaysian Malay speakers a *Dutch wife* is *bantal peluk*. They view it as a kind of pillow to be embraced (according to its function) while for Indonesian speakers it is *bantal guling* (according to its nature as a pillow which can roll over). So the way how speakers look at a similar thing may cause different collocation in two languages. Similarly *buruk* ‘bad’ in 15 can collocate with many nouns such as concrete nouns like *muka* ‘face’, *rumah* ‘house’, *jalan* ‘road’ as well as abstract nouns like *kelakuan* ‘behaviour’, *mimpi* ‘dream’, *nasib* ‘fate’ etc. So for Indonesians, *nilai* ‘exam grade’ is also *buruk* whereas in English it is not customary to say *bad grade* but *poor grade*. For beginners the word *poor* means ‘having little money or wealth’ as its primary meaning. The adjective *lebat* ‘dense and thick’ of number 16 can attract a number of collocates in Bahasa Indonesia such as *rambut* ‘hair’, *hutan* ‘forest’, *hujan* ‘rain’, *daun* ‘leaf’. So *rambut* and *hutan* can go together with *lebat*. A distinction is not made between them. In contrast, although the cognitive meaning of *dense* and *thick* are similar, but hair is never dense but thick although forest can be both thick and dense. In Bahasa Indonesia when both food and travel/sightseeing are enjoyed, the state is called *enak* (no17) ‘enjoyable, delicious’, so *makanannya enak* ‘the food was delicious’ and *perjalanannya enak* ‘the travel was enjoyable’. Both *makanan* and *perjalanan* can collocate with *enak*. In English *food is delicious* while *travel/trip* or *sightseeing is enjoyable*. In Bahasa Indonesia the adjective *besar* ‘big, great, huge etc’ of number 18 can collocate with many words not only words that refer to physical objects like human, animal, tree, house etc but also with abstract things like *wish*, *hope*, *success*, *failure*, *idea* etc. Conversely in English when someone

whose body is big in size, the man/woman is big but when a man/woman has good reputation or has done a lot or created something for the benefit of many people, he/she is *great* not *big*.

The pattern of *dibutuhkan segera* of number 20 is verb (passive) + adverb. It is equal to *urgently needed* of adverb + verb (passive) pattern. In the erroneous collocation (*needed fast*) the mistake is that the student could not differentiate *fast* from *urgently*. In Bahasa Indonesia *segera* which means 'urgently' can be replaced by *cepat* which means 'fast' without a significant difference of meaning. The form *diperlukan segera* and *diperlukan cepat* are not quite different. Both may mean 'urgently required' but not 'required fast' for *fast* is similar to *quickly*. The translation of *ibu itu melahirkan bayi* of number 21 into *the mother yielded a baby* is collocationally wrong. The verb *yield* cannot collocate with *baby* but with, for example, *fruit*. A mother *bears a baby* or *gives birth to a baby* when using idiomatic expression.

Low mastery of vocabulary or high familiarity with a certain word makes wrong collocation as in 22 *woker's salary*, in 23 *kindergarten's students*, in 24 *doctor school*, in 25 *double language dictionary*, in 23 *mobile industry*, and in 27 *general service*. In Bahasa Indonesia there are two words which mean 'pay' that is *gaji* and *upah*. *Gaji* is more widely known. Similarly there are two words for people going to educational institutions that is *mahasiswa* 'student' and *murid* 'pupil'. In Bahasa Indonesia the distinction of status of *mahasiswa* and *murid* is clearly known. *Mahasiswa* are those going to university/college while *murid* are those going to kindergarten, junior and senior high schools. But in their use of English, the word *student* is more familiar with them. The word *doctor* and *double* are very common words not only for students but the public as well; they have long become Indonesian words through borrowing; while *medical* and the prefix *bi-* as used in *bilingual* are less familiar. They are normally used as technical terms. The word *mobil* which has been derived by adaptation of spelling from English *mobile* is very well-known among the speakers of Bahasa Indonesia which means 'car'. It has become an entry in Indonesian dictionary. In Advanced Oxford Learner's Dictionary (1995) the primary meaning of *mobile* as an adjective is 'that can move or be moved easily and quickly from place to place', another meaning (informal) is 'having transport especially a car'. So, the adjective has changed to a noun in Bahasa Indonesia as in *Saya naik mobil ke kantor* 'I drive a car to my office'. In English to say *I drive a mobile to my office* is unusual. The word *industry* which is spelled *industri* in Bahasa Indonesia is a very familiar word to Indonesian speakers and it for a long time has become a lexical item in Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia (a complete and standard Indonesian dictionary) while the word *factory* is not found in the dictionary. So it seems that to collocate *industry* and *mobile* by the student was caused by familiarity factor. The word *general* and *public* are of course synonymous but each cannot collocate freely with any word. Due to the student's lack of knowledge of collocation they did not know that *general* does not commonly collocate with *service* but it collocates with words such as *interest*, *knowledge*, *condition* etc.

4.2 Grammatical Collocation

When we observe closely the grammatical collocation errors in the nine examples of Table 2 above it can be clearly seen that the influence of the speaker's native language is very dominant. In Bahasa Indonesia the adjectives *marah* 'angry', *takut* 'afraid' and *tertarik* 'interested' collocate with the same preposition *kepada* which in English may be equivalent to 'to' but in English *angry*, *afraid* and *intrested* cannot habitually go together with the same preposition. *Angry* can collocate only with *with*, *afraid* with *of* and *intrested* with *in*. To use 'to' as the collocate of the three adjective will result in uncommon collocations. Again in Bahasa Indonesia the adjective *sama* 'same', *sedih* 'sorry' and *bangga* 'proud' collocate with the same preposition *dengan* 'with' but again in English *same* collocates with preposition *as*, *sorry* 'sad or regretful' collocates with *for* or *about* and *proud* collocates with *of*. In Bahasa Indonesia the preposition *di* 'at, on, in' can collocate with all location names such as *depan* 'front', *belakang* 'back', *samping* 'side', *puncak* 'top', *dasar* 'bottom' and *dalam* 'inside'. Possibly it is the practice of using similar preposition with all location names in Bahasa Indonesia which is transferred into English which results in uncommon collocation in English.

After comparing all the correct collocations in Bahasa Indonesia with all the erroneous collocations in English made by the Indonesian students, the wrong collocations can be attributed to several causes: (1) lack of the students' knowledge of collocation. They were not aware or did not know that, like grammar, collocation is one of language phenomena. Wrong collocations can cause unnatural language. The absence of knowledge of collocation caused them to do literal/direct translation which produced wrong collocations, (2) differences of collocation between English and Bahasa Indonesia. Learners are again not aware that collocation, like grammar may differ from one language to another although there are also similarities, (3) low mastery of English vocabulary by the students. The use of *doctor* instead of *medical* and the use of *double* instead of *bi-* indicate that their mastery of English vocabulary is so poor that caused them to make *doctor school* and *double language dictionary* which are unusual in English and (4) the strong influence of the learners' native language as seen in

the use of the same preposition *to* to collocate with *afraid* and *angry* since in Bahasa Indonesia *kepada* 'to' can collocate with both *takut* 'afraid' and *marah* 'angry'

The results of the present study strongly support Taiwo's (2004) statement that collocational errors are equally significant as grammatical errors and, in fact, more disruptive in communication. Therefore learners should be made aware of the importance of collocation in foreign language learning; it is no less important than the other aspects like grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling etc.

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

Collocation is a linguistic phenomenon that exists in any human verbal language. Patterns of collocation may be different from one language to another however in some respects there are also similarities among languages. Collocational errors are not similar to grammatical errors however collocational errors (although the meanings found in them are still commonly understood) but they make the language sound unnatural. Young Indonesian learners of English tend to make wrong collocations in their sentences as the result of: lack of knowledge of collocation and the application of literal/direct translation, the differences of collocation patterns in both the source and the target languages, low mastery of English vocabulary which caused them to be unable to distinguish the stylistic meaning of two synonymous words, and also a strong influence of their native language which caused them to use English as they use their native language.

It is strongly suggested that the students should know that there are no two languages which are similar in every aspect. Speaking or writing in a foreign language is not similar to speaking and writing in one's native language. Then in order to minimize the erroneous collocations in English the students should pay much attention to how native speakers of English habitually combine words in their native language.

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