AN ERROR ANALYSIS OF INDONESIAN-ENGLISH TRANSLATION

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ABSTRACT

This thesis was purposely made to identify error analysis of Indonesian – English translation of news item text translation made by English Department students of FKIP Nommensen University. The result of this research was there were 4 translation errors made by the students in their Indonesian – English news item translation by considering the cohesive devices. The translation errors were in repetition device, conjunction device, reference device, and synonymy device. This result showed that the dominant translation error was dominated by the repetition translation error and synonymy translation error. The result of this research proved that the students had problems in translating.

Keywords: error analysis, translation, indonesian english translation

I. INTRODUCTION

The main focus of the research presented in the research is error analysis of Indonesian-English translation. Its starting point is the widely held assumption that translations as texts and translational discourse differ in many ways from originals (i.e. texts not produced as a result of translation) and original discourse production. The often perceived "strangeness" of translations have been argued to originate from certain text/discourse level phenomena.

This descriptive and exploratory study intends to obtain a deeper understanding of how the elusive concept of coherence and cohesion unfold/behave in translation and to offer empirical justification for the above assumption by conducting a focused analysis of the components of coherence that are identifiable (and are thus objectively describable) in discourse structure.

The analysis presented here pursue a cognitive approach and view text both as structure and process. The focus primarily on the product of translation (the target language text as structure). The translation analysis in this research is focused in error analysis of the translation.

Most research conducted so far on discourse level translation strategies explore the various means of creating cohesion and coherence in source and target texts and the shifts of these in an isolated manner, independently of each other by describing for instance the language pair specific translational behavior of one particular means of cohesion only.

Due to the volume and the laborious nature of such analyses, they tend to focus on one particular cohesive device only (e.g., reference, or repetition), or on one component of coherence (e.g., thematic structure, or cohesion). Consequently, we know very little about how discourse level translation strategies really work and the error aspects made in the translation.

Empirical evidence is scarce regarding the actual relationship between the various (linguistic and non-linguistic) means of creating coherence and thus

"continuity" in text and how certain changes (shifts) in one means affect the others and, ultimately, the overall quality of the translation which lead to the translation error.

While the descriptions of word (lexical, grammatical), phrase and sentence level translation strategies have received considerable attention, work on discourse level translation strategies is far from complete and is rather fragmented. To be able to answer the questions above, a complex, structural approach is needed.

Therefore this research attempts to devise a translational discourse analysis model that is capable not only of offering a sufficiently comprehensive description of the various means of creating coherence in translation, but also of identifying the language pair specific shifts of coherence in translation and the discourse level strategies that accompany these.

By comparing the result of analysis of the cohesive devices and coherence components of source language and target language translation in term of discourse analysis, the error between the source language and the target language can be described.

In addition, the structure sifts between the source language and the target language will reveal whether the structure shifts also cause meaning shifts between the source language and the target language.

This research will be useful for researchers, teachers, and students as reference for the development of new theories supporting translation subject and also as reference for the development of teaching and learning especially in translation subject.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The Definition of Error

Error is always a central concern in language teaching, became *the* central concern in audiolingual approaches. Collections of frequently occurring errors (for example, French 1949) already existed. Traditional textbooks had long paid attention to what were felt to be the errors most likely to occur and tried to guard learners from particular pitfalls in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis. These areas of special difficulty might derive either from intralingual or interlingual factors.

At the lexical level, for example, intralingual difficulties were mooted where minimal formal differences in the foreign language involved major semantic differences (for example "bowl" and bowel"). Interlingual lexical difficulties were mooted typically when a form in the foreign language was very similar to a form in the learner's native language, but the meaning was different (for example German *blamieren* and English "blame").

For a long time there was no principled approach to language teaching based on error, but in the late 1950's and 1960's this started to change. And the focus shifted very much towards interlingual errors rather than intralingual ones. Highly influential in this regard was Uriel Weinreich's (1953) publication *Languages in Contact.*

In his book Weinreich displayed his prodigious knowledge of European languages. He was primarily interested not in classroom language learners, but in the way languages influence each other when they come in contact. This is the phenomenon of language interference, with the influence usually being from the

stronger language to the weaker one. Weinreich's great contribution was to posit a psychological or psycholinguistic explanation for language interference. He suggested that any speaker of two languages will tend to identify sounds, words, structures and meanings in one language with corresponding elements in the other language, that is to say, speakers of two or more languages are engaged in a process of making "interlingual identifications" (Weinreich 1953: 7).

Many speakers of two languages are working with a linguistic repertoire which is more extensive than the repertoire of either language individually, but less extensive than the sum of the two repertoires together, because of the process of interlingual identification which replaces two distinct forms or meanings from the two languages with a single form or meaning which does service for both.

These are "compound bilinguals" in Weinreich's terms in contradistinction to "co-ordinate bilinguals", who, in theory at least, have two complete languages separately stored in the brain without any cross-lingual influence operating.

For the foreign language learner, the usual direction of the influence will be from the mother tongue to the foreign language At the phonological level, this will produce typical foreign pronunciations. The German learner of English may, for example, replace the English weak alveolar [r] sound with a German uvular [r] in English.

At the level of structures, the German *Perfekt* may be identified with the English present perfect tense, for example, and the learner may use the present perfect when he or she would use the *Perfekt* in German. At the lexical level, English "irritated" may be used to mean the same as German *irritiert*, "book" made to correspond semantically to *Buch*, "house", identified with *Haus*, and so on.

In the case of long-standing immigrants, however, the "new" language may actually begin to influence the mother tongue. Thus, long-standing immigrants are sometimes said to speak their mother tongue with an L2 accent, or to use L2 structures or lexical items when they are using L1, and not just *vice versa*.

Weinreich's differentiated insights into cross-lingual influence became simplified by those applying them to language teaching, who gave them a deterministic turn. Bright and McGregor (1970: 236), for example, maintained that "the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second."

The influence of Eric Lenneberg's (1967) *Biological Foundations of Language* perhaps underlies the quotation from Bright and McGregor. Lenneberg suggested that there is a "critical period" for language acquisition, which ends at puberty, that "foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure [...] seems to disappear after this age" (Lenneberg 1967: 176).

Lenneberg was a neurologist, and his book was concerned with aphasia based on clinical studies, but his totally unsupported observations on foreign language learning were, mysteriously enough, highly influential on language teaching theory and served to strengthen the already prevalent emphasis on error prevention and eradication.

It was the British applied linguist, Pit Corder, who re-focussed attention on error from the perspective of language processing and language acquisition. In his seminal (1967) paper "The significance of learners' errors" he stressed the learner's positive cognitive contribution to learning. His view was that the learner is engaged

in a process of discovering the language. The learner forms hypotheses based on language input and tests those hypotheses in speech production. In this view errors are not only an inevitable but also,very importantly, a necessary feature of learner language, without which improvement cannot occur. Corder coined the term "transitional competence" to indicate the essential dynamism and flux of the language learner's evolving system. A learner's errors, according to Corder (1967), represent the discrepancy between the transitional competence of that learner and the target language.

Drawing heavily on Chomsky's (1965) view of first language acquisition, he suggested that just as for the child acquiring its mother tongue the language evolves in a more or less fixed pattern, so the foreign language learner may possess an "inbuilt syllabus" which determines the order in which the language system is acquired and which is largely independent of the order of the external syllabus according to which the classroom learner is ostensibly learning.

Corder further suggested that studying error might supply clues to this inbuilt order of acquisition, persistent errors indicating those elements acquired late. Corder, however, invoked Chomsky's (1965) distinction between "*competence*" and *performance*" to draw a distinction between true errors of competence and errors of performance, which he denoted as mere "*mistakes*", the product of "*chance circumstances*" analogous to slips of the tongue in the native language (Corder 1967: 166).

These performance "mistakes", he maintained, say nothing about the underlying speaker competence and should therefore be excluded from analysis. In a later paper Corder (1971: 107-108) suggested that error analysis should include not only "overt" errors but "covert" errors. *Covert errors*, unlike overt errors, are formally acceptable but do not express the meaning intended by the learner. For example, "I want to know the English" is a formally correct sentence, but it would be a covert error if the learner wanted to express the meaning carried by "I want to know English".

The procedure for error analysis was elaborated by Corder (1974: 170) as comprising five stages:
• selection of a corpus of language
• identification of errors in the corpus
• classification of the errors identified
• explanation of the psycholinguistic causes of the errors
• evaluation (error gravity ranking) of the errors

B. Definition of Translation

There are some definitions of translation. Nida(1982: 24) states that translation consist of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalence of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. Newmark(1998: 12) states that translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.

From the definition above the translation has the same term "equivalence". The meaning, context, though, or message of both source of reproducing in the receptor language, the closest natural are equivalent to the message of source language. The first is meaning and secondly is style.

The message of source language must equivalent. The reader of translation who knows the target language only will be confused if the target language is influenced by the source language.

Meanwhile the result of translation must be transferring the meaning of the source language clearly. In order to make the clear meaning of source language, it is expected that the meaning of target language can be understood by the readers. So, the result of translation must be readable. In target language, readability is needed, because it makes the readers easier to catch the content of the translation text, conversely when the translation text is not readable. It will make the readers difficult to understand the content of the text well.

Based on many definitions above, the writer assumes that the translation is a process of transferring thoughts and message from the source language to the target language, in the form of written or spoken.

C. Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion and coherence are two hard distinguished linguistic terms in discourse analysis. Though they share the same morpheme *"cohere",* they are different. Scholars define and classify them from various aspects. Following is a brief discussion about the concepts of cohesion and coherence so as to find the relationship between them.

Cohesion and coherence are first studied by Halliday and Hasan in their book *Cohesion in English*. They take the view that the primary determinant of whether sets of sentences do or do not constitute a text depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create texture. "A text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment." (Hallday & Hasan, 1976, p.2)

According to Halliday and Hasan, "The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text." (Ibid, p.4) Cohesion can hold segments of a text together, making it a semantic edifice. The importance of cohesion lies in the continuity it expresses between one part of the text and another.

Halliday and Hasan category five kinds of cohesive devices and sub-classify them. Cohesion plays an import role in discourse. When a cohesive relation is set up between two elements, they are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text. It is clear that cohesion, one component of textual function, is realized by lexico-grammatical units in a discourse.

By its role in providing texture, cohesion helps to create text and expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the discourse and another. In principle, a discourse of any length will employ cohesive ties. However, it is not the sufficient condition for a text. In daily life, people can often encounter sentences that are well-connected by cohesive devices, but not coherent at all. For example,
John was reading China Daily. Newspapers published in America usually contain several pages. The first page of this book was lost. The lost child had been found by policeman.

Though cohesive devices are used in these sentences, they are obviously not coherent. It gives reader a false impression of being coherent, which is called pseudo-coherence by some linguists.

Many linguists (Brown & Yule, 1983) have pointed out that discourses can be coherent without cohesion. Although they illustrate their points with some examples at the extreme end, it is necessary to go beyond the textual realization of semantic relation to search for coherent discourse. For example,
John bought a cake at the bakeshop. The birthday card was signed by all of the employees. The party went on until after midnight.

Superficially it is incomplete and incoherent, but in fact its overall meaning is unified and coherent. That is because of people's experience about birthday, they know "the cake", "the card" and "the party" are all correspond to the same event a birthday party, so this knowledge allows them to fill some of the gaps in this passage.

This also illustrates how reader or listener supports coherence by making his own contribution to the meaning of a discourse. In their daily life, people often encounter phenomena like this:
Cognitive Pragmatics Seminar: Wednesday 26 th, May 2.00 p.m
Place: The Meeting Hall in the Library
Deirdre Wilson: Department of Phonetics and Linguistics University College London

Though it is formed by fragmented sentences, it can function as a record of a certain communicative event, that is, the writer informs the seminar to the audience, and the audience receives the message. Therefore, it is a discourse. It seems incoherent at the first glance, but people who see it can always understand it. That is because from the everyday knowledge they know it is a notice to tell them the news of a seminar on cognitive pragmatics given by Deirdre Wilson.

It becomes clear from the above examples that cohesion is not sufficient for constructing a coherent discourse. People also rely on some principle that, although there may by no formal linguistic links connecting contiguous linguistic strings, their continuity leads people to interpret them as connected. In other words there must be some other factor that leads people to distinguish connected discourses that make sense from those that do not. This factor is usually described as coherence.

The key to the concept of coherence is not something that exists in the language, but something that exists in people. It is people who make sense of what they read and listen to. They try to arrive at an interpretation which is in line with their experience of the way the world is. Indeed, people's ability to make sense of what they read is probably only a small part of that general ability they have to make sense of what they perceive or experience in the world.

You may have found when reading the last two examples; the audience kept trying to make the discourse fit some situation or experience that would accommodate all the details. In doing so the audience would necessarily be involved in a process of filling in a lot of gaps which exist in the discourse.

He would have to create meaningful connections which are not actually expressed by the words and sentences. This process is not restricted to trying to understand seemingly unconnected discourse. In one way or another, it seems to be involved in people's interpretation of all discourses.

As to the definition of coherence, different linguists have different insights. Crystal defines coherence as "the main principle of organization (which is) assumed to account for the underlying functional connectedness" of a piece of spoken or written language. (Crystal, 1985: 53). It can be drawn that coherence involves the

study of such factors as the language users' knowledge of the world, the inferences they make, and the assumptions they hold, and in particular, involves the study of the way in which communication is mediated through the use of speech acts. Obviously, grammatical and lexical links are not taken into consideration in this definition.

Another definition of coherence held by Reinhart (1980: 89) is that coherence is composed of the semantic and grammatical connectedness between discourse and context. According to him, coherence comprises three elements: connectedness, consistency and relevance. By connectedness, he means the sentences in a text are interconnected with each other in semantics and grammar.

Consistency refers to the fact that there is no contradiction between the propositions expressed by these sentences and they are true to a certain extent. By relevance he means that a text should be related to the context, the sentences in a text should be related to each other and the sentences should all be related to the general topic of the text. By this definition, coherence is not separated from cohesion, but is conflated with it.

However, De Beaugrade and Dressles (1981: 23) view cohesion and coherence as two entirely separated concepts. They propose cohesion to be the structural relations on the text surface, while coherence the structural relations underlie the surface. It is obvious that cohesion and coherence are two different concepts in discourse analysis, though they share the same morpheme "cohere".

Different linguists have studied them based on different theories. Some are from the pure-linguistic perspective such as Halliday and Hasan, van Dijk. They take cohesion as the necessary condition for coherent discourse. Some are from pragmatic perspective such as Widdowson and Crystal. They acknowledge the importance of pragmatic knowledge in the interpretation of coherence.

Based on previous researches on cohesion and coherence, the author views cohesion and coherence as two different, but interrelated linguistic terms important in discourse analysis. They are formally rather than functionally different, but cohesion is more obvious than coherence, because it only deals with the surface structure of a discourse. Cohesion is neither necessary nor sufficient to create a coherent discourse, but a useful means to coherence. The relation between cohesion and coherence is outlined as follows.

Here coherence is characteristic of being overt and covert. Be overt or superficial means that coherence is something available in the surface structure. It is relatively easy to identify. Methods for investigating overt coherence are mainly directed at the description of linguistic formal markers, or in other term "cohesive devices" by Halliday and Hasan (1976). It reveals the contribution made by linguistic factors to coherence.

By covert coherence it means that coherence is achieved not by using superficial markers as linguistic, grammatical devices, etc., but by psychological, cognitive, pragmatic devices, etc. Based on this sense, the addressee needs bridges (inference, background knowledge and imagination etc.) to guide the comprehension of a discourse.

Therefore, a coherent discourse should first contain a semantically united framework and must be consistent with the context of situation. Meaning does not only refer to conventional meaning but also inferential meaning realized by

cohesion and inference respectively. Coherence, thus, is a consequence of interaction between linguistic factors and non-linguistic factors.

D. Kinds of Cohesion

Cohesion refers to the resources within language that provide continuity in a text, over and above that provided by clause structure and clause complexes. Hence, cohesive relations are non-structural relations which work to help a text hang together. We shall be looking at three of these kinds of relationship in this chapter: reference, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

1. Reference

Reference refers to system which introduce and track the identity of Participants through text. It is related to textual meaning and thus to mode. We find very different patterns between spoken and written texts and these differences are accentuated the more 'written' the text is.

a. Reference, Retrieval and Mode

If we come across, say, the word 'it' in a text, we cannot identify what 'it' is from that pronoun alone. We have to look elsewhere in the text or in the context to find the identity of 'it'. Systems of Reference allows us to track Participants through text and to see where they have come from. We can find what are called chains in texts and these show how Participants can be tracked through the text. We will look briefly at two aspects of Reference: systems of Reference and Retrieval.

Systems of Reference

There are three main distinctions to make here: Whether the

- Participant is being mentioned for the first time in the text (presenting reference) or whether it is a subsequent mention (presuming reference)
- Reference is to a generic class or to a specific individual
- Reference is comparative or not.

These distinctions can be summarized as follows:
generic
specific
presenting
presuming
+comparison
- comparison

These system is illustrated in the following short examples:

Most *snakes* move in a serpentine crawl. *They* throw their bodies into curves.

Snakes: generic, presenting, -comparison

They: generic, presuming, -comparison

We saw *lots of snakes* at Reptile World. *Some of them* came out of the logs and ate the dead mice but *the other snakes* stayed under the logs.

lots of snakes: specific, presenting, - comparison

some of them: specific, presuming, - comparison

the other snakes: specific, presuming, +comparison

There is one other Participant in this text, 'the mice', and two locations realized as nominal groups in prepositional phrases 'Reptile World' and 'the logs'. All of these are presented as if already known, that is, the first time they occur in

the text they occur as a presuming reference. If they are presumed, this means that we have to go outside the text to retrieve their identity. This leads us to the other side of Participant identification, retrieval of the identities of Participants.

Retrieval

In tracking who is who and what is what in a text we use systems of retrieval. If we take example (1) above, we retrieve the identity of 'they' by looking back in the text to the referent for the pronoun and we find 'snakes'. This is known as *anaphora*. This is one of a number of types of *phora*.

We can look at these by going back to the ideas of the Context of Culture and Situation. We can retrieve the identity of a Participant in several possible ways, either by reference to the context of culture or situation, or from within the text or outside it. Retrieval through the context of culture is known as *homophora*.

This cultural context is not defined by size; it can refer to a whole culture, such as all the speakers of a language, or to a culture consisting of a couple of people. For example:

When I woke up this morning, the sun was shining.

In this text we retrieve the identity of 'the sun' through cultural knowledge; no one would ask 'which sun?'. Or taking a smaller culture, if one of the couple asks 'Have you fed the cat yet?', the identity of the cat is retrieved through cultural knowledge and is not in question. Or if I say, 'I heard the prime minister on the radio this morning', the identity of 'the prime minister' is retrieved through homophora.

Turning to the more local context of situation, we can retrieve identity either from within the text or from its context. Retrieval from outside the text is called *exophora*. For example:

That koala over there is really sleepy.

To identify 'that koala over there' we would have to be in the context. This type of reference is very common in spoken text, where the context can be used to refer to and there is opportunity to check or confirm identity. It does not work so well in written text where such contextual information is not available.

The reference patterns of spoken language are often a feature of writing in youngish children. Young children find it very difficult to recount an event to someone who wasn't there. Reference within a text is broadly termed *endophora*. Within the text we can text, *cataphora*. For example:

Some snakes, though not venomous, are still deadly.
They squeeze their victim to death. (anaphora)
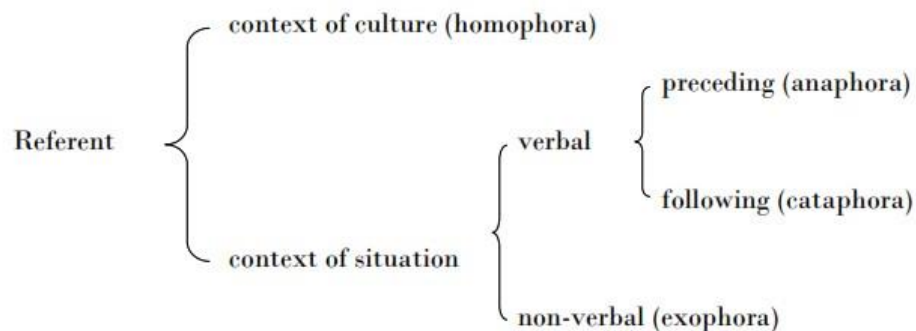Here we move back in the text to retrieve the identity of 'they'.
It was a venomous one that small green snake. (cataphora)
Here we retrieve the identity of *it* by going forward in the text to *that small green snake*.
The system of Retrieval can be summarized as follows:
Figure 1: The System of Retrieval

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                      context of culture (homophora)
                                                           preceding (anaphora)
Referent                                        verbal
                                                           following (cataphora)
                      context of situation
                                                non-verbal (exophora)
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There is another type of retrieval which is called *bridging*. This is where the reference is indirect, where we assume the identity of the part from the whole. For example:

We walked towards the kiosk but the windows were bolted shut.

Here, we retrieve the identity of 'windows' by virtue of them being part of the kiosk. Reference is generally not seen as problematic until it goes wrong. People who have trouble with Reference and Retrieval include speakers of other languages learning English and young children learning to write; the difficulty for the latter is in transferring from the more context independent written mode. Like grammar, discourse semantics varies across languages.

System of Reference and Retrieval are not the same across languages. For instance, speakers of a language such as Tagalog, which does not select for gender in third person ponouns, often produce texts where it is difficult for a native speaker of English to track the rapid gender changes of Participants. It can become difficult to tell who is doing what to whom.

Another particular difficulty is in very abstract written text, where there are often no human or concrete Participants and reference is to pieces of text rather than to Participants. A typical pattern is the one of saying 'This demonstrates ...' where 'this' is a section of preceding text. These patterns appear self-evident to accomplished readers and writers but are problematic for initiates.

2. Lexical Cohesion and Field

Lexical cohesion refers to the relationships between and among words and in the relationships among them; these can be either more or less permanent, i.e. coming from institutions within the culture, or they can be established only for that text. Lexical cohesion is primarily related to *Field*. We discover the Field of a text through its content words. Fields tend to have specialized vocabularies and tend to engage in specialized activities.

Thus, we are interested not only in the words but also in the kinds of activities they engage in. In text types in which writer opinion or judgment is offered, lexical cohesion is also revealing for interpersonal meanings, through use of attitudinal lexis and qualitative attributes.

Hasan (1984: 78) presents eight categories of lexical cohesion:

General

- Repetition (including inflection and derivation) e.g. leave, leave, leaving, left
- Synonymy (similarity of meaning) e.g. leave, depart

- Antonymy (opposite or contrastive meaning) e.g. leave, arrive
- Hyponymy (classes/super ordination and subclasses/is a type of) e.g. flower, rose rose – daffodil = co-hyponyms
- Meronymy (whole-part relations) e.g. flower, petal petal – stem = co-meronyms

Instantial

- Equivalence (two or more items are one and the same in the context of some particular text) e.g. the sailor was their daddy
- Naming (a participant's name is provided) e.g. they called their puppy Fluffy
- Semblance (two or more items in the text are said to resemble each other) e.g. The *waves* roared in and he could see there *white caps* looking like seahorses.

3. Conjunction

Conjunction is the semantic system whereby speakers relate clauses in terms of temporal sequence, consequence, comparison and addition. Temporal relations connect clauses depending on whether the actions they encode take place at the same time or one after the other. Consequential relations connect clauses as cause and effect. Comparative relations pick out contrasts and similarities between clauses.

Additive relations add or substitute extra alternative clauses to a text. As well as being temporal, consequentional, comparative or additive, Conjunction may connect clauses *externally* as Ideational or phenomenological meanings, or *internally* as Textual meanings, that is, as a means of staging or organising the text as a text. To get a glimpse of what this distinction means, consider the following pair of examples:

(a)John had a flat tire. Next he broke three spokes.
(b)John didn't have a spare inner tube. Next he had forgotten his wrench.

In (a), John's breaking his spokes is presented as an event following his having flat tire. In (b) on the other hand, the clauses are not related as one event following the other in time. In fact, as far as the world (b) describes is concerned, John left his wrench behind at the same time as he left his spare tube, not later.

The temporal sequence in (b) has rather to do with the speaker's organization of the things she wants to say. Her meaning could be paraphrased along the line of: 'First I'm telling you that John didn't have a spare tube. Next I'm telling you that he forgot his wrench too.'

Most conjunctions can be used in these two ways, expressing either a relation between events in the real world or a relation between rhetorical acts within a text. A further factor which is relevant to the types of conjunctive relation found in English is whether the conjunction is paratactic (coordinating) or hypotactic (subordinating). Our experience suggests that both non-English speaking students and native English speakers have difficulty with conjunction in writing.

The former sometimes choose the wrong Conjunction (additive vs consequential, for example) and the meaning goes awry as a result. Native speakers do not make this mistake very often, but some have a tendency to punctuate hypotactic clauses as though they were independent clauses. So, for example:

Postman thinks education will not benefit from more technology.

Whereas Perelman argues that technology will actually replace education. 'Whereas' is a hypotactic conjunction, and so the above must be punctuated as follows:
Postman thinks education will not benefit from more technology, whereas Perelman argues that technology will actually replace education.

E. Cohesion in Translation Error Analysis

Based on the identification of cohesive devices and the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the relations of cohesive ties, this chapter reveals the error classifications of cohesion in translation and the ensuing shifts of meaning.

First, it defines the aims and the research questions of the undertaking. This is followed by a detailed presentation of the analytical methods, also demonstrating how the original model of cohesion needed to be modified (complemented) because of the systemic differences between the two languages (Karolly, 2017: 45).

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A research design is a set of advance decisions that make up the master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. William (2007: 2) states that there are three common approaches to conducting research are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods.

The researcher anticipates the type of data needed to respond to the research question. For instance, is numerical, textural, or both numerical and textural data needed? Based on this assessment, the researcher selects one of the three aforementioned approaches to conduct research. Researchers typically select the quantitative approach to respond to research questions requiring numerical data, the qualitative approach for research questions requiring textural data, and the mixed methods approach for research questions requiring both numerical and textural data.

The consideration of research design to be used in a research is based on how the research purposely to be done. This research is a research which its focus is on the error analysis in Indonesian-English translation. The suitable research design to be used in this research is qualitative research design.

The qualitative research design in this research will be done descriptively by describing the result of this result descriptively. The kind of research named descriptive qualitative research. qualitative descriptive studies are the least "theoretical" of all of the qualitative approaches to research. In addition, qualitative descriptive studies are the least encumbered studies, compared to other qualitative approaches, by a pre-existing theoretical or philosophical commitment. (Lambert, 2012: 1)

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The data of this research are the students' errors in translating news item text from Indonesian to English. This analysis is based on Halliday and Hasan (1976 :2) theory of cohesive devices. There are three kinds of cohesive devices namely: reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion has five branches including repetition, synonymy, antonymy, meronymy, and hyponymy.

The findings of this research had been made to conclude the result of this analysis. Based on the analysis, it was found out that the students had made 70

errors in translating news item text from Indonesian to English. The classification of the errors is as follow.

This research had been conducted to find out the translation error analysis of the students Indonesian – English translation of news item text. The analysis was conducted by considering the cohesive devices as the error instruments which used to assess the translation error. Based on the findings, the result showed that the repetition device has the most error among the other devices with 39 errors. Secondly is the conjunction device with 16 errors, synonymy device with 14 errors, and finally reference device with 1 error. It means that, repetition device is the dominant error found from the students news item translation.

Table 1. Error Clasification

COHESIVE DEVICES ERROR	TEXT NUMBER																				SUM
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16	T17	T18	T19	T20	
PERSONAL REFERENCE	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
DEMONSTRATIVE REFERENCE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
COMPARATIVE REFERENCE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
CONJUNCTION	1	1	2	6	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	2	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	16
SUBSTITUTION	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
ELIPSIS	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
REPETITION	1	1	-	6	4	3	1	1	2	3	1	-	1	2	3	4	1	1	1	3	39
SYNONYMY	-	3	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	1	3	-	14
ANTONYMY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
MERONYMY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
HYPONYMY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
Σ	2	5	3	12	4	3	2	4	3	3	2	2	4	3	3	4	2	2	4	3	70

The table above presented the findings of this research. The table shows that the repetition device has the most error among the other devices with 39 errors. Secondly is the conjunction device with 16 errors. Thirdly is synonymy device with 14 errors. The last is personal reference device with 1 error.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This research has been done by applying Halliday's theory of cohesive devices in order to examine the students error in translating news item text from Indonesian to English. The conclusion of this research is that this research has discovered that the problems of this research occurred based on the students' lack of understanding the meaning transfer from the source language into the target language. It caused the translation errors in some particulars aspects of cohesive devices such as reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

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