Error Analysis in the Work of Novice Indonesian Translators

AUTHOR(S)

Indah Sari

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Error Analysis in the Work of Novice Indonesian Translators

by

Indah Sari

BA, Universitas Andalas, Padang, Indonesia

MA, Universitas Indonesia, Depok, Indonesia

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Abstract

The translation profession has grown rapidly in Indonesia in recent times, with a high demand for translation services, particularly between Indonesian and English. This has generated job opportunities for translators in the government and private sectors. To meet this industry demand for translators, many Indonesian tertiary institutions now offer translation programs. The aim is to train and educate highly competent translators. Yet an absence of national guidelines on translation education, a lack of systematic assessment regimes, and little collaboration with the national association of professional translators in Indonesia have contributed to a lack of development in the quality of translation education in Indonesia.

The broad purpose of this study is to investigate the quality of outcomes of translation training in Indonesia. To achieve this, a case study was conducted within the Translation Program in the English Department of Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP), West Sumatera. The study applies error analysis of translations produced by PNP students to determine the quality of students' translation work and to identify the main categories of common errors. The study also extends to documentary analysis of curriculum and syllabus materials since the results of the error analysis have implications for the curriculum of the translation program at PNP. The study also considers the broader applicability of error analysis in reviewing translation education in the Indonesian context.

The data produced in this study consists primarily of a sample of PNP students' business translation works from Indonesian into English, from students enrolled in year 1 through to year 3 of the program. These samples are complemented by documentary analysis of the institutional English Department curriculum as well as syllabus materials related to translation units, to examine how these documents may have contributed to the errors. The analysis of student translation work is undertaken in two ways: first by using English native speakers as external reviewers as 'target readers' to evaluate the target text translations; and secondly by examining the sample translations applying 'error analysis', an approach originally developed by S.P Corder in 1967, to enable a detailed comparative evaluation between the source text and the translated texts. The study finds that students produced many serious errors that impeded the external reviewers' understanding of the translated texts. The student translations are then analysed

according to the model of translation competence proposed by the Process of the Acquisition Translation Competence and Evaluation (PACTE) group, it is found that students lacked translation competence.

The key findings identified by this study relate to a series of problem areas for Indonesian students of translation. It was found that most of the errors were related to language, involving comprehension and expression. Grammatical and lexical problems reflect language issues in both English and Indonesian. An important finding is that in the case of translation from Indonesian into English, English language proficiency is not the only source of translation errors. Surprisingly, Indonesian language competence also contributed to translation errors. This study suggests that the common practice of offering language and translation training concurrently is not proving to be effective in Indonesia. This thesis develops a narrative that demonstrates the significant shortcomings of translation education in Indonesia. While this research was conducted within a specific institution, the characteristics of translation training in PNP are not unique, in the broader context of translation education in Indonesia. The specific context shares a great deal of similarity with translation programs in other Indonesian tertiary institutions, where translation education is affected by a lack of cohesive national guidelines and issues with programming where there is a tendency for breadth to exceed depth.

The study also points to a broader application of error analysis, whereby it can be used to guide the evaluation of curriculum and program design. It is argued that error analysis has potential significance to contribute to translation education, despite its relatively low popularity in recent times in its field of origin, Second Language Acquisition. This study demonstrates how error analysis is informative in understanding students' deficiencies if incorporated as an assessment technique at the institutional level. Finally, this study provides recommendations on a new direction for more effective translation education in Indonesia in terms of entry requirements, as well as curriculum, and syllabus design.

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List of Abbreviations

ATA:	American Translators Association
HPI:	Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia
PACTE:	Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation
PNP:	Politeknik Negeri Padang
SL:	Source Language
ST:	Source Text
TL:	Target Language
TT:	Target Text

List of Publications Resulting from this Study

1. Sari, I (2018). "Error analysis of the economic terms in the work of novice Indonesian translators". Presented at the *III International Congress of Young Researchers in Translation and Interpreting* at Universidad de Alcala, Alcala de Henares (Madrid), Spain, October 4-5, 2018.

2. Sari, I (2020). "Translation errors: What and how?". Presented at Technical Assistance: Translation as a study and a profession at Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha Bali, October 26, 2020.

Chapter 1
Introduction

This study links translation studies and language education fields. The combination between these two fields is common because translation is often considered as “a house of many rooms” (Hatim, 2014, p. 11) where research in translation can be linked to many disciplines and can draw theories from other fields such as theories of language. Linguistics, in particular, has been acknowledged as one of the main sources of theories and methods in translation research (Saldanha & O’Brien, 2014). In specific terms, translation teaching and language teaching have benefited each other (Pym, 1992). There have been strong connections between translation, foreign language teaching and linguistics since the 1970s (Pym and Ayvazyan, 2018). These are areas covered in this study, which specifically addresses translation into English in an educational context. This research is conducted through a case study of Politeknik Negeri Padang, West Sumatera, Indonesia, although there is also a broader view to translation education in the Indonesian context.

Translation may be regarded as an emerging field in Indonesia as it has typically been considered as a part of language teaching. This remains the case, as evidenced by translation programs in Indonesian tertiary institutions typically being offered in English departments. Yet, in more recent times, translation has gained greater prominence, as Indonesian society has increasingly recognised translating as a profession, especially now in a ‘borderless world’ due to the globalisation and development of information technology. ‘Borderless world,’ a term introduced by Ohmae (1989) which has since gained in popularity, resonates with current globalised phenomena where people, information, and business can easily operate across the globe, enabled by technology. The key to this interaction is communication, both orally and in writing, with shared language playing an important role. The United Nations (UN, 2020) acknowledges six official languages: Arabic, Chinese, Russian, English, French and Spanish. However, English is still the most common language used for international communication. As Mckay (2018, p. 21) suggests, English is “a language with great geographical and cultural reach that allows people to engage in cross-cultural exchanges and to access a wide array of knowledge.”

Although some countries such as Malaysia and Singapore consider English as their second language, Indonesia regards English as a foreign language due to its strict language policy. Chapter XV, Article 36 of the 1945 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia rules that Indonesian (*Bahasa Indonesia*) is the only national language used. The latest enforcement of this law is through the Presidential Regulation no. 63, released in 2019 (JDIH, 2019), where it is stated that any language other than Indonesian or local languages are considered foreign languages. It again emphasises that Indonesian (besides local languages if required) is the only language to be used in public service, formal events (even international ones), official documents such as MoUs, information, and educational settings. However, translated versions in English can be made available for those who do not speak Indonesian, especially foreigners.

To anticipate possible language barriers, translators have become an essential part of Indonesian international networks and interaction. Through its official websites, the Indonesian Government recognises a growing need for translators to bridge cooperation between Indonesia and other countries, especially in economic sectors and on Government websites. Therefore, any information about Indonesia, particularly business-related, may be accessible for international people. This is implemented by providing the English version of Indonesian official websites (at every level from national to city level), company websites, brochures, and public signage. Indeed, this leads to a greater demand for a broader range of translation services that increasingly involves commercial, legal, or technical documents.

Translators have now become an acknowledged profession for which the Indonesian Government creates a considerable number of employment opportunities. There is a significant increase in the number of Indonesian translators. The latest data from the Association of Indonesian Translators (or Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia, HPI) shows the increase has been 138% in the last five years – from 1286 members in 2014 to 3297 members in 2019 (HPI, 2020). Meanwhile, Translatorscafé[1] (2020), an international translation forum and platform, also lists a significant number of Indonesian translation agencies: there are 49 agencies now while only two agencies

[1] http://www.translatorscafe.com./tcutils/en-us/search/agencies.aspx?cn=77

were listed before 2010. This number may not reflect the real numbers, as not all Indonesian translators and translation agencies are affiliated with HPI or Translatorscafé. Nevertheless, these data support the notion that there is a massive growth in translation and translator numbers in Indonesia. In recent years, this situation has increasingly been seen by Indonesian tertiary institutions as an area of opportunity. Many English departments list ‘translator’ as a potential profession for graduates, and ‘translation competence’ as one of their course outcomes. A growing number of universities and tertiary institutions offer translation programs. However, there are no national guidelines for translation training for Indonesian higher education from the HPI or the Ministry of Education, nor is there systematic collaboration between professional translators in industry and tertiary institutions.

For these reasons, the quality of translation remains problematic in Indonesia because little attention has so far been paid to translation products and methods to improve translator competence. One reason for this is a lack of rigorous studies on the nature of the work produced by new translators just entering the field. As a result, little is known about the errors these individuals make that can be traced to problems with their pre-professional training. It is this gap that this study addresses.

To examine problems with translation in higher education, this study uses error analysis, a theory commonly used in second language teaching. However, this theory is relevant here as this study examines translation work in the educational setting of an English department at Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP) in West Sumatera. Established in 2009, this institution identified translation as its core to differentiate itself from other English departments in other tertiary institutions. It is among a few vocational tertiary institutions that provide translation education as three-year programs (Diploma III). This institution (PNP) is where the researcher works, enabling access to curriculum and learning resources, as well as detailed insights into the program. By using error analysis, this research will examine the work of novice Indonesian translators as students of translation at PNP. The study focuses on business text translations from Indonesian to English, because business is a common field of focus within the translation program due to its perceived prominence in the Indonesian context and potential employment opportunities for graduates.

1.1 Justification of the study

The volume of translation produced in Indonesia is large and rapidly growing. The Indonesian Government recognises that translators play a strategic role in supporting the nation's position in international contexts. As a result, the translation profession has gained prominence and is viewed as a desirable career for English language students. In response to this, many universities and colleges now offer courses and degrees in translation intending to produce professionals who will meet this growing need. Nonetheless, there has been very a little rigorous study of the quality of translation education in Indonesia and the particular problems encountered by Indonesian students as novice translators. Also, there has been little consideration of issues resulting from the unique characteristics of Indonesian in the context of translation into English. The quality of professional translation in Indonesia has practical implications and has the potential to have a significant impact on business, education, government, health care, and many other fields. This means that an understanding of the nature of trainee translators' experiences focusing on areas of difficulty is important to improve the quality of translator training and the work produced by individuals who will become professional translators. This study will contribute to a better understanding of the field of higher education translation training in Indonesia and provide a basis for improvement.

1.2 Aims of the study

It is expected that this study will be able to determine the nature and extent of errors that occur in students' translation work. Applying error analysis is designed to help identify specific problems encountered by translation students engaged in Indonesian to English translation. The results of the study will have direct implications for translation teaching. Through this study, I aim to gain detailed data of the product of translation training in the English Department at Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP). I expect that categories of errors will include lexical and grammatical aspects, and that findings will offer insights into possible reasons for commonly made errors. These insights will have implications for developing strategies to address common categories of errors – both at the institutional level at PNP, but also more broadly for translation training in the context of Indonesian higher educational institutions.

1.3 Research questions

This study is designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What key categories of translation errors are produced by PNP students?
2. What are the implications of these errors for the translation program at PNP?
3. What implications do these errors have for translation education in Indonesia more broadly?
4. What is the applicability of error analysis as a tool for reviewing translation education in Indonesia?

1.4 Scope of the study

This study will focus on the work of student translators at Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP). Local language use and the nature of the training courses provided may not represent all areas of Indonesia, but the situation is likely to be relevant in many locations across the country. The translational context focuses only on Indonesian to English and the texts of focus are from the field of business. Translation from other languages into Indonesian will not be considered, nor will translation from English into Indonesian. Additionally, translations of various text types and fields such as business text, literary texts, and engineering text are taught in this program, but this study will only address error analysis of business text translations. As a result, this study may not fully elucidate the range of issues faced by novice translators in actual practice. The data examined in this study are selected examples taken from the work of student translators at PNP. As a case study of a particular higher educational institution, findings will have the most relevance for PNP itself. However, the findings of this study also have implications for the broader context of translation education in Indonesia at other tertiary institutions and will be explored accordingly.

1.5 Positioning the researcher

This study is inspired by my experience as a translation student at Universitas Indonesia. I studied in the Linguistic Postgraduate program, majoring in Translation. During my master's study, I learned not only translation subjects, but also other subjects related to linguistics because translation is not an independent academic program. Moreover, I learned how translation was taught in a tertiary institution in terms of curriculum, syllabus, and assessment towards the students' translation works.

The most important inspiration comes from my working experience as a translation lecturer at Politeknik Negeri Padang. I started working there in 2008 while the English Department was under development before it was officially opened in 2009. As a vocational tertiary institution, the English Department at PNP is required to offer practical competence and a curriculum suitable to the market needs, with the expectation that graduates can directly join the industry. Therefore, offering English competence only was considered to be too general and broad, as well as not applicable to industry needs. The most important consideration is that many tertiary institutions offer English competence training, and PNP aimed to add practical skills to their students to differentiate itself from other institutions. Hence, PNP decided to offer translation competence as one of its main course outcomes.

Due to my educational background in translation, I was involved in designing the translation curriculum and syllabus at PNP, which was adapted from the curriculum at Universitas Indonesia. There were several reasons behind the decision to adapt this translation curriculum. The first is because there are no other guidelines and standards from the Indonesian Ministry of Education regarding translation curriculum at the Indonesian tertiary level. The second is that there were not many Indonesian tertiary institutions which focused on translation. Moreover, they offered different curricula, which made it difficult to decide which one to follow due to the lack of recognised standards. Finally, the most important reason was the reputation of Universitas Indonesia as one of the most prominent tertiary institutions in the country, which suggests that their translation curriculum was reliable.

During my teaching experience, I have witnessed many shortcomings in how translation education is conducted at PNP. This has also resulted from the way translation lecturers (including myself) delivered the syllabus and assessment. Most importantly, I have observed that the quality of students' translation work has not been improving as expected across the three-year program. There are tendencies for students to keep repeating the same mistakes. With this in mind, I have seen that our system needs improvement particularly in the assessment area.

Based on my experiences as a student and lecturer, my position in this research can be considered as an insider because I am part of the community of focus of the research, where I have authority and access in gathering the data (Dwyer & Baker, 2009). With my authority as one of the translation lecturers at PNP, I can access data related to students' work as well as institutional documents. Furthermore, my position has allowed me to conduct the research in a natural setting (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). I have been mindful of Milligan's (2016) concerns that power relations between the insider researcher with participants may influence research and make it less authentic or natural. With this in mind, I was careful in collecting and processing data, all of which have been deidentified and remains the property of PNP.

Finally, being a former translation student, a translation lecturer as well as the researcher will bring potential advantages to this study. I have had the experience of being taught in a translation educational context in Indonesia. Moreover, I have knowledge and familiarity in translation education both in the context of Politeknik Negeri Padang and Indonesia. This case study has allowed me to investigate translation education deeply in a real-world setting (Harrison et al., 2017).

1.6 Overview of the thesis

This thesis consists of ten chapters. This introductory chapter has briefly outlined the background of the study, its justification referring to its significance, the study's broad aims and key research questions, the scope and limitations of the study and a brief background about the researcher. Chapter 2 discusses relevant literature related to this study on translation pedagogy, including the nature of translation and views on equivalence in translation. It also discusses translation training, translation competence, and translation assessment. A description of the Indonesian context covering translation in Indonesian universities and translation in Padang is provided in Chapter 3. This is followed by a discussion of error analysis and how it is applied in this study in Chapter 4. The research methodology, including details of data collection, is explained in Chapter 5. Data analysis begins in Chapter 6 by outlining assessments done by external reviewers and the translation rank based on their scores. This enables a categorisation of errors, which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 7 through error analysis. Chapter 8 discusses the findings and implications of the data in the specific context of PNP, while Chapter 9 considers the broader implications for translation studies in Indonesian higher education institutions more broadly. Finally, Chapter 10 provides a conclusion and considers the contribution of this study and the potential need for further research in this important field.

Chapter 2

Translation Pedagogy

This chapter elaborates on relevant literature for this thesis. As translation education has been the focus on this study, the discussion will cover both translation and translation pedagogy. The discussion starts from the nature of translation and concept of equivalence, two basic notions in translation. The discussion on the nature of translation will give the foundation of this chapter by defining it. Furthermore, the concept of equivalence provides a significant discussion that draws on theories about when translation is considered ‘good’. After this, the discussion will touch on the core aspect in this study which is translation pedagogy. This term is used here to include translation training and translation education, the difference between which will be discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, this chapter also discusses translation competence as well as the assessment expected for the student translators.

2.1 Translation

Compared to many other academic disciplines, translation study is a relatively new area and, at one time, was viewed by some scholars as having a secondary status to other related fields, such as modern language study, comparative literature, linguistics and even mathematics (Holmes 2000; Bassnett, 2005; Gentzler, 2014; and Munday, 2009). However, it is impossible to cut the link with other disciplines because these fields have all benefited from translation. As noted by Kuhiwczak and Littau (2007), developments in these other disciplines have accelerated the development of translation studies. Hence, the idea is to acknowledge the link with other disciplines as an important independent academic field.

Despite its status as a relatively new academic field, translation has a long history that started in ancient times. Though there is no exact document, Bassnett (2005) and Newmark (2009) argued that translation had been practiced since the era of Cicero, a Roman rhetorician and orator. Yet, it is still considered less important than other disciplines, as addressed by Schulte (2012, p. 1):

However, the concept of translation and the practice of translation are still being treated as stepchildren in the academic world, and the general audience has little idea of what is involved in the delicate process of carrying texts from a foreign language into English.

In his argument, Schulte points out that people's lack of understanding and knowledge of the process of translation contributes to the failure to recognise translation as a discipline. Laypeople may assume that translation is simply replacing the source language with the target language (Catford, 1965), which can be done by any bilingual person (Presas, 2000). They might not realise that translation involves a complicated process involving various notions of equivalence, which makes it worthy of being treated as an independent academic field. Therefore, it is important to understand the nature of translation and the concept of equivalence, which is its basic notion.

2.1.1 The nature of translation

There have been various attempts to define the nature of translation. Gentzler (2001) notes that the development of translation theory has experienced two critical shifts. The first shift focused on linguistic perspectives, while the second included cultural factors as well as linguistic elements in translation theory. A prominent figure in the first shift was Catford (1965), who considered translation to be a linguistic operation only, requiring a theory that explains how languages work. Thus, Catford viewed translation theory as a theory of applied linguistics under the broader discipline of comparative linguistics, because it involves two languages. In his view, translation happens when the source language text is replaced by the target language text. In this case, he used the term 'formal correspondence' to describe the relationship between the source language and target language; for example, a noun in the source text must be replaced by a noun in the target text. Therefore, the first shift used a formalist approach to translation. As this shift occurred early on in the development of translation, it seems that this definition of translation has contributed to general people's assumptions about translation.

The second shift no longer considered translation as a linguistic operation only or from a formalist approach: translation was also viewed as a communicative event involving two different languages (Batrina, 2005). This approach has placed a greater emphasis on extratextual factors that exist in the cultural and social domains of the target language. While linguistics is still the core of translation, some intra-linguistic and extra-linguistic factors, such as the culture, subject matter, author's aims, and the recipient are acknowledged as complicating the translation process. In this case, House (2014) describes translation as a bridge to access different worlds in different languages. Translators are responsible for guiding the target readers to understand foreign texts because the situation is totally different, and it requires transformation and adjustment.

In this study, it is crucial to see how translation is viewed in translation pedagogy environments. Gile (2009) points out that most schools of translation focus on linguistic aspects when teaching translation, especially for students at the early stages of training. Therefore, he argues that simpler definitions will generally be more suitable for these students. On the other hand, there is the opinion that students should know that the function of translation is to serve efficient communication based on some agreed-upon norms. Regarding these norms, Neubert (2000, p. 11) identifies criteria for effective translation:

> a translation should not only be linguistically correct, exhibit a coherent textual shape and make sense with regard to any particular subject area, ringing culturally true. It has to stand in some kind of equivalence relation to the original.

Based on Neubert's argument, linguistics is not the only aspect which should be focused on translation; cultural aspects should also be involved. Furthermore, he mentions the importance of the equivalence concept in translation.

Although Gile (2009) tends to adopt the first-shift definition of translation for translation pedagogy, he clearly mentions that it is for the students at the early stages of training. His opinion implies that the second-shift definition of translation can be introduced to students at higher stages of training, and that translation should be presented progressively. However, Neubert's position is understandable as well, in that the difference between their positions depend on the context of their translation pedagogy. With this in mind, a discussion on how context affects the view of translation pedagogy will be discussed later.

2.1.2 Equivalence

The second basic notion in translation studies is equivalence. There has been a long debate about equivalence and its definition. In addition, there are many arguments proposed by scholars on what and how to achieve equivalence, the key threads of which will be discussed here. A brief overview of the debate is useful to show the range of thinking and variety of approaches to equivalence that have shaped translation studies.

The term ‘equivalence’ was initially introduced by Jacobson (2000). While equivalence is complex, in order to achieve it Jakobson believes that it is necessary to consider a source text first in terms of how the original language works, and then how the target language works. Jakobson uses the term “mutual translatability” and says a comparison of any two languages requires consideration of whether it is possible to translate between them. He also suggests it is possible to determine how closely related two languages are by studying their respective grammars. His emphasis is on the grammatical structure of language, and he suggests that it may not be possible to remain loyal to the source text when the target language has a rigid grammatical structure that the source language lacks. In this case, Pym (1995) warns that equivalence would trigger untranslatability in translation because structures in any two languages rarely have the same formal meaning.

2.1.2.1 Nida’s formal and dynamic equivalence

Regarding the difference between two languages, Nida proposes another theory on equivalence (2000). He points out that there is likely no absolute correspondence between languages, so a completely exact translation is not possible. He also notes that, before the message of a text can be transferred, the translator must decide whether to prioritize the content or the form by considering the effect on the target readers. Nida (2000) introduces the concepts of formal equivalence and dynamic equivalence. He claims that, in formal equivalence, the message of the target language should match as closely as possible the source language. The form and content of the original text must be reproduced as literally and as meaningfully as possible in the target text. The weakness of this type of translation is that it tends to require a great deal of added explanation from the translator that does not always facilitate use by readers. On the other hand, a dynamic translation will produce the same emotional effect through natural expression and adjustment, which better fits the linguistic and cultural norms of target readers.

Newmark (2009) argues that Nida’s dynamic equivalence is similar to his communicative translation. Both attempts to produce an equivalent effect on target readers as that of the effect caused by source text on its readers. Meanwhile, Newmark also proposes semantic translation, which is usually used in translating literary works because it may succeed in preserving some aspect of the source text, such as its aesthetic value.

2.1.2.2 Functional equivalence

Not all theorists view translation as an adjunct to linguistics, which can be explicated using the theories and principles derived from the study of individual languages. Instead, this second group of theorists has tended to focus on the aim or purpose of translation as a guide for the process by which text in one language is expressed in another. This approach is associated with *Skopos* theory, which suggests that the translation process results in a target text that will be used in a target setting by a target audience to achieve functional equivalence. The theory was developed by German linguists Hans Vermeer and Katharina Reiss.

Vermeer (2000) describes *skopos* as a technical term relating to the aim or purpose of translation. This aim is determined by the client who commissions the process of translation. This suggests that the status of the source text is lower than in more linguistic approaches to translation, as the focus is on the target user and the way in which the target text will function in a given target context. This allows some leeway for the translator in determining the role the source text will play in translational action. Source and target text may differ in terms of distribution of content and of the goals set for them by the translation commission. Reiss (2000, p. 161) emphasises this point, claiming translation is a "bilingual mediated process of communication, which ordinarily aims at the production of a TL (Target language) text that is functionally equivalent to an SL text (source language)".

As a functionalist translation scholar, Nord (2010) distinguishes between meaning and function based on a pragmatic point of view. Meaning is related to a linguistic item, but function is linked to the situation of communication. Nord states that text can have more than one function because it can be viewed both from a retrospective angle (through the analysis of a source text) and from a prospective angle (from the target reader's point of view). Therefore, the function of the target text will depend on the recipients. According to Nord (2005), the functions of the target text (TT) produced are not always the same as those of the corresponding source text. *Skopos* will determine whether the function needs to be changed while maintaining the relationships with the source text.

The list of theories on equivalence does not stop here, but those mentioned above are sufficiently representative of the debate on this notion. Furthermore, current discussion is no longer restricted into two opposing positions as in the past, such as formal vs. dynamic equivalence or communicative vs semantic equivalence. Nida (2000) cautions that there can be degrees of adherence between them, while Newmark (2010) also mentions there can be no purely semantic or communicative translation, but one can be both to an extent.

The existence of a number of theories suggests the related existence of alternative perspectives on translation that may serve different aims and interests (Neubert, 2010). At some level, all theories of translation seek equivalence, whether of some element of language itself or of the purpose, aesthetic or experience of the target text and its readers relative to the source text. Anderman (2007) stresses that equivalence is an important concept, not only for linguistically based theory, but also in other ones, even though their concept of equivalence may be different. Indeed, different concepts of equivalence have led to uncertainty in translation, particularly on how it should be done (Pym, 2010). Further to this point, Pym (2014, p. 14) argues that

> the basic story is that all the theories respond in different ways to one central problem: translation can be defined by equivalence, but there are many reasons why equivalence is not a stable concept.

He explains that equivalence assumes that the values carried by the target languages are the same as the source ones. However, he believes there is no linguistic certainty behind equivalence when it comes to translation from European to Asian languages. Therefore, Pym considers equivalence as a social illusion. Nevertheless, he acknowledges that equivalence is still the foundation of translation work today, especially for those applying a linguistic approach. Furthermore, as no exact equivalence can be found between languages and the texts, Chesterman (2016) argues that instead of ‘equivalence’ there should be “kinds of equivalence”. In this case, translators will try to find similar relationships between the translation and source text, which can include function, effect, and values.

2.1.2.3 Equivalence in translation pedagogy

Equivalence is an essential aspect of translation pedagogy, not only because it is the core of translation (House, 2015), but because it is also the basis of its evaluation. Hansen (2010) views non-equivalence between source and target text as translation errors. Students' errors should be corrected based on the notion of equivalence held by the translation teacher (Munday, 2009). With many theories on equivalence proposed and discussed, the problem is deciding what equivalence concept should be adopted in translation pedagogy.

Pedagogically, any translation theories, particularly on equivalence, are useful for both students and teachers. Those theories enable us to systematise translation practices. Translation theory is the fundamental principle of translation training, especially when teaching students skills to solve translation problems. In other words, Batrina (2005, p. 153) argues that translation theory

> aims at systematising translation practices, and it should therefore be considered fundamental in the training of language mediators as it provides them with the necessary skills for solving specific problems.

Furthermore, access to multiple theories means students will have options when tackling a text and can be more knowledgeable about what is considered to be a 'good' translation (Pym, 2011). Not all theories can be applied in solving one translation problem, but these theories have their own valid points. As Chesterman (2014, p. 88) points out, "what matters is whether a concept, model, hypothesis or theory turns out to be useful or not, in solving a given problem and/or in bringing deeper understanding".

However, it does not mean that students need to know all of the theories. Nord (2005) suggests that a small portion of theory is enough. On the other hand, Pym (2014) doubts that knowing the theories will help translators work faster. Yet, he agrees that knowledge of different theories will bring benefits when tackling translation problems, although this probably applies more to professional translators. It is difficult to ask student translators to understand those theories of equivalence (Bernardini, 2004a). Davies (2005) also points out that students' different ages and stages of education, such as undergraduate and postgraduate, need to be considered when setting up learning goals. In addition, Pym (2000) and Schäffner (2000) agree that every country has different forms of translation training depending on their national situation and language policy, as well as the status of translation in its country. Pym (2000) mentions universities in Finland as an example of *skopos* theory used as the foundation in translation training.

At present, there is no consensus on what the best approach might be and also some indication that multiple approaches may be required. Wilss (2004), for example, states that there is likely no single approach to translation teaching, while Perez (2005) adds that students need to be exposed to various ones so that they can be flexible in approaching texts to be translated. It is also possible that different approaches all have value (Lederer, 2007). Tirkkonen-Condit (2010, p. 217) states that "When we accept the varying theoretical approaches as consequences of the translation prototype (read: Equivalences, *skopos*, relevances), their mutual relation is not conflicting but complementary". Similarly, Neubert (2000) also suggests an integrated theory containing various models of translation to build a strong theoretical background. Newmark (2000) suggests that translation teaching should occupy a middle position between a word-for-word and sense-for-sense approach. Although Pym (2010) agrees that there is no empirical proof that understanding different theories will allow translators to work better, he does feel that a range of theories will have practical benefits when problems are encountered. Therefore, Gambier (2012) notices that although there is no single approach used in translation training, there has been a shift from a teacher-oriented approach to a learner-centred approach or a combination of them.

The discussion above has shown that translation scholars have different opinions about the equivalence concept in translation pedagogy. Furthermore, a different equivalence concept will be selected based on the translation pedagogy context, such as students' age, stage of education, and national preference. As this study specifically discusses translation education in Indonesia, any aspect related to this context, including the concept of equivalence adopted, is going to be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.2 Translation pedagogy

As discussed earlier about the connection of translation studies to modern language study, translation pedagogy would be one of the best examples of it. Colina and Angelelli (2017, p. 3) note that "an area of translation pedagogy that has experienced renewed popularity in the last decade is the interface between translation and language learning and teaching". They argue that this kind of dialogue is beneficial for both fields because it enables us to view translation competence and performance. Furthermore, it can help us to see learner strategies from other perspectives. This is something that this study is going to achieve.

Translation pedagogy is a part of Holmes' well-known map of objectives and potential branches of translation studies. Holmes is considered as one of the founders of the modern discipline of Translation Studies because he coined the term, which gave rise to this new field (Munday, 2008).

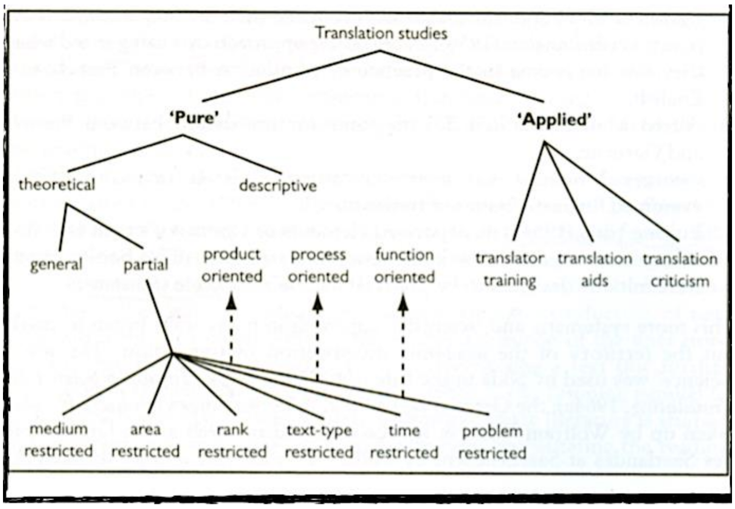

Figure 1 Holmes' Map of Translation Studies (Munday, 2008, p. 10)

The above figure shows that translation pedagogy is referred to by Holmes as part of translation studies. However, it is important to note that translation pedagogy here includes both translation training and education; however, there is a distinction between these which is going to be discussed below. It is important to note this distinction because this study is going to focus on translation education only.

This section will discuss translation pedagogy for students at the tertiary or university level. The field of translation is well established and there are roles for translators in many institutions, including government, business, the media, and the arts. For this reason, the literature contains considerable debate about how translators should be trained and what specific characteristics and abilities they should possess.

2.2.1 Translation training

In considering who might be qualified to be a translator, some have suggested that only those who are gifted or talented in languages are qualified to translate; others think that anyone can become a translator. The first view suggests that people have some level of talent for using language that is parallel to a talent for art or music (see, for example, Harris & Sherwood, 1978; Dollerup & Loddegaard, 1992;

Reiterer, 2009). The second view suggests that any bilingual person can automatically be a translator as all that is required is a sufficient level of language proficiency (Neubert, 2000; Presas, 2000). In an attempt to illustrate this, Gambier (in Bernardini, 2004a) compares translation to driving skills, to show that both can be acquired through an autonomous learning process without any special training.

Robinson (2012) and Pym et al. (2013) admit that most translators did not receive formal training but learned through experience. Therefore, the profession of translator developed outside of the academic environment as a necessity in multilingual contexts, where individuals have often had to rely on the services of another person to facilitate communication in a language they did not know (Genztler, 2014). Baer and Koby (2003) even view translation as one of the world's oldest professions, which has only recently been institutionalized as an academic subject.

Referring to the modern context, Gile (2009) writes that the debate of whether translators should be trained or not has become pointless, because translation training provides students with the most practical way to learn and test their ability to translate. Hermans (2002, p. 14) goes so far as to state that "translating is not an innate skill, it has to be learned and negotiated, both cognitively and normatively". Despite his neutral position that anyone is capable of translating and his reference to the fact that most professional translators do not have formal training but learn translation through experience, Pym (2009) also believes that training can allow a person to translate better for a specific purpose. As trial and error in the professional context will be time-consuming, Lederer (2007) adds that training may prevent learners from wasting time by offering a shortcut to competence. To this end, Malmkjær (2004) finds that theorists and practitioners are now working together to improve translation teaching and practice. In reality, however, while all translators (both professional and amateur, as well as those who translate only situationally) have some level of bilingual competence, their range of background varies considerably, and it has been suggested that many working translators do not have formal training that supports their work (see Biel, 2011).

This literature has shown that in the beginning, translators training was not considered significant due to the view that it could be acquired through experience. This is supported by the argument that some professional translators do not have formal training (Robinson, 2012; Pym et al., 2013). On the other hand, the literature also shows the need for translator training that started outside of the academic environment. While this literature is significant to provide the context of early translation pedagogy, this study focuses on translation education in tertiary institutions, within an academic environment.

2.2.2 Translation education

The previous section has discussed that translation training started outside the academic environment. However, to make it a professional occupation, translation should be offered in tertiary institutions, particularly universities (Seguinot, 2008). Overall, many scholars agree that university training is the best preparation for future translators. Tyulenev (2015) states that the status of a translation is influenced by the form of training undertaken by the translator; if this training occurs at a university, translation can be called a profession. Formal education in translation may both formalize the status of the profession and also increase the visibility of translators as professionals (Katan, 2009a; Ulrych, 2005).

However, Baker (2010, p. 428) argues that

> Yet, in spite of the fact that many universities and colleges have come to recognize the need to train translators and interpreters and do regard translation as skill which can be acquired through training, they still largely rely on intuition and practice as the only way to train translators.

Baker (2010) further explains that, although practice is useful for student translators, a systematic approach to training is needed to allow them to understand the complex process involved in translation and the available options for the problems they encounter. However, it is important that teaching translation in an educational institution be done in a systematic manner. Schäffner and Adab (2000) note that the systematic training of translators is a result of the development of translation theory, which translation instructors attempt to teach. Tennent (2005) adds that theory is necessary for students to make responsible choices. Consequently, learning theory may boost student confidence (Kussmaul, 1997).

For this reason, if translation is to be taught as a university discipline, it follows that a teaching approach will be required. Bartrina (2005) states that translation theory is fundamental and should be included in the university curriculum, not only as a solution to translation problems but also as theoretical background to justify translators' decisions to publishers and editors. The importance of theory is also discussed by Chesterman (2005), who believes that a better understanding of translation will lead to the development of better translator training, wherein translators will learn to master the concepts and tools they will need to use. Kiraly (2003, p. 4) notes: "Every educational method must be based on an epistemology: a theory, understanding or set of beliefs about what it means to know". According to Bernardini (2004, p. 23), however, "translation pedagogy is still in its infancy, and is in need of substantial theorization". Cronin (2005) also stresses that translation pedagogy needs a theory for more effective teaching.

In discussing existing translation courses, Lederer (2007) remarks that, even though translation theory is often included in the curriculum, the content of courses may vary. As an example, Maia (2005) suggests a more linguistic approach to translation training, focusing on the sentences and words that compose the text. By contrast, Hatim and Mason (1997) focus on the communicative act as the basis of a translator training approach. As a functionalist, Nord (2005) proposes that training should produce an effective translator who works based on text intention and function. Garcia (in Lederer, 2007) uses Reiss' *Skopos* theory in teaching translation.

This literature has shown that translation education is conducted in a systematic way based on translation theory. Though the curriculum and learning approach will vary, it is expected to improve students' translation skills as well as self-confidence. As curriculum plays a significant role in translation education, this study will investigate the implications of translation curriculum on the quality of students' translations in an Indonesian tertiary institution, which will be discussed in Chapters 8 and 9.

2.2.3 Translation training vs translation education

As mentioned in section 2.2, translation pedagogy includes translation training and translation education. Currently, there is a debate on whether translation should be taught through translation training or translation education, which is going to be discussed in this section. Bernardini (2004) differentiates between translation training and translation education. The former is viewed as a process to prepare the learner to solve problems through the application of certain procedures, and the latter is a process by which the ability to use existing knowledge to solve new problems is developed. In other words, training can develop the capacity to translate professionally through the use of linguistic tasks that serve as exercises. Education, by contrast, will provide a scientific and intellectual study of translation to support not only professional translation but also research (Maia, 2010; Seguinot, 2012). Both Bernardini (2004) and Maia (2010) believe that university is the best place for translation training. They argue that developing translation competence will always take significant time, and, therefore, it is impossible to do it in a short course.

On the other hand, Katan (2008) takes the opposite view by stating that translation education is not effective in producing future professional translators. One reason for this is that few academics are also full-time professional translators. This is, according to Nord (2005), because there is no institutional training for translator trainers, unlike other disciplines where teaching is carried out by individuals trained appropriately with a focus on the content matter of the field. At the same time, professional translators are generally not qualified to teach at universities because they do not have higher degrees (Davies, 2004).

The real-life contexts in which professional translators work are increasingly complex, which presents a challenge for formal training. Ulrych (2005) notes that flexibility is the main issue in the professional translation context today and needs to be encouraged in translation training. The nature of university is to plan and deliver courses on a cycle of development that often coincides with accreditation and other unrelated administrative procedures. Therefore, it is not possible to have flexibility in response to the changing needs of the translation industry.

Nonetheless, Arrojo (2005) notes that strong opposition to the inclusion of translation as an academic discipline often comes from professional translators who do not see a relevant relationship between their practice and the theoretical concerns that come from academic research. These professional translators may feel that theory is not relevant to their daily practice (Ulrych, 2005). Pym (2009) acknowledges that there is a view that translator courses are too theoretical. For this reason, Baker (2010) suggests that theory should be minimised in translation courses. In addition, Bassnett (2011) argues that theories should engage in more practice.

Furthermore, Davis (2004) and Pym (2009) note that translator education can be offered at different levels. Some training programs are offered at the undergraduate or postgraduate level, while other entities carry out translator training informally. This appears to offer a choice to individuals interested in becoming a translator, and it may be possible to choose based on cost, time involved, and prerequisite qualifications. However, relative quality, as evidenced in graduates' ability to meet the need of employers, is unclear and difficult to measure. This remains a problem in the field; because every translation and every assignment has unique characteristics, it is difficult to fully evaluate a translator in a way that will be relevant to all contexts and, similarly, to identify the range of skills that will cover all possible situations.

The debate on translation training versus translation has shown the advantages and disadvantages of both. Moreover, Preloznikova and Toft (2004) note that, in reality, the assumption that study of translation studies at a university is the best way to prepare a professional translator is not always accurate under local conditions and, in some environments, will need compromise. In Indonesia, translation is also taught both through translation training and translation education. While the study focuses on translation education, it will address aspects mentioned in this debate, such as the curriculum structure, translation teachers, employment opportunities and flexibility to the market needs (see Chapter 9). In the end, this study will be able to answer if universities are the best place to train student translators in the Indonesian context.

2.2.4 Translator education in different countries

Based on a survey conducted by Venuti (2017), the number of translation training programs in the world has increased to 350 programs. In countries with multilingual cultures, translation training has become very important. These programs offer various certificates and degrees at both undergraduate and graduate levels. He notes that the way translation is taught also varies because the development of translation in those countries is different. However, Venuti notes there is only a few countries that have a firm institutional basis for translation studies, such as Canada, United Kingdom, and Spain.

In the UK, according to Schäffner (2000), translation is mainly taught in one-year postgraduate programs. However, there are some longer (three-year) programs offered in specific, high demand languages. In programs of this kind, the first two years tend to focus on developing linguistic and cultural competence, including history, semantics, and terminology. The third year may include an internship and advanced language study. Although the students graduate with a bachelor's degree in translation, it is still necessary for them to continue their studies at the postgraduate level if they intend to pursue a career as a professional translator.

Erton and Tanbi (2016) report on translation courses offered in Turkey. They note that students who fail to develop adequate linguistic competency also tend to fail the translation components. Linguistics, reading, text analysis and composition skills are considered to be fundamental for translation skills. For this reason, the first two years of the course focus on linguistic skills, while the third and fourth years centre on developing translation competence.

In some countries, government plays an important role in developing translation programs. Seguinot (2012) highlights the influence of government policy on universities such as in creating and providing the content of translation programs. He gives the example of China where the government has called for the expansion of translation programs in the country. As a result, there are 31 universities in China that now offer translation studies (Lu & Wang, 2011). In Taiwan, the Ministry of Education has also emphasised translation learning as one of its educational goals. There are government-set syllabi and guidelines for teachers that include cooperative and interactive teaching methods (Wang, 2013).

Meanwhile, some other countries follow guidelines provided by a translation organisation. Schäffner (2012) claims that postgraduate translation programs offered in Europe should meet standard EN15038 for translation provider services in Europe. It means that almost all European countries should follow the same guidelines for translation training. Translation training in European universities aims at fulfilling local and European translation market needs. However, Australia aims to produce qualified translators for the local and global market. Therefore, translation programs in Australia are regulated and approved by the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI), but include elements used by international organisations in their translation training (Orlando, 2012).

Another issue in developing translation programs is the potential for employment. Even though students may be provided with an academic qualification in translation, it does not guarantee their employability. Industry often claims that courses offered at the university level are not applicable to the real translation market (Bernardini, 2004). For this reason, Davies (2004) stresses the need for greater collaboration between universities and companies by involving more professional translators in translation training. Clients, according to Bilovesky and Djovcos (2016), prefer to hire translators with considerable experience, which students usually do not have. In order to meet the market's requirements, some universities, such as Matej Bell University in Slovakia, establish translation centres where students can undertake internships to gain work experience in translation. At this university, students work under the supervision of a professional mentor. This may give them a better grounding in teamwork, project management, and handling clients, while allowing them to learn on the job in a protected environment where they translate documents for internal use only and under supervision.

While the views in the literature on the best approach to training vary, it is interesting to note that most translation programs currently being offered at various universities seem to use a linguistic approach that focuses on the components of the languages involved. Ulrych (2005), in a survey of 65 universities in Europe and North America, concludes that this is likely because translation is generally located within foreign language departments, where it is seen as an adjunct element of language study. According to Pym et al. (2013) normally the students are required to complete language training in the first year before specialising in translation skills.

Discussion of translation education across the world shows that different countries may have different focus, aims and standards. As suggested by Kearns (2012), the key to translation training is to focus on the local context because what is appropriate for one country does not always work in others.

2.3 Translation competence

This section discusses translation competence as taught in translator pedagogy. Ultimately, it is only translation competence that enables students to achieve translation equivalence. The fact that there is a large number of professional translators without translation training seems to support people's assumption that knowing foreign languages is the only thing needed to perform translation. Again, this is based on the notion that any bilingual person can be a translator and there is no specific competence to do a translation. To demonstrate this assumption, Moe et al. (2015) conducted a study comparing student translators' and foreign language students' translation results. They found that student translators have different ways to approach the text and their translation results are much better in terms of discourse and style. This result is believed to be the outcome of the translation competence they obtained in translation training. It is interesting because in Indonesia, context translation is offered under the foreign language department. Hence, the idea that translation can be taught presupposes the existence of a set of measurable skills and competences that are required by professional translators. These skills will then make up the content of training programs and will presumably be subject to measurement and evaluation.

2.3.1 What is translation competence

There is an increasing awareness of the importance of translation competence as translation pedagogy is growing. Scholars see it as necessary to see how translation competence is taught and obtained during the training. Hence, some scholars established PACTE (Process to an Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation) in Spain in 1997. This was a special research group that investigated translation competence in written translation, where the aim was to build a model of translation competence. The group has expanded to include members from other countries such as Poland (Albir, 2017). They also have formulated a model of translation competence which has been revised many times. Hence, this study uses the PACTE model of translation competence to analyse students' competence in this study (see Chapter 8).

One of the members of this group, Albir (2015), defines translation competence (TC) as "the ability to know how to translate" by integrating different abilities such as professional competence. Moreover, he insists that translation curriculum design needs to advocate for competence-based training, a holistic type of training based on professional practices. In this case, Beeby (2004) notes that learning objectives should be based on the concept of professional translator competence. Aubakirova (2016, p. 2) states that:

> the professional competence of a translator means a holistic personal characteristic of an expert, which is a summary of equally important professional, linguistic and other specific competences, as well as of general cultural, psycho-physiological and technical competences, which enables a professional translator to efficiently provide translation services.

What precisely these professional competencies are, however, is not always easy to elucidate. Beyond linguistic competence (which is difficult to measure in itself), there has been considerable discussion of what abilities translators must possess.

2.3.2 Translation competence in the translation industry

To see what constitutes the kind of translation competence professional translators should have, it is useful to consider the latest comprehensive model of translation competence formulated by the PACTE research group (2017, p. 41) as follows.

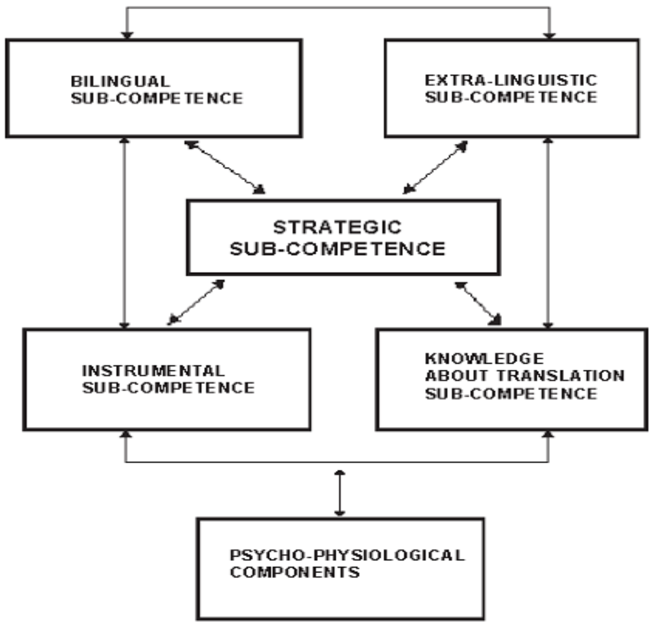

Figure 2 PACTE Model of Translation Competence

This model indicates that translation competence is much more complex than just being bilingual: it is built upon a range of sub-competences that are linked to each other when undertaking translation tasks. This model shows that linguistics and extra-linguistic competences are only basic translation competences, while strategic and instrumental competences as well as knowledge about translation are considered the core indicators of translation competence (PACTE, 2017). In addition, the latter includes instrumental competence, knowledge about translation competence, and a psycho-physiological component. Strategic competence plays a significant role as it lies at the centre of the model, indicating that other competences contribute to it in performing translation tasks, and that it also activates other competences.

This model makes it clear that the difference between translation students and foreign language students lies in the translation competences acquired and taught, which also can be seen in the result of the analysis in Chapter 8. Furthermore, it is important to discuss each of these sub-competences further and how scholars view them, although the discussion is not limited to terms from the PACTE group.

2.3.2.1 Basic translation competences

Some scholars, such as Nord (1995), Neubert (2000), Davies (2004), Gopferich (2015) and Albir (2017), have attempted to formulate what exactly constitutes translation competence. Linguistic competence is accepted as the most basic requirement. Some scholars differentiate between language competence and textual competence, while others consider both these aspects to be linguistic competence. According to Nord (2005), linguistic competence in both the source and target languages is a prerequisite for translator training. For those who accept the value of natural translation (where the translation sounds like an original text in the target language), like Harris (1997), the development of translators' competence depends mostly on the development of language skills. This view is questioned by Lorscher (2010), who argues that TL and SL development is not always equal, and translators can be more competent in one language than the other. Therefore, he believes that language competence is only a part of translation competence. Snell-Hornby (2010, p. 210) adds that "for the translator, language is not an end in itself, but a tool, an instrument, a means to an end, a medium of information, expression, communication." Also stressing the distinct nature of different languages, Gile (2009) notes that the languages a translator will have to work with are not isomorphic; they will have lexical and grammatical differences. He further explains that even the lexical units of two closely related languages, which may look similar and can be described as having the same function, will have different uses. Examples of this are French and English, which have many cognates and overlapping structural similarities but are very different in certain other respects (Malihac, 2000).

Davies (2004) agrees that superior command of both SL and TL is important. She notes that linguistic knowledge includes both language competence and performance. For this reason, an understanding of the source language (usually a translator's L2) is important, but producing correct expression in the target language (usually their L1) is more important. In addition, she also points out the possibility of interference and negative transfer. Normally experienced by novice translators, interference occurs when their first language has a negative effect on their use of the second one (Presas, 2000). Davies (2004) further explains that L1 can interfere with the translator's L2 reception or comprehension in the form of false cognates, and the

L2 may also affect the production of L1. However, this study observes how translation is conducted from L1 to L2. This interference can be controlled if a translator has the ability to deverbalize and compartmentalize their SL and TL in such a way that they do not affect one another (Orozco, 2000).

However, as noted by Neubert (2000), the importance of first language knowledge and skill is often underestimated by translators. In spite of this, translation into a translator's first language, according to Kelly (2000), is not only a professional necessity in many national translation markets, but also a useful exercise in translation training. She believes that this will help students to realise that understanding the source text does not only relate to language but also involves concepts and background knowledge. She also argues that translators must understand that reformulating the message in their foreign language is more difficult because of the need to consider appropriate textual and linguistic forms. For this reason, it is easier for students to translate into their own language (Erton & Tanbi, 2016). Schäffner (2000) agrees that translators need to be equally competent in their first and second languages. She says that, in order to gain linguistic competence in both linguistic structure and function for communicative purposes, the student must be introduced to basic linguistic concepts, such as morphemes, words, meaning, and syntax by comparing their first language to other languages. Moreover, terminology is also essential in translation; Martinez and Benitez (2009) define terminological competence as the ability of the translator to gain knowledge beyond terms used in a text.

According to Erton and Tanbi (2016), linguistic training is important as the basis for translation training. Preloznikova and Toft (2004) has suggested that translation students should study linguistics and literature that is relevant to translation study; these include morphology, syntax, lexicology and other subjects related to language. Linguistic skills, in this case, refer to reading ability, competence in text analysis, and composition skills, which can be seen as the foundation of translation skills. Genre literacy and contrastive rhetoric have also been seen as essential competences for translation (Beeby 2004). According to Beeby (2000), contrastive discourse competence, including knowledge of text type and genre differences in the SL and TL, and the awareness of the relationship between context and register in terms of field, mode, and tenor are vital for translators. Schäffner (2000) discusses textual competence, including knowledge of regulations and conventions of text, genre, and text type as part of the effort to ensure that the TT is appropriate. The competence to produce this kind of translation enables translators to identify genre conventions of various texts, such as instruction manuals or recipes, at the macro and micro level, as well as the similarities and differences in the genre conventions of two cultures. Students should be exposed to different types of text to ensure that the materials given in translation classes are relevant to market needs (Kelly, 2000; Heidary & Mowlaie, 2016). However, one of the problems found in this study is that students can be exposed to too many types of text without strong needs analysis, as discussed in Chapter 8.

Translation competence is not only about the use of two languages; there is the need to match employer requirements (Schäffner, 2012). Even though language competence is the main component of translation competence, it is not enough to successfully carry out the process of translation. Scholars agree that translation requires extra-linguistic competence, which includes broad general knowledge, cultural knowledge, subject matter and specialised knowledge: “a good command of language is not sufficient without extra-linguistic competence” (Elthess, 2000, p. 103). Anderman and Rogers (2000, p. 66) also emphasise that “language knowledge is only prerequisite not an automatic qualification for translation. Possession of subject matter knowledge specialised in the relevant field is really important”. They continue by noting that terminology is important for this competence. Similarly, Davies (2005) states that there is a common agreement that adequate background knowledge plays a more important role than linguistic knowledge in improving the quality of translation. Moreover, an understanding of what is implied in a text enables the translator to determine the intention and the function of the text as well as its cultural aspects (Davies, 2004). The underlying assumption of these and other authors is that linguistic skills can potentially be mastered more easily by more people than the corresponding cultural knowledge required to translate effectively.

Newmark (2010) considers culture to be the biggest constraint in achieving accurate translation. Despite a general belief that cultural awareness is only important for literary translation, Maia (2010) states that non-literary texts, such as technical manuals, also require cultural knowledge. As an example, she cites legal translation because every country has a different legal system, and readers will have a different set of background concepts. Another example is tourism texts, which contain cultural references that may be difficult to translate. The cultural problem is also detected in translating terminology in business translation, as discussed in Chapter 7.

Linguistic and cultural knowledge, then, are two basic requirements for translation. Any bilingual person may have this knowledge, but this is not absolute. A bilingual person is different from a translator in his or her possession of transference skill. According to Davies (2004), transference skill is the basis of translation competence and is needed to transfer a source text appropriately for a target audience. She points out that this includes decision-making and cognitive processes that can bridge two cultures and languages. Neubert (2000) adds that transference skill refers to the tactics and strategies for converting L2 to L1. In addition, this skill includes cognitive qualities, such as creativity and the capacity to resolve problems.

2.3.2.2 Core translation competences

Besides having linguistic competence, modern translators are required to possess additional skills. Orozco (2000) regards transfer competence as the core competence in translation because it integrates all other competences. According to Beeby (2000), transfer competence requires advanced reading skills in the source language and reformulation or composition skills in the target language. Due to its central role in the translation process, Albir (2017) refers to this competence as strategic competence. She explains that this competence is responsible for managing an efficient translation process by activating various other competences, choosing the most appropriate method, identifying the problem, and employing the procedures to solve the problem.

The ability to solve problems by working strategically with language in the context of translation has the greatest impact on the product and on the translator's capacity to complete a translation task. Knowledge of translation is important in this stage. This competence will generate knowledge about translation procedures and identifying the problems, as well as about the translation market, such as who the audience will be (PACTE, 2017).

Instrumental competence is another translation competence a translator should have. This competence, referred to Schäffner (2000) as (re)search competence, will help the translator to bridge any perceived knowledge gaps by using resources that may be available, such as dictionaries, databases, parallel texts, the internet and human resources, and search engines. She also notes the importance of psycho-physiological competence as an additional competence. She defines this as the ability to use all kinds of psychomotor (for reading and writing), cognitive (memory, creativity, and logical reasoning) and attitudinal resources (self-confidence, critical spirit). Referring to these same attributes, Orozco (2000) discusses instrumental-professional competence which is composed of knowledge and skills related to both the tools of the trade and the profession of translation.

In discussing this distinction, Chesterman (2000) compares translation to carpentry as an example of an occupation that requires both skill and tools. He notes that the tools of a translator can be actual, such as online resources, or conceptual, such as procedures. These can be used by a translator to locate information about the context of a text (Vienne, 2000). This information is typically found in a range of language resources and reference works (Fraser, 2000).

Mackenzie (2004) emphasises that the translation industry today also requires interpersonal skills, marketing and management skills, as well as skills related to information technology (IT). He notes that IT supports the process of research and text production and includes the use of translation memory tools, terminology software, and the internet. These resources are growing and being improved as technology develops. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (2010), for example, believes that translation memories are an important development in computer-aided translation and can function as a terminology database. Thelen (2004) agrees with the use of computer-assisted technology specifically for translation, such as Trados, which may enable a translator to manage terminology in a database which can be used when translating the same subject to make sure terminology is consistent. This is important because terminology is one of the most important areas of specialised translation. This includes an instrumental sub-competence to use tools and technology to assist translation. Perhaps the most commonly used tools in translation are dictionaries - either bilingual or monolingual. Using a dictionary also requires a specific competence, which is part of instrumental competence.

2.3.3 Translation competence in translation training

The literature reviewed above shows that scholars have used different terms to refer to the same thing, for example linguistic competence (Nord’s term) and textual competence (Schäffner’s term). They agree, however, that language proficiency, cultural knowledge, and transfer competence are the main translation competences required by students. Other competences, such as IT skills and interpersonal skills, are additional and will facilitate successful participation in the professional world. However, most scholars consider that the only competence that really matters in translation is transfer or strategic competence, because this can help compensate for gaps in L2 competence.

Both core and additional translation competences are essential to guarantee competent translation performance. Although translator training has attempted to teach these competencies to students, the process is not perfect and may later lead to translation problems. According to Adab (2000), novice translators usually have not acquired sufficient L2 socio-cultural experience and language competence and tend to make decisions based on what they know of comparative and contrastive linguistics. MacKenzie (2004) adds that the problem often lies in students having an inadequate understanding of the source text due to a lack of information and terminological or linguistic knowledge. He suggests this problem might be addressed by research and tools for research, consultation with the author, dictionaries, or recourse to subject and language experts. If the students use such resources properly, Gile (2009) suggests that there is no reason that insufficient command of the source language should lead to translation problems.

Meanwhile, MacKenzie (2004) finds that another problem experienced by student translators is in producing a target text, especially into L2, which complies with the required criteria. He believes that the solution is to use parallel text. Gile (2009) regards difficulty in re-expressing the message in a target language as the main problem of student translators. He points out that students tend to be very cautious in moving away from the structure of the original and often see translation as matching words and linguistic constructions in the TL and SL. He explains that students often do not add or remove words when required, even though this is an accepted and required aspect of translation. The tendency to use the structure of the text as a guide to structure is perhaps understandable because students tend to lack high level competence in L2, in addition to having gaps in non-linguistic knowledge. Moreover, in order to create interculturally competent translators, Tomozeieu et al. (2016) urge academician to introduce intercultural knowledge and analysis in translation training. Finally, O'Brien (2015) claims that transfer competence differs among professional and novice translators. Assessment of the product of translation and the process of translation is essential, given that the aim of translation training is to create competent translators whose abilities are defined by the competencies they acquire (Barros and Vine, 2017).

Even though new technology has changed the way translators work and agencies tend to prefer translators who are capable of using technology, Beeby (2004) notes that students need to develop linguistic and cultural competences at a high level since technology rapidly becomes obsolete and language changes at a much faster rate. Bernardini (2004) says that, although the role of technology and translating tools is crucial, students do not need to be taught to use specific tools as part of their training but must develop the skills to use future technology.

2.4 Translation assessment

Translation assessment is crucial in translation pedagogy because it can inform students' learning and whether they have learned what has been taught to them. A comprehensive review was conducted by Yan et al. (2019) on translation and interpreting training research in the world. They analysed research articles published in 10 major international translation and interpreting journals from 2000 to 2012. From 2274 entries they collected, 72% were research articles discussing translation teaching while 18% of research was about translation learning. Only 10% of the research articles were related to translation assessment. This makes translation assessment the least explored area in translation research. However, it is a crucial one, particularly because it informs the quality of the translation product and the training itself, particularly regarding the question of whether equivalence is achieved. Moreover, assessment is necessary so that the translation reviewers can judge whether translation errors occur, which is an area of focus in this study.

2.4.1 Translation assessment setting

Assessment may take place in the translation industry or in educational settings. In the industry, evaluation can be conducted on published translations such as translated books and any professional translators' work. Moreover, evaluation is also done in translation teaching (Melis and Albir, 1997). However, according to Reiss (2014), translation assessment is more intensively and consistently done in translator training institutions. During translator training, students are asked to translate texts and their translations are then corrected or evaluated as part of a pedagogical exercise or examination process. On the other hand, there is less chance to perform translation assessments in industry as the clients may not always care about the quality of the translation work performed.

Colina (2019) emphasises the importance of quality evaluation in an educational context, which has been the focus on this study, as it can provide feedback in the learning process and also help teachers determine if the educational goals are achieved. It can also become a tool for diagnosing problems encountered by the students. In addition, it can show evidence of translation competence and translation quality.

2.4.2 Assessment, evaluation, or criticism?

In discussing assessment, there is an issue with the terminology used. It has been pointed out that the terminology used in translation evaluation is not clear. McAlester (2000) suggests that there are too many terms used, which may confuse the situation and obscure what is actually being measured. Such terms include ‘evaluation’, ‘criticism’, ‘analysis, and ‘assessment’ which are often used interchangeably. McAlester (2000) goes on to define ‘evaluation’ as scoring the translation, ‘criticism’ as stating whether a translation is appropriate or not, and ‘analysis’ as describing the translation process. Finally, he proposes the use of the term ‘assessment’ to cover all three of these processes. Like McAlester, Colina (2011) agrees that the terms ‘evaluation’ and ‘assessment’ are often used interchangeably. She explains that assessment should provide information for a specific goal, such as judging a student’s translation competence through a test, while evaluation involves subjective judgment. Assessment, according to Galan-Manas and Albir (2015), is a broader concept that relates to competence (not the content of translation), because it does not result in a score but verifies students’ acquisition of competencies as well as providing them with information about their progress, mistakes, and how they can improve. In this study, assessment is a more appropriate term to use as I attempt to discover students’ competence and problems, but at the same time it also involves evaluation from the external reviewers.

2.4.3 Various approaches to translation assessment

Translation assessment, evaluation, or criticism is challenging. Experts such as Williams (2004), Drugan (2013), House (2015), Colina (2019) and Baker and Saldanha (2019) agree that the problem lies in there being too many variations on conducting the assessment. There is no single objective way to measure translation quality. The variation can be in terms of approaches: for example, the mentalist approach provides evaluation based on subjective evaluation, the response-based approach is based on whether target readers have the same response as the source text readers, and the text and discourse-based approach is based on the linguistics approach (Akbari & Segers, 2017). Others conduct an assessment in a professional or practice context (Williams, 2009). Moreover, a different point of view can also lead to different assessments, such as the views of foreign language teachers or other professional translators (Kusmaull, 1995).

Understandably, the same standard is not applicable in assessing texts of different genres such as literary, legal, technical and business due to their different nature: what is considered a good literary translation would be different from a technical translation because literary translation needs creativity, and the assessment will be more subjective. Moreover, it is essential to note that all of those approaches contribute to translation assessment. Debate on translation has traditionally focused on defining translation, to proposing translation theories, and now it has extended to translation evaluation. As House (1997) suggests, the different ways of assessing quality are the result of different views on the concept of translation, translation theory, and the nature of quality. Or, in Pym's argument, theories will identify the norms used by people in a certain place and time to consider translation good; there are many norms available that the student can have many options in doing the translation (Pym, 2011).

Munday (2012, p. 39) writes that "our evaluations are strongly linked to the values instilled in us by the educational, legal, cultural and other institutions in which we are formed. So, evaluation may vary. Colina (2019) adds that the assessment depends on what is our notion, our definition of translation, or the product we assess. With many options to assess translation quality, it is necessary to follow House's (2015) suggestion to define equivalence as it is the core of translation. Therefore, the concept of equivalence adopted will determine the way translation is evaluated.

2.4.4 Translation competence as the purpose of assessment

Assessment by purpose consists of: 1) summative assessment, giving a score to the student at the end of the assessment period based on various tasks; 2) diagnostic assessment, intended to provide information about students' prior knowledge before beginning training, which may be based on questionnaires, oral questions, or group discussion; and 3) formative assessment, intended to review student performance during the course of training to enable the instructor to evaluate whether the program is on track (Galan-Manas & Albir, 2015).

The aim of translator training is to teach translation competencies to students. These are not easy to assess, but a possible way is through students' product assessment. It is assumed that their competence will show in their performance when they are required to undertake a translation task. This reflects Beeby's (2000, p. 185) statement that: "competence in translation is an abstract concept that can only be measured in performance".

It is important for students to be given feedback because when they enter the real translation market, their translations will be critiqued by clients, which should be useful in improving future translation quality (Gile, 2009). However, Fraser (2000) emphasises that the purpose of feedback in translation training is not translation revision but to make students aware of any competencies they may lack. Regarding the purpose of translation evaluation, Adab (2000, p. 215-216) states that

> a target text can be evaluated for different purposes: to assess the suitability of the text for its intended reader and use; to evaluate language competence (usually L2, L3); to determine levels of intercultural awareness; or to identify levels and types of translation competence.

This indicates the complexity of evaluation which must be carried out at several levels, beginning from the strictly linguistic and moving into function and context.

According to Al-Melhi (2014), translation evaluation should be a part of translation training to analyse and improve students' translation, comparing target texts to source texts through the use of evaluation tools and models. He argues that this is crucial in translation education because it not only helps assess translation quality, students' linguistic and intercultural competencies, translation skills and performance (which are the focus of this study), but also allows for evaluation of whether the text is suitable for the students' level.

2.4.5 Assessor and timing

According to Galan-Manas and Albir (2015), assessment consists of: 1) self-assessment, which is an independent assessment done by the student involving reflection on his or her own work; 2) peer assessment, which is assessment conducted by fellow students; and 3) hetero-assessment, provided by an outside assessor with a higher or lower level of skill, such as a teacher, professional, or client. The first and second type of assessment usually will give limited information on the translation competence. Hence, to obtain comprehensive assessment, it is important to involve an outside assessor. Furthermore, assessment can be conducted anytime during the training. It can be before starting the program (initial assessment), throughout (continuous assessment), and at the end (final assessment); timing depends on how assessment is conducted.

2.4.6 How do we conduct the assessment?

Conducting assessment requires an instrument, but it can involve more than one tool, as suggested by Orlando (2011). Different contexts and stages of translation training need different tools. He has developed two different evaluation grids based on a combination of professional elements and a text to translate. The evaluation grids suggested by Orlando use the NAATI system as well as didactic elements evaluated using a translator's diary. Galan-Manas and Albir (2015) suggest some possibilities: 1) a text to translate, which is the most common instrument used to evaluate students' language proficiency and ability to solve translation problems; 2) a questionnaire in the form of a diagnostic question set on translation problems or translation knowledge, which enables collection of information about students; 3) a reflective diary containing students' personal thoughts and opinions related to the training; and 4) reports containing students' assessment about the tasks performed, such as problems faced and the strategies applied.

However, Williams (2004) has questioned whether the standard basic measure of translation quality should be zero error. There are many definitions of 'error' in translation, and it is a term also used in the second language acquisition field. Chesterman (2016) relates translation errors to readers' reactions and expectations, whereby any aspect in translation triggering a critical reaction from readers is called an error. Pym (2011) defines errors as any translation features that violate a given norm and fail to fulfil readers' expectations. Errors also become one of the bases of translation evaluation. According to Williams (2009, p. 17), translation evaluation can be conducted based on the following standards:

1. Maximum/publication standard
   The text renders all grounds and claims and satisfies all non-core parameters. It contains no critical or major errors.
2. Minimum professional standard
   The text accurately renders all grounds and claims. It contains no critical errors.
3. Student standard
   The text renders grounds and claims and satisfies non-core parameters in accordance with assigned learning objectives.
4. Substandard
   The text fails to render grounds and claims and fails to satisfy one or more of the non-core parameters relevant to its specific function or the assigned learning objectives.

Indeed, the standard expected in the educational context should be realistic because the students are translators in training. In this study, translation evaluation is conducted based on student standards. Furthermore, Reiss (2014) mentions the first stage in evaluation is to consider the judgment from readers or reviewers. The second stage would be comparing the original and translated versions to observe whether fidelity (Reiss' term for equivalence) is achieved. This study also conducts two stages of analysis: external review and error analysis.

If the message and its essential substance are adequately transferred in a translation, the translation must be considered satisfactory. As Solina (2018) notes, the basic measure is to assess the features of source and target text and to compare their equivalence. Therefore, a textual approach is more useful in this context because it includes contrastive rhetoric and contrastive discourse analysis. This approach will provide an essential empirical foundation in translation by comparing both texts from different languages and cultures to examine the production of the translation (House, 2016). Text comparison will help the evaluator to define whether the error is a matter of comprehension (translation) due to misinterpretation, or if it is just a matter of expression (language matters).

In addition to specific translation competences, as the development of language skills needs to be assessed in an academic environment, any evaluation framework applied should use a linguistic base combined with textual and functional approaches (Adab, 2000). One model of translation quality assessment based on theories of language use is proposed by House (2014). This model analyses both source and target texts in terms of their linguistic and cultural aspects, as well as evaluates text equivalences, because equivalence is the core of translation theory and the basis of its quality assessment. She believes that, based on its original meaning in Latin “of equal value”, equivalence does not mean that both target and source texts must be the same; differences are unavoidable. However, the texts must be comparable. House (2014) introduced this model in 1977 which focuses on the semantic, pragmatic, and textual aspects of language. She revised the model in 1997, adding register and genre aspects into the analysis and including an evaluation of the extent to which a mismatch may have occurred.

2.4.7 Errors and translation assessment

One type of information provided by the translation assessment process relates to translation errors. According to Al-Melhi (2014, p. 4), “The concept of evaluation of translation competences is thus predominantly grounded in error analysis that derives insight from the underlying theories of translation competence”. Orozco (2000) regards translation errors as unsolved translation problems caused by a lack of translation knowledge. By contrast, Nord (1991) considers translation errors to be deviations in translation due to a lack of linguistic competence or factual knowledge. In more general terms, according to Hansen (2010), translation errors occur when something goes wrong during the process of message transference from ST to TT.

Some scholars have attempted to classify errors made by translators. Pym (1992) distinguishes between binary and non-binary errors. According to Pym (1992, p. 4), “A binary error opposes a wrong answer to the right answer; non-binarism requires that the TT actually selected be opposed to at least one further TT1 which could also have been selected, and then to possible wrong answers”. He further explains that binary errors usually occur at a basic level of language, while non-binary ones are usually found at higher levels.

House (2014, p.33) explains covert and overt errors as follows:

> If a translation text is to fulfill the requirement of a dimensional, and as a result of this, a functional match, then any mismatch along the

> dimensions is an error. Such dimensional errors were referred to as covertly erroneous errors. These were differentiated from those overtly erroneous errors which resulted either from a mismatch of the denotative meanings of source and translation text elements or from a breach of the target language system.

House's distinction between overtly and covertly erroneous errors refers to the objective versus subjective nature of the mistake. Overtly erroneous errors, House (2014) notes, have historically received greater consideration because they are relatively easy to identify; covertly erroneous errors, on the other hand, require a much more involved evaluation with subjective elements.

Nord (1997) proposes four types of errors: pragmatic errors caused by the different communicative situations in ST and TT; cultural errors caused by the different cultures in ST and TT; linguistic errors caused by differences in language structure in ST and TT; and text-specific errors caused by the different conventions or text styles in TT and ST. Nord (1991) places these errors in a hierarchy, with linguistic errors considered to be the least serious and potentially the most correctable. Linguistic errors are also the easiest type of mistake to identify.

In this study, linguistic errors are of importance because of the novice status of the translators who produced the texts to be analysed. The context in Indonesia, along with the general levels of language mastery, suggest that linguistic errors are likely to be prominent in translations completed by students who have not yet finished their training and are still developing language competence. While it is also likely that their work will contain other types of errors, it cannot be assumed that students at this level will produce translations that are free of grammatical mistakes, even though this assumption might apply at the professional level. More detailed discussion related error analysis is going to be presented in Chapter 4.

2.4.8 Assessment in various countries

McAlester (2000) observes that the UK, USA, Finland, and Sweden use assessment methods based on a summation of points deducted for errors made, where mistakes that cause misunderstandings or reflect inappropriate use of the target language are weighted more heavily. Australia, through the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI), also uses an evaluation system that deducts points out of 100 for each error made. Candidates for certification must score above 70% to pass (Orlando, 2011).

Furthermore, Williams (2013) compares the assessments used by the Canadian Translators, Terminologists, and Interpreters Council (CTTIC) and the American Translators Association (ATA). He finds that "the ATA provides extensive documentation to describe and define a required level of competency and, at the same time, a standard or set of standards in terms of the quality of the text itself" (2013, p. 426). On the other hand, he suggests that the criteria of the CTTIC scheme are not as well defined.

Turner and Ozolins (2007) noted that the UK Institute of Linguists and the American Translators Association do not only use an error deduction marking system but also negative marking and descriptors. Turner, Lai, and Huang (2010) compared the Australian National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) and the UK Institute of Linguists' Diploma of Public Service Interpreting (DPSI) assessment systems. They found that the DPSI provides more holistic guidance to the grader by using descriptors compared to NAATI, which uses a deduction system. However, NAATI engages in continuous improvement of this system in collaboration with RMIT University and the University of New South Wales (UNSW).

On the other hand, Hlavac (2013), in a study on the certification system of 21 countries,[2] notes that some do not certify translators through a formal test but only based on a compiled portfolio of work. Other countries do not have a single and uniform certifying test. Further, he notes that some European countries, such as Austria, Germany, Belgium, Spain, and Croatia do not have a translator certification body, either government-based or private, because universities are the ones to certify translators.

In Indonesia, the translation assessment system is still in development. The government conducts sworn translation tests in collaboration with Universitas Indonesia, but only residents of DKI Jakarta can take the test because they will be sworn in by the Governor of Jakarta. The test has not been available since 2009

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[2] Australia, Canada, the US, Sweden, Norway, Austria, Belgium, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Spain, Croatia, China, Japan, UK, Ireland, South Africa, Argentina, Mexico, Brazil, and Egypt.

because there is a plan to establish a national test run by the Ministry of Law and Human Rights. On the other hand, the Association of Indonesian Translators or Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia (HPI) also offers a National Certification Test (*Tes Sertifikasi National*) in collaboration with Universitas Atmajaya. However, there is no information about the marking system used for either test and whether the assessment tools have been evaluated in terms of validity and reliability.

In order to determine what types of errors occur in students' translation work, it is important to use a translation quality assessment tool used for national accreditation or acknowledged in a professional context. A tool of this kind, according to Williams (2013), must be objective, valid, and reliable. He defines 'valid' as being able to measure translation skills and 'reliable' as a stable criterion to ensure consistent evaluation. After considering the assessment tools in several countries above, this study adapted the ATA assessment tools, which are going to be discussed further in Chapter 5.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a comprehensive discussion on key literature and theoretical elements related to both translation studies and translation pedagogy. It started with a discussion of two basic notions: the nature of translation and the concept of equivalence. These concepts are crucial in translation pedagogy because they will determine the way translation courses are offered and assessed.

The chapter also discussed literature related to translation pedagogy, a term that represents both translation training and translation education. As discussed in section 2.2.1, translation pedagogy started outside of the academic environment. However, the need to acknowledge translators as a professional occupation has led to a discussion of translation education as an academic field (section 2.2.2). This has led to a debate about whether translation should be offered as training (vocational courses) or education (university courses), covering issues such as program design, translation teachers, and students' employment opportunities, which are investigated in this study. The choice to offer translation training or translation education is subject to the context of each country; a discussion related to the Indonesian context will be provided in Chapter 8.

Furthermore, this chapter has discussed translation competence required for student translators. Most importantly, it has elaborated on the PACTE model of translation competence, which is used to analyse students' translation competence in this study. Moreover, the role of assessment is also discussed here. Finally, while this chapter has predominantly provided a general context, translation education specifically in the Indonesian context is discussed next in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3
Translation in Indonesian Tertiary Institutions

This chapter outlines the background and the context for this research. First, I will discuss translation history in Indonesia. Second, I will discuss the Indonesian Association Translators as well as translator certification. Next, the chapter offers an explanation of translation training and translation education in the country, focusing on the curriculum at Politeknik Negeri Padang (PNP) where the case study is conducted.

3.1 History of translation in Indonesia

More than half of the published books in Indonesia in the 21st century is translated from other languages such as English, Japanese, Arabic, and French (Chambert-Loir, 2009). These publications do not only include literary works, but also non-fiction such as business, popular psychology, and monographs. Chambert-Loir (2009) claims that there is a lack of documentation about the history, process, and quality of book translation in Indonesia. However, there have been attempts to document Indonesian translation history by collecting 65 journal articles written by 59 authors in a book titled “Sadur” in 2009.

Chambert-Loir (2009) divides the history of Indonesian translation into three periods based on the cultures strongly influencing Indonesian translation at that time. The cultures are Indian, Arabic, and European. These influences are still evident in Indonesia, in language, society and culture. The use of loan words in Indonesian is one example of the influence of foreign cultures on language. Moreover, various religions found in Indonesia are also proof of the influences of different cultures. Religions such as Hinduism and Buddhism from India, Islam from Arabic cultures, and Christianity from Europe have all influenced Indonesian culture. Therefore, I agree with Aveling’s claim (2010) that the history of translation in Indonesia has played an important role in shaping Indonesia’s current national identity. In discussing the history of Indonesian translation, I would like to add the periods after Indonesian independence, including the Sukarno and Suharto eras and the current situation, as these periods have also played a significant role in shaping Translation Studies in Indonesia.

3.1.1 The Indian period

There is no exact information on when translation from Indian language began in Indonesia. Chambert-Loir (2009) notes that the beginning of translation history in Indonesia was on October 14, 992, when a tale in Sanskrit titled "Wirataparwa" was translated into Javanese. However, Aveling (2010) argues that translation began earlier, at the beginning of the Common Era (CE), due to the evidence that the ruling kingdom used a South Asian model. Aveling (2010) does not identify a specific country, but it can be understood as Indian. He mentions there is an inscription from the Sriwijaya Kingdom in South Sumatera written in Old Malay dating from 684 CE. This inscription is also written in Southern Indian script interspersed with numerous Sanskrit words.

Pre-dating this, Radicchi (2009) claims that there are some inscriptions in Old Malayan written before 400 CE. Despite her belief that they are translation, she cannot prove it. In addition, she found a text from the 7th century showing a deep knowledge of Sanskrit language, which she assumed to be a translated version from Sanskrit. She believes this text was designed to help locals understand the Sanskerta language, with the Sanskrit terms left untranslated. Based on the work of Aveling and Radicchi, it is clear that translation has a long history in Indonesia. The text also marks the beginning of the first period of Indian influence in the history of Indonesian translation. One of the biggest influences lefts is Sanskrit, which plays an important role in the development of Old Javanese literature. Even currently, some Indonesian terms are loaned from Sanskrit. Hunter (2009) notes that Indian influences can also be seen in religious practices in Indonesia relating to Hinduism and Buddhism.

3.1.2 The Islamic period

The second period began when groups of Moslem traders came to Indonesia. Johns (2009) argues that they were not necessarily from Arab lands and came to different places in Indonesia such as Sumatera, Java, Borneo and Maluku. Arabic is the key language in Islam because the Al-Quran and Hadith are written in this language. It is a Moslem's responsibility to read the Al-Quran and undertake religious practices in Arabic. Significant work was undertaken to copy the Al-Quran by hand; although it is difficult to know when this began, Johns (2009) notes that in 1600 Malay language in Indonesia was written in Arabic script.

An important translation during this period is that of the Al-Quran. Unlike the Bible, which can be translated into many languages, it is not as straightforward to translate the Al-Quran. Riddell (2009) explains that since Moslems view the Al-Quran as a sacred text from Allah, any translation is seen as distorting its meaning. When translation is allowed, the Arabic text must be kept alongside the translation, which is considered only an interpretation of the Al-Quran. This period did not only result in the translation of religious texts but also some stories. One of the examples mentioned by Aveling (2010) is *Hikayat Muhammad Hanafiyyah*, a story about Husain and Husein, the Prophet Muhammad's grandson.

This Islamic period has left some enduring linguistic and religious influences in current day Indonesia: not only are there many loanwords from Arabic in Indonesian, but also Islam is the dominant religion in the country.

3.1.3 The European period

Aveling (2010) notes that the earliest European translation is related to Christianity, where the Gospel of Mark was published as a bilingual Dutch-Malay text. After that, a complete version of the Bible was translated between 1678 and 1701. This translation was written in roman script, not Arabic, which led to another transformation of how the text was written in Indonesia. After that, translation was expanded to non-religious texts. According to Chambert-Loir (2009), Dutch colonization in Indonesia encouraged translation from European languages; however, book titles were carefully selected according to strict criteria. Translation was mostly limited to classic literary works, and modern books were prohibited. This was criticized by a famous Indonesian writer, Armijn Pane, who argued that modern books about modern life in Europe should have been translated into Indonesian. At that time, translated books were used as tools to influence the Indonesian mindset; translation was adjusted to local conditions, and propaganda was often introduced. Chambert-Loir (2009) does not specify what kinds of propaganda the Dutch used at that time, but it can be assumed that it involved encouraging the Indonesian people to obey the Dutch colonial rule. Not translating modern European books that were influenced by Renaissance or humanism was a strategic choice to avoid introducing modern views into Indonesian society, which could threaten the Dutch government. Besides that, Hoed (2011) considers the purpose of translation in the past was to introduce specific ideas or culture, and to make sure the recipients imitated those ideas. In this case, the source culture may be considered more powerful than the target culture. Like Indian and Islamic periods, this period also heavily influenced Indonesian languages, as evidenced through the use of loanwords and the introduction of Christianity.

3.1.4 After Indonesian independence

After Indonesian independence in 1945, translation history in Indonesia entered another distinctive period. Since independence, translation development in Indonesia has been influenced by Indonesian government policy. The social and political situation experienced a significant change under President Sukarno's government. Indonesia was divided into two factions: nationalist and communist. Those groups attempted to introduce their political views by translating as many books as possible into Indonesian. Nationalist groups translated through *Balai Pustaka*, while the communist group had a special translation body called *JaJasan Pembaruan*. However, Indonesian translation declined during the New Order era under President Suharto due to strict policies to control Indonesian society. Any books containing communist ideology or contrary to Eastern culture were banned. Translators and publishers were afraid that they would be arrested if they translated foreign books. As an impact of this policy, translation's importance gradually decreased, and it became a low-paying job.

These gloomy days for translation in Indonesia lasted for a long time, until recently when translators started to regain prominence and status. The current government acknowledges the importance of translators; in 2006, it established a career service in a government institution called *Jabatan Fungsional Penerjemah*, or 'Functional Translators', under the Indonesian Cabinet Secretary body[3]. Their responsibility is to assist the government with translation and interpreting, such as to translate documents and official speeches. Required qualifications for this position are a bachelor's degree in English or a Diploma III degree in Translation. In 2011, Indonesia had 117 government translators from national and regional government institutions. Based on the latest information from the Indonesian Cabinet Secretary's official website, this number has increased to 202, distributed as per the following map.

[3] https://penerjemah.setkab.go.id/id/konten/sejarah/, accessed 25 July 2020.

Figure 3 Government translators' distribution map[4]

The map shows that most translators are located in Jakarta because it is Indonesia’s capital city, where communication with foreign countries is mostly conducted.

In addition, the Indonesian government also regulates special tariffs for translation jobs through the Indonesian Ministry of Finance regulation no. 65/PMK.02/2015. In 2015, the translation fee from and to English was IDR 152,500 per double-spaced A4 page using Arial font. The government increased this tariff in 2019, through regulation no. 78/PMK.02/2019, to IDR 250,000[5]. This regulation shows recognition from the government for the translation profession. Furthermore, the tariff increase also suggests that this is no longer a low-paying job. This is a positive development, as translators can use the regulation as a guideline when setting their tariffs and negotiating with clients. Unfortunately, market competition has undermined the tariff, with some translators offering lower processes to attract work. These may contribute to the problem of low-quality translation in Indonesia.

3.2 Indonesian Translators’ Association

Attempts to give increased recognition to the profession of translation in Indonesia began with the establishment of *Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia* (Association of Indonesian Translators) in 1974. This association is affiliated with the International Federation of Translators, an international group of translators, interpreters, and terminologists in 55 countries. In its early years, HPI focused on

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[4] https://penerjemah.setkab.go.id/id/, accessed 20 July 2020
[5] https://jdih.kemenkeu.go.id/, accessed 28 July 2020.

book translators only and its aim was to find more translation jobs for its members. Although there is no clear information on when and why, HPI then became inactive for several years, until 2000. This is most likely connected to the New Order regime, which placed numerous restrictions on translation. After reactivating HPI in 2000, the new leader, Benny Hoed, expanded HPI membership to include translators as well as interpreters. In addition, he subsequently focused on training to improve Indonesian translators' quality by hosting workshops on translation. However, these were located in Jakarta, which made it difficult for HPI members who did not reside in the city to access the training. To solve this problem, HPI has established some chapters outside Jakarta in 2011. With this number likely to increase, currently there are ten chapters in Indonesia in West Java, East Java, Jogjakarta-Central Java, Bali, Nusa Tenggara, Kepulauan Riau, South Kalimantan, East and North Kalimantan, North Sumatera, and South Sulawesi. Each chapter has its own leaders and can organise workshops on translations on topics relevant to the needs of regional members.

3.2.1 Indonesian Translators' Certification

HPI also introduced *Tes Sertifikasi Nasional* (TSN), or a national certification test, for translators in 2010. TSN is not the first certification for Indonesian translators: the Indonesian government used to have a test for sworn translators called UKP (Ujian Kualifikasi Penerjemah) or Indonesian Translators' Qualification Exam, organised by the Ministry of Law and the University of Indonesia, until 2010. However, sworn translator tests were specialised for legal translation and limited to Jakarta residents only, as the Governor of Jakarta would officiate their oaths in the governor's office. There is not much information available related to this test. Dewi (2017) attempted to research UKP by sending questionnaires to UKP participants and translators living outside Jakarta as well as interviewing UKP organisers. Her findings are interesting in that the participants were able to choose between legal, technical, and general texts, and whatever text they chose they would be sworn translators when they passed. However, there is no clear information on how the assessment was conducted as they were only given grades from A to C. Once the translators passed the test, they were eligible to receive their sworn translator stamps with no expiry date. This would sometimes lead to quality issues because there was no guarantee that the translators would improve or maintain their translation quality. There was also the possibility that the stamps could be misused by someone else.

This misuse issue has been raised by former HPI leader Prof. Benny Hoed: he reports that there have been cases where the stamps were still being used although the stamp holder had passed away[6]. On the other hand, the way candidates were able to select any test they wanted, as well as the way they assessed the test, shows that the quality of this test is questionable. The test has not been available since 2009, but there is no clear information on the reasons. In March 2020, the Ministry of Law and Human Rights, Ministry of Ketenagakerjaan, University of Indonesia, Padjadjaran University, University of Diponegoro, Gajah Mada University, Airlangga University, and HPI met to discuss the new UKP and draft the Standar Kompetensi Kerja Nasional Indonesia (SKKNI) for Indonesian translators. This SKKNI will be the foundation for the UKP for sworn translators and certificate translators (general texts). However, COVID-19 has impacted the process, which is currently delayed[7].

TSN has not replaced the sworn translator test as both are completely different. As it is organised by HPI, TSN is open to all HPI members regardless of their place of residence. The aim is to offer credentials to Indonesian translators in general and legal translations (the participants can choose one or both). According to the HPI official website[8], the TSN assessment is conducted using a holistic approach, giving penalties for errors and awarding points where appropriate. Errors are evaluated on their significance as minor or major by considering language accuracy, message accuracy, acceptability and readability as well as assumed knowledge and needs of target readers in both the source and target languages. Those who pass the test are certified by HPI. To maintain quality, HPI requires them to renew the certificate every five years.

3.2.2 Partnership between HPI and Indonesian universities

Despite HPI's attempts to improve translation quality in Indonesia, it has focused on professional translation, not translation education. HPI organised visits to several universities in Java with activities entitled "HPI Goes to Campus" to introduce HPI and the translation industry to university students. Unfortunately, this is not a regular activity and has some financial limitations. Based on my email correspondence with HPI's General Secretary on April 20, 2016, HPI is not ready to

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[6] http://nasional.kompas.com/read/kompetensi penerjemah dipertanyakan
[7] https://www.hpi.or.id/hpi-ikuti-rapat-konsinyering-perumusan-skkni-untuk-penerjemah
[8] http://www.hpi.or.id/tsn-2013 accessed on 10 July 2020.

become involved in translation education in universities or to provide assessment of students.

Some universities have already signed a Memorandum of Understanding with HPI, including Politeknik Negeri Padang, Universitas Islam Negeri Sunan Gunung Jati, and Politeknik Negeri Jakarta (personal email with HPI General Secretary of March 21, 2017). The collaboration aims at promoting the recognition of HPI in the academic world. On the other hand, HPI also supports universities by providing speakers if universities plan to host workshops or public lectures on translation.

3.3 Translation training in Indonesia

Translation training in Indonesia only began in 1992 when Indonesia hosted the Non-Aligned movement conference and required more than 5000 translators and interpreters, mostly with English-Indonesian language pair. That event raised awareness about the importance of the translator's role. For that reason, Fakultas Sastra Universitas Indonesia initiated a translator training program under its language centre as informal training (Machali, 2009).

The centre was later named University of Indonesia Lembaga Bahasa International (LBI), under the Translation and Interpretation Program. This centre is arguably the oldest and most reliable institution of its kind as it worked with Jakarta's official Government in holding sworn translator testing[9]. According to Dewi (2015), translation training in LBI focuses on practical topics and only provides little theory; the students do not obtain a degree because it is informal training. Moreover, she also claims that translation at LBI is considered as part of language competence, as the assessment applied is similar to the assessment used for the latter. The assessment uses a band scale from A to D. Band scale A is for excellent translation, B is for a translation that is generally good, C for quite a good translation which may often contain mistakes, and D is for a translation with many errors in message transfer that causes misunderstandings.

Atmajaya University Language Centre also offers translator training. It offers a grammar course for writers and translators, but it is not compulsory for translation students, who can just select to join a general or legal translation course. Every

[9] lbiui.ac.id, accessed July 10, 2020.

participant is required to take a placement test to put them at the right level, of which there are three in this course Like LBI UI, this course also focuses on practical competence and avoids excessive theory[10]. Both LBI UI and Atmajaya Language Centre are partners of the Indonesian government in training translators of functional officials under the cabinet secretariat of Republic of Indonesia, as they are both reputable and are located in Jakarta.

LBI UI and Atmajaya Language Centres are examples of informal translation training offered by universities apart from formal courses. There are many more universities that provide informal translation training. Some translation agencies in Indonesia also offer translation courses besides translation services such as Pemad and Hapsa et Studia. However, there is no clear information about their training programs and the assessment they use. Unfortunately, it is quite difficult to obtain the data on translation training in Indonesia as it is an informal sector – even HPI do not have these details. Therefore, there is no exact information on the numbers of informal translation training opportunities, their approach or their assessment.

3.4 Translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions

Based on Law no. 12 of 2012, Indonesian tertiary institutions are divided into academic and vocational. While academic institutions teach theoretical knowledge, vocational ones provide specific applied skills in practical learning. They can take various forms such as universities, institutes, and polytechnics. Higher education in Indonesia offers undergraduate programs (Diploma 1, Diploma 2, Diploma 3, Diploma 4/Strata 1) and postgraduate programs (Strata 2 and Strata 3). The differences between undergraduate levels lie in the duration: Diploma 1 (D1) lasts one year, D2 two years, and D3 three years. D4 and S1 offer four years of study each, but have different standards set by the ministry of education. D4, including other Diploma degrees, is offered by vocational institutions, while S1 is offered by academic institutions. Normally, diploma degrees are offered in polytechnics only. However, a few universities have special exceptions to offer D4.

Based on national guidelines, there are six fields in Indonesian higher education: Religious sciences, Humanities, Social sciences, Natural sciences, Formal

[10] https://ppb.atmajaya.ac.id/

sciences, and Applied sciences. The government regulates program nomenclature in universities and polytechnic through the Decision of the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education no. 257/M/KPT/2017. Universities must obey this nomenclature and cannot offer any program with other names than what is already listed, such as Translation. Another possible reason why translation is not common in Indonesian universities is that it is anticipated that there will be low interest from students. In this case, translation is usually offered under language programs such as English, as it is considered as part of language competence. Like for many other departments, there is no standard regulation on English language curriculum in Indonesian universities. Therefore, some English programs may offer translation, while others may not. Therefore, to find out about translation education in Indonesian universities, the most effective approach is to look at English programs. Although there are other language programs such as Japanese, English is more common and every university in Indonesia offers it.

Based on information from the Ministry of Higher Education Indonesia[11], there are 810 English departments in Indonesian universities at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The ministry's website contains information on the competencies provided by English departments as reported by the universities themselves. The original information is presented in the form of a list of universities and includes details such as an address, website, and the competencies. Unfortunately, there are many universities which do not provide their details. By accessing this information, I aimed to identify how many universities offer translation, as presented in the following chart.

[11] forlap.ristekdikti.go.id, accessed on 1 July 2020.

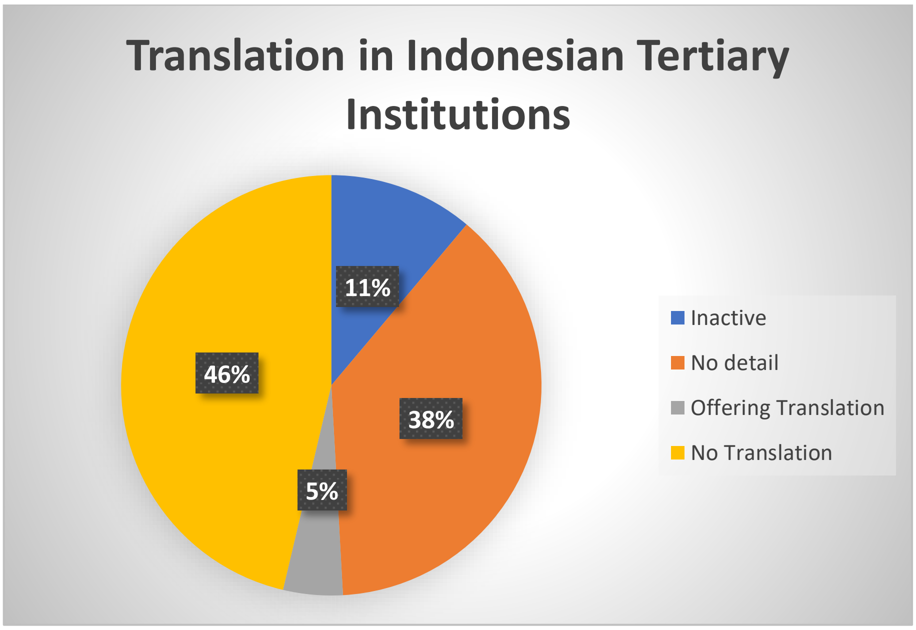

Figure 4 Indonesian tertiary translation institutions

Of the 810 English departments in Indonesian Universities, 11% are no longer active or are already closed. The reason why they no longer operate is not provided. 46% of Indonesia's universities do not offer translation, and only 5% of study programs offer it. On the other hand, not all of the programs identify translation as the main competence; for some it is additional. 38% do not provide details of the competencies offered. There is a possibility that some of these 38% might also offer translation, but it is not reported on their website. Finally, some of them do not have an official website.

To explore the differences between translation programs and English programs in Indonesian universities, I will discuss the curriculum from some universities as examples.

3.4.1 English departments

Despite its fame as a language centre offering translation training, the English department at the University of Indonesia does not offer translation courses. Based on the Buku Pedoman Akademik Sarjana (2019), Bachelor courses at UI's English department do not aim at producing translators. The university's broad mission is to produce graduates with basic scientific thinking, able to identify and analyse cultural and linguistic problems in English speaking countries. This program offers 56 units across four years. Most units are related to English competence, linguistics, and literature. There are only 2 units related to translation: *Dasar-Dasar Penerjemahan Umum* (Introduction to General Translation Studies) and *Dasar-Dasar Praktik*

Penerjemahan (Introduction to Translation Skills). The first unit is mandatory - it offers basic knowledge and theory on translation. The second unit, offering more practice in translation, is considered an elective.

The second example is the English Department of Padjajaran University, established in 1996. Translation is also considered as an additional competence. Compared to UI, Padjajaran offers more translation units. From 59 units offered in four years, six are translation units. Half of them is mandatory: Translating General Texts, Translating Specific Texts, and Translating Scientific Texts. All are offered in English-Indonesian and Indonesian-English[12]. Another three units are electives: Technology in Translation, Linguistics Aspect in Translation, and Interpreting. The three mandatory units cover basic theory and practice on translation, focusing on different text types such as general texts (general media), specific texts (literary works), and scientific (academic) texts. In the advanced units, students are introduced to the use of technology in translation and more detailed linguistic aspects of translation are offered as electives. Interpreting is also an elective unit because it is a different form of translation.

The third example is the English Department at the University of Atmajaya. This university is also famous for translation training in its language centre; however, Atmajaya's English department for bachelor's degree focuses more on language teaching[13]. This program offers 45 units over four years. Only one, introductory unit is related to translation: *Penerjemahan* (Translation). Language teaching is also the focus of the Master's Course at Atmajaya English Department. Based on information on their official website[14], this program also offers only one translation unit out of 14 available over two years.

Although those three examples might not be sufficient to be conclusive, they are typical of English departments in Indonesian universities. The curriculum focus may vary, but most universities concentrate on English linguistics and literature as well as language teaching. The focus is related to students' competence and job demand, such as English teachers. An interesting case is when the university (such as UI and Atmajaya) already has an established informal translation training in their

[12] http://english.fib.unpad.ac.id/curriculum/, accessed 25 July 2020.
[13] https://www.atmajaya.ac.id/, accessed 25 July 2020.
[14] https://www.atmajaya.ac.id/web/InfoFakultas.aspx?gid=kurikulum&cid=Magister-Linguistik-Terapan-Bahasa-Inggris, accessed 25 July 2020.

language centre; in this instance, they put less focus on translation in the formal curriculum. It seems that these universities prefer to offer translation as informal training because they have flexibility and independency in designing the curriculum and recruiting instructors. This assumption, however, needs further clarification. On the other hand, the language centre at Padjajaran University does not offer informal translation training but offers more translation units in the formal curriculum.

3.4.2 English departments with translation as the major competence

This section will discuss some translation programs offered in Indonesian universities. The first example is the English department at the Open University. It offers a four-year Bachelor's degree. This course is listed as an English department on the Ministry of Education official website[15]. The program title on the official website is 'English Department with Translation specialisation' to indicate that this course offers translation. There are 44 units available. Of these, 14 are translation: Translation 1 – Translation 10, *Analisis Teks dalam Penerjemahan* [Text analysis in translation], *Teori dan Masalah Penerjemahan* [Translation theory and problems], *Penyuntingan Teks Terjemahan* [Translation editing], and *Penerjemahan Karya Fiksi* [Literary translation]. Based on its curriculum, this program applies a linguistic approach because they begin with linguistic theories. Moreover, students learn translation theories as well as some translation practice with various genre of texts (katalog kurikulum, 2020).

Another example is Politeknik Negeri Jakarta. This vocational institution has offered a D4 Translation program since 2016. This program also uses a linguistic approach as its basis (Supriatnoko, 2016). 25 units out of 64 are related to translation, such as *Pengantar Penerjemahan* [Introduction to translation], *Penerjemahan Naskah Sosial Budaya dan Teknologi* [Sociocultural and technological text translation], and *Penerjemahan Ekonomi dan Bisnis* [Business text translation]. All translation subjects are mandatory, and students complete an internship or industry placement. They are also required to undertake a final project in translation.

Translation is also offered in postgraduate programs such as at Universitas Negeri Solo, which offers a Master's program on Linguistics Translation. As it is under the Linguistics Department, it is clear that the approach used is a linguistic

[15] https://forlap.ristekdikti.go.id/prodi/search, accessed on 10 August 2020.

approach[16]. Of the 20 units offered in this master program, eight are translation-related: *Teori Penerjemahan I* [Translation theory], *Teori Penerjemahan* II [Translation theory II], *Praktik Penerjemahan* I [Practice of translation I], *Praktik Penerjemahan* II [Practice of translation II], *Penyuntingan Teks* [Text editing], *Penerjemahan Berdasarkan Genre* [Genre-based translation], *Penerjemahan Lisan* [Interpreting], and Critical Reading on Translation.

From these examples, it is obvious that translation is mostly regarded as part of English language learning or Linguistics studies. Translation is mostly taught using a linguistic approach and the assessment will be likely to be based on linguistic equivalence. Increased employment opportunities have led more Indonesian universities to include translation in their formal curriculum. Currently, most translation programs in Indonesia are offered by vocational institutions which focus on practical English skills. In addition, Master programs are also likely to have translation courses because the educational purpose at this level is to offer more specific knowledge and skills. However, there are no national guidelines on how to teach translation in universities. Therefore, it can be argued that translation training and education is still in its infancy in Indonesia.

3.4.3 English department vs translation programs in Indonesia

As set by Indonesian Higher Education nomenclature regulations, Indonesian tertiary institutions currently cannot open an independent translation program. Therefore, translation is offered as part of English programs. To differentiate themselves from other English departments, some translation programs in Indonesia include the word Translation in their course titles, but can do so only on their website. Although there is a difference between translation and English programs, they both need to follow certain regulations in curriculum design, such as including mandatory units such as Religion, and adhere to the maximum workload or credit

[16] pasca.uns.ac.id, accessed 15 July 2020.

points they can offer. The following chart shows the differences between Translation programs and English programs in Indonesian universities.

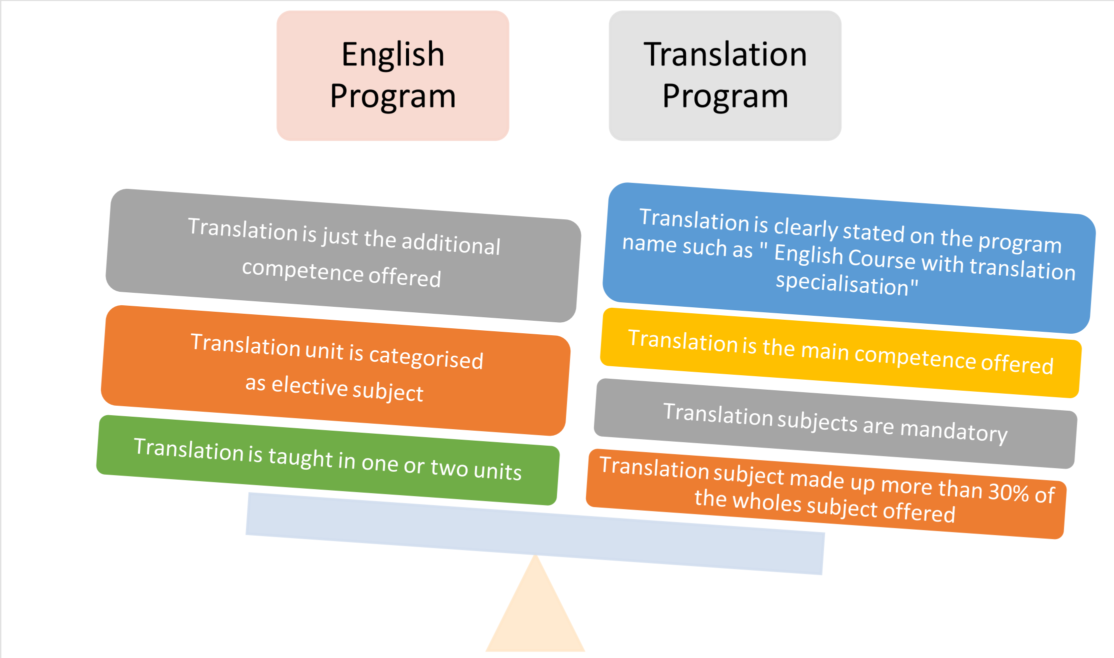

Figure 5 Difference between English and Translation programs in Indonesian universities

As there are no guidelines for English departments in Indonesia, they may have different areas of focus such as teaching, language, and translation; however, since translation is still part of language teaching, it is mostly taught in English departments. However, for those focusing on translation as a major competence, translation is provided as mandatory units that usually take up more than 30% of the total units offered. On the other hand, other English departments just provide translation as an additional competence (elective subject). Essentially, English departments and translation are closely related, but translation programs are offered as English with a translation specialisation (peminatan penerjemahan).

3.5 Translation at Politeknik Negeri Padang

This study investigates translation education provided by English Department Politeknik Negeri Padang, a vocational higher institution located in Padang, West Sumatera, Indonesia. It was established based on the Directorate General of Higher Education Letter of Decision no. 971/D/T/2009 of 18 June 2009. The institution trains students in practical competencies. Currently, there are no standard guidelines for teaching at the polytechnic level in Indonesia in relation to the curriculum and competencies offered. For example, the English department of Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya focuses on language needs related to event management and other management fields, while Politeknik Negeri Bandung focuses on business English. The competencies covered by each of these programs overlap with business administration training at each institution.

The English Department of Politeknik Negeri Padang has identified translation as one of its main competences due to increased translation demand in Indonesia. It is now one of only a few colleges that teaches translation in Indonesia. The program is conducted over six semesters, or three years, and is characterized as a Diploma III program. Students graduate with a Diploma in English. The teaching staffs are mostly graduates from English language or English Language Education; only a few of them have a translation background. Students are provided with two computer laboratories, especially for translation classes, where they have internet access.

3.5.1 Curriculum at Politeknik Negeri Padang

Compared to universities, the curriculum in polytechnics is unique in that it does not provide elective units: all are compulsory for students. PNP students are required to pass all subjects as it is in a predetermined set of units. As a vocational institution, it offers 40% theoretical knowledge and 60% practical skills. If students fail in one subject, they will need to retake all subjects in that semester (Buku Kurikulum PNP, 2018). The curriculum is designed based on the Ministry of Education Regulation No. 49 of 2014, Ministry of Education Regulation No. 232/U/2000, as well as *Kerangka Kurikulum Nasional Indonesia* (Indonesian National Curriculum Framework). Universities have the right to design their curriculum to reflect local demand as well as to set their own identity. However, they also must abide by the regulations; for example, some units are mandatory in every university, such as *Pancasila* and Religion.

The result of the needs analysis conducted by PNP's English Department PNP shows that local job opportunities are mostly in local media (radio, TV, and newspapers) and institutions. Translating is one of the potential job descriptions given to English department graduates; therefore, it was decided that it would be a main competence alongside English for Broadcasting because they complement each other. The following table shows the curriculum provided from semester 1 until semester 6, which will be discussed in detail.

		Credit Points		Hours	
SEMESTER	**Unit**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**
I	1 Pancasila (Five Pillar)	2	0	2	0
	2 Kewarganegaraan (Citizenship)	2	0	2	0
	3 Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian)	2	0	2	0
	4 Grammar 1	1	1	1	2
	5 Listening 1	1	1	1	2
	6 Reading 1	1	1	1	2
	7 Writing 1	1	1	1	2
	8 Computer Application 1	1	1	1	2
	9 Speaking 1	1	1	1	2
	Total credit/hours	12	6	12	12
	Total credit/hours	18		24	
II	1 Japanese	2	0	2	0
	2 Islamic studies	2	0	2	0
	3 Grammar 2	1	1	1	2
	4 Listening 2	1	1	1	2
	5 Reading 2	1	1	1	2
	6 Writing 2	1	1	1	2
	7 Introduction to Translation	1	1	1	2
	8 Computer Application 2	1	1	1	2
	9 Speaking 2	1	1	1	2
	Total credit/hours	11	7	11	14
	Total credit/hours	18		25	
	1 Reading 3	1	1	1	2

		Credit Points		Hours	
SEMESTER	**Unit**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**
III	2 Entrepreneurship	1	1	1	2
	3 Practice of Translation 1	1	2	1	3
	4 Public Speaking 1	1	2	1	3
	5 Communication Skills 1	1	1	1	2
	6 Technical Writing	1	2	1	3
	7 MICE	1	1	1	2
	8 Introduction to Media Communication (TV, Radio, Newspaper)	1	1	1	2
	9 Multimedia in Use	1	1	1	2
	Total credit/hours	9	12	9	21
	Total credit/hours	21		30	
IV	1 Practice of Translation 2	0	3	0	4
	2 Public Speaking 2	0	3	0	4
	3 Interpreter Skill 1 (New)	1	1	1	2
	4 Professional Etiquette	1	1	1	1
	5 Writing for Media	1	2	1	3
	6 Communication Skill 2 (New)	1	1	1	2
	7 TV Broadcasting	1	1	1	2
	8 Radio Broadcasting	1	1	1	2
	9 Discourse for Media	1	1	1	2

		Credit Points		Hours	
SEMESTER	**Unit**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**	**Theoretical knowledge**	**Practical session**
	Communication (New)				
	Total credit/hours	7	14	7	22
	Total credit/hours	21		29	
V	1 Interpreter Skill 2 (New)	1	1	1	2
	2 Workshop on TV Broadcasting	0	3	0	4
	3 Workshop on Radio Broadcasting	0	3	0	4
	4 Workshop on CAT Tool	0	3	0	4
	5 Workshop on Subtitling	0	3	0	4
	6 Report Writing	1	1	1	2
	7 Writing for Digital Media	1	2	1	3
	JUMLAH SKS & JAM	3	16	3	23
	Total credit/hours	19		26	
VI	1 Internship	0	4	0	4
	2 Final Project/TA	0	6	0	6
	3 Professional English	1	2	1	3
	JUMLAH SKS & JAM	1	12	1	13
	Total credit/hours	13		14	
Total credit/hours		110		148	

Table 1 Politeknik Negeri Padang translation curriculum

As a Diploma III course, the English department offers a three-year study program. The academic calendar is organised in semesters, and each unit runs over

18 sessions. There are 46 units in total offered over the three years. All units are mandatory for the students. The teaching of theory reflects the academic orientation of the program. Each unit has different credit points to reflect its workload and duration. The credit points also determine the level of difficulty or necessity of specific units. Practice of Translation, for example, has 3 credit points and 4 hours per session because it is a core unit in this program, while Citizenship only attracts 2 credit points and 2 hours per session because it is not considered as a core unit.

As the aim is to train student translators, the curriculum design attempts to accommodate a range of skills and competencies required in translation. The figure below represents how these units and skills are connected to each other in the curriculum.

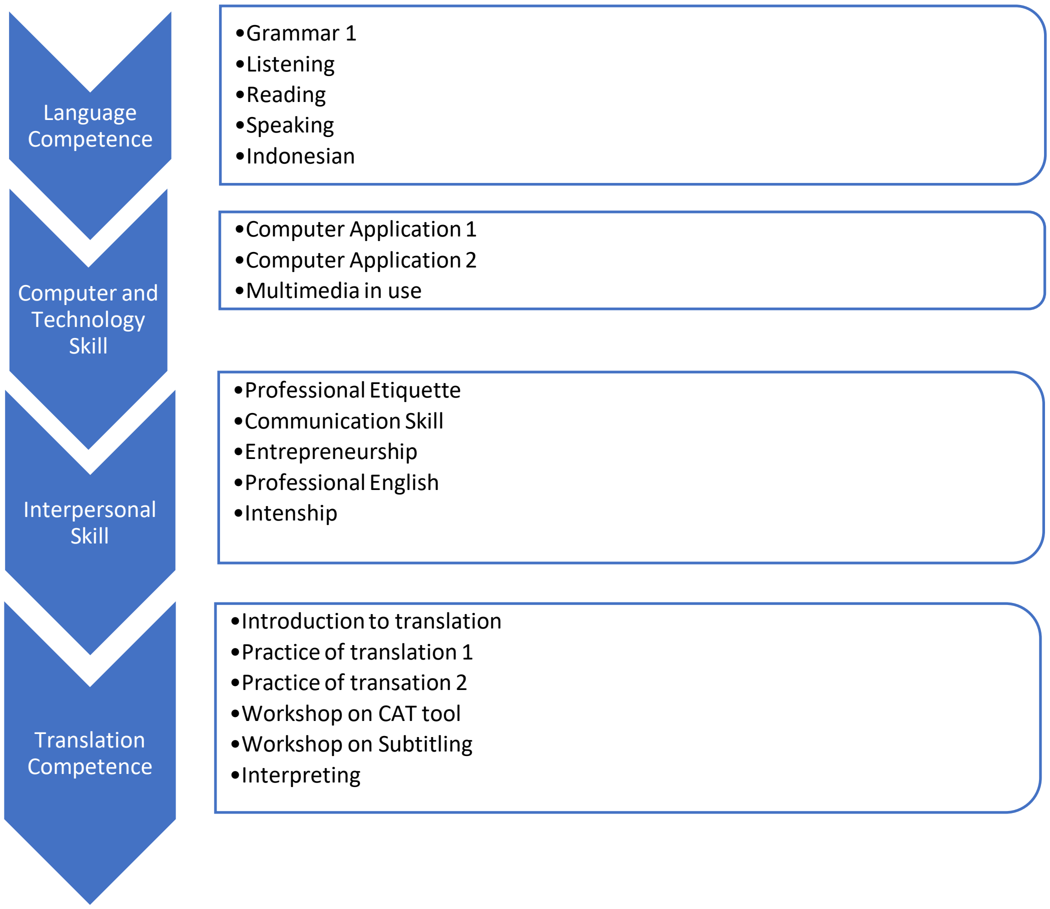

Figure 6 Units and competences in the PNP English department

The above figure represents the competences student translators develop at PNP, based on four competencies and skills: Language Competence, Computer and Technology Competence, Interpersonal Skills, and Translation Skills.

3.5.1.1 Language competence

To enrol into this program, students must pass a national entrance test. Although English is one of the subjects tested on that exam, students are not accepted solely on their English proficiency: although they are likely to have learned English in high school, there is no guarantee that their skills will be adequate because English is considered a foreign language. For this reason, the first semester of the program focuses on basic English units such as Grammar 1, Speaking 1, and Listening 1, and language units are still available until Semester 5 at advanced levels. In other words, units related to language competencies are given more space in the curriculum because language competence plays an important role here. Furthermore, the language competence required for translation is not only linguistic, but also textual.

3.5.1.1.1 Indonesian unit

This unit is mandated by the Ministry of Education; all universities must include it in in their curriculum. In this unit, students learn formal Indonesian language as well as grammar concepts such as phrases and sentences. Despite its status as the national language, students are less likely to be familiar with formal Indonesian because they tend to use casual and/or local language in everyday contexts and social interactions. In translation courses, this unit is important because the language pairs are English into Indonesian and vice versa.

3.5.1.1.2 Grammar units

Figure 7 Grammar units

Grammar is one of the basic skills needed in English. English and Indonesian have different grammar systems, and most Indonesian students find the English one complicated. This unit consists of two sequences: Grammar 1 and Grammar 2. Grammar 1 focuses on refreshing students' knowledge of basic grammatical constructions such as phrases and simple sentences, while Grammar 2 focuses on more complex structures such as the use of adjectival clauses, noun clauses, adverbial and conditional sentences. Learning grammar is necessary for student translators as grammatical errors can distort meaning.

3.5.1.1.3 Speaking and Listening units

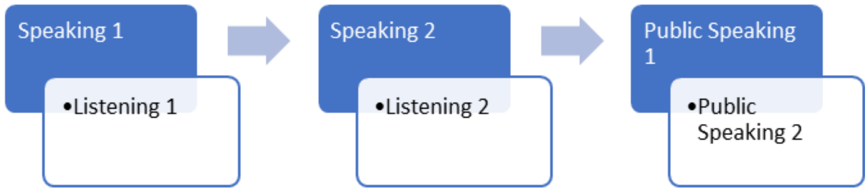

Figure 8 Speaking and Listening units

Speaking and listening skills are closely related. Speaking 1 introduces daily expressions used in English. Listening 1 is designed to help improve students' basic listening skills in daily conversations. In Speaking 2, they practice some casual conversations related to daily life topics in Speaking 2. Meanwhile, Listening 2 provides more listening practice including common expressions in English. In Public Speaking 1 and 2 students practice presentations to increase their self-confidence. They practice how to deliver a message and address questions. These units are useful for learning interpreting skills.

3.5.1.1.4 Reading units

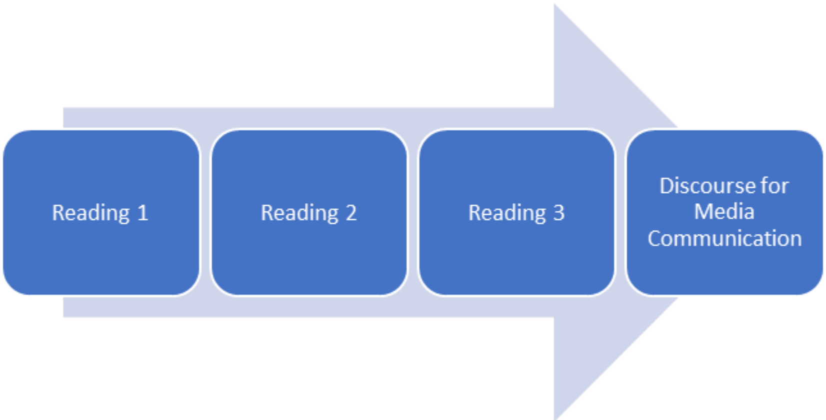

Figure 9 Reading units

Reading skills are critical in a translation course because comprehension is key for translating a text. Reading 1 helps improve students' English comprehension and builds on their vocabulary. Reading 2 helps shape students' critical thinking while reading. This includes vocabulary enhancement, understanding implied meanings, and identifying the purpose, tone and style of texts. Reading 3 is designed to introduce students to various genres of texts. Finally, Discourse for Media Communication also covers various texts, especially those related to the translation and broadcasting industries.

3.5.1.1.5 Writing units

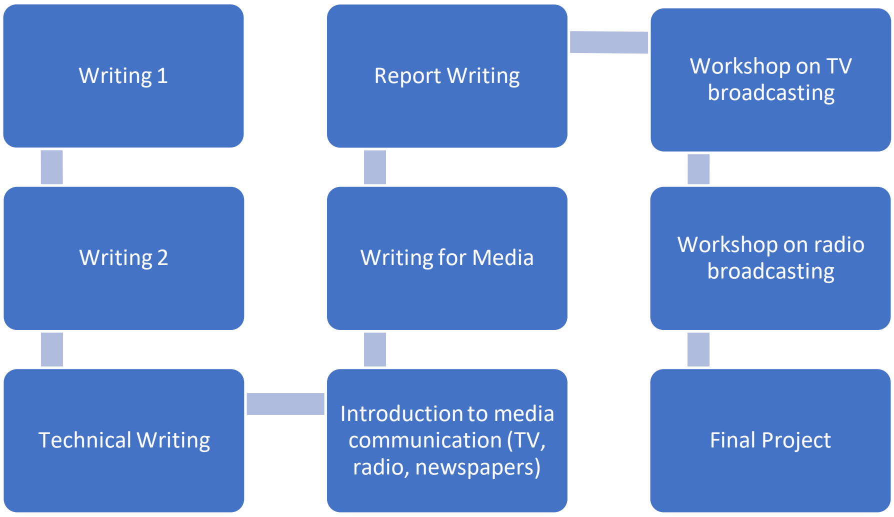

Figure 10 Writing units

Writing is the practical application of what students have learned. This unit is important as it helps student translators in reformulating the message in translation. In Writing 1, students learn how to write a paragraph, sentence patterns, comparison and contrast paragraphs, and punctuation; they practice writing introductory, body, and concluding paragraphs; and have the opportunity to write narratives, cause-effect, and comparative and contrastive essays. Technical Writing introduces students to formal letters such as recommendation letters, resume/CVs, and application letters. Introduction to Media Communication introduces types of media communication such as tv, radio, and newspaper, while Writing for Media teaches how to create content for print or online media. This unit encourages students to publish their work at the end of the sessions. Students are given the opportunity to explore news, opinions, and advertisement texts. Report Writing gives students guidelines on how to write up their final project and present a proposal for it. Workshop on TV Broadcasting aims to introduce how to produce various types of television programs and steps in production. Workshop on Radio Broadcasting introduces how to design programs and do radio journalism. Under the Ministry of Education regulations, a project is required to graduate from polytechnic education. Therefore, during the final semester, students take no academic units but work on a final project which consists of translating a 3000-word text from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English, accompanied by a justification of practice based on relevant theory.

3.5.1.2 Computer and technology competence

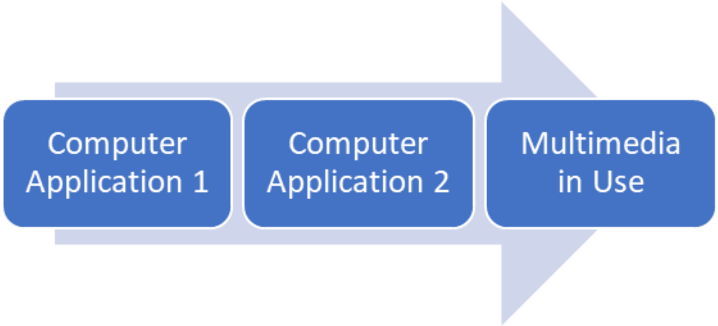

Figure 11 Computer and Technology units

Technology skills are supporting skills a student translator should have as a requirement for the job market. Computer Application 1 is designed to improve students' knowledge of the use of computer applications such as Microsoft Word and how to increase typing speed. In Computer Application 2 students learn how to use other features of Microsoft Office, such as Powerpoint and Excel, as well as other computer applications.

3.5.1.3 Interpersonal skills

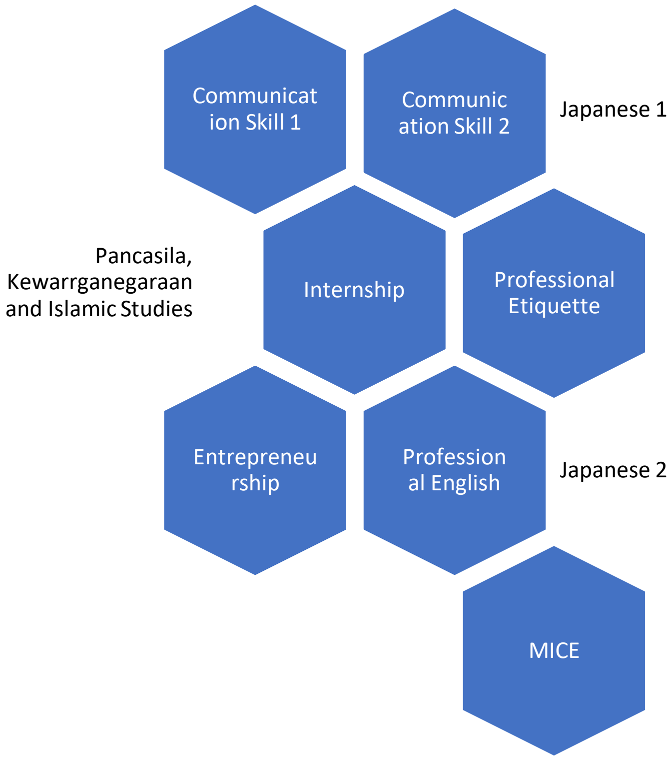

Figure 12 Interpersonal Skills units

This group of units is offered to develop personal skills to support students in their profession. *Pancasila*, *Kewarganegaraan* and Islamic studies are designed to help students build their integrity. Japanese 1 introduces basic Japanese language concepts such as hiragana and katakana, while students learn how to construct a simple sentence in Japanese 2. They also learn how to communicate in a working environment through Professional English, Communication Skills 1 and 2, and Professional Etiquette units. Entrepreneurship offers some insight on how to be an entrepreneur as it is expected that the students will be able to set up their own business. In their last semester, the students also undertake an internship in the business sector, which may be at a translation agency. Internships give them experience in how a real working environment looks like.

3.5.1.4 Translation units

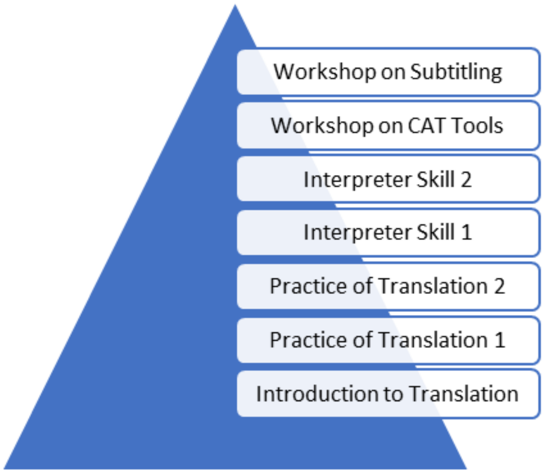

Figure 13 Translation units

Translation as a subject is introduced in Semester 2 through the Introduction to Translation unit, which covers the theoretical background of translation.

3.5.1.4.1 Introduction to translation

The first subject is Introduction to Translation, which aims to provide an overview of the field. It is a critical unit as students usually have little idea what translation is at this stage. It is important for them to know that translating does not only involve replacing the source language with the target language, as Google Translate does. This course starts by introducing the definition of translation and how it differs from adaptation because translators are bound to the source text when reformulating the message in target language. As the focus of translation in PNP is linguistic, students discuss language functions such as informative, assertive, and persuasive purposes. They learn to discern a text's function and type based on the language used, then employ this knowledge of text types for source text analysis, as well as to understand the translation process – from understanding the source text, to transferring the message, and formulating target text. In this course, the students are introduced to two approaches: foreignization and domestication. They learn that some texts need to maintain certain foreign aspects, while others need to be adjusted more heavily to the cultural and linguistic norms of the target language. For example, they will learn that readers need to be able to feel the original setting of translated literary works. On the other hand, foreign nuances can make a translation awkward. Moreover, they learn some of the methods that can be employed in translation, such as Newmark's transposition, naturalization, and calque. This unit runs over18 sessions of 3 hours each. In this unit, students do not translate texts: they perform source text analysis and study samples of translations to see how translators apply the procedure and the methods. The assessment is conducted by giving essay questions and by asking students to analyse translation products to identify the language concepts and the methods used.

3.5.1.4.2 Practice of Translation 1

As the name suggests, this unit goes beyond theory. The only theory discussed is equivalence: students learn they must achieve equivalence as the key criterion to determine whether a translation is successful or not. Students practice translating various texts from newspapers and magazines with topics ranging from health, psychology, and entertainment, as well as tourism and products and services brochures. They also practice literary translation on excerpts from short stories, novels, and comics, as well as academic journals, and are introduced to movie translation. This unit is delivered across 18 four-hour sessions over one semester. The assessment is subjective and depends on the teacher's point of view, as there are no specific criteria to follow.

3.5.1.4.3 Practice of Translation 2

This unit is an advanced version of Practice of Translation 1. It is a practical unit without theory, delivered across 18 four-hour sessions over one semester. Students perform the translation but also learn editing. They learn to review their own translation through self-review or peer review. Whilst reviewing, they practice putting themselves in the shoes of the target reader to identify whether any revisions are needed. They also learn that translation is a repeat process, where they need to go back to the source text to ensure all messages are well expressed. This unit does not state what kinds of text they are asked to translate. Moreover, the assessment is based on the teacher's opinion. The feedback is mostly given as general comments addressing the most noticeable issues in students' translations.

3.5.1.4.4 Interpreting skills 1 and 2

Although both interpreting and translation essentially involve transferring a message from one language to another, they have different theories and require different skills. It is important to introduce them as they are sometimes required in the workplace. Interpreting Skills 1 is an introduction to the work of interpreting. Students will observe the difference between translators and interpreters as well as the qualifications needed as an interpreter. Besides that, students learn what happens during consecutive interpreting. Interpreting Skills 2 introduces simultaneous interpreting and how to conduct active listening while taking notes and doing analysis.

3.5.1.4.5 Workshop on Computer-Assisted Translation tools

This practical session is delivered across 18 four-hour sessions. The students practice using Wordfast, a computer-assisted translation (CAT) tool. This unit aims at preparing student translators if they meet a client who requires CAT skills. Wordfast is selected as the features are quite simple. The first thing the students learn is that CAT and machine translation software such as Google Translate are different; while in the latter a machine does the translation, CAT tools help with terminology management using a database, and translators do the translation. In the end, they will have stored numerous terms in their database, which will help them with term consistency. In the meantime, students also learn how to use a search engine such as Google in finding appropriate resources when translating, such as online dictionaries and glossaries. Therefore, the focus in this course is non-literary texts, such as academic or business documents. The students use Wordfast while working in MS Word, Excel, and Powerpoint. However, the assessment is not on how well they use the tool, but on the quality of the translation, although there are no specific criteria given for its evaluation.

3.5.1.4.6 Workshop on subtitling

This unit also introduces the use of Aegisub to student translators. It is not a translation-aided tool, but it helps students to create subtitles. The focus is video translation. The videos are taken from YouTube and may vary from documentary to non-documentary, and are limited to a maximum of three minutes. The unit starts by introducing Aegisub and how to install it. At the beginning of the course, the students practice video transcription. In this phase, their listening skills play an important role because they need to listen to the video to be able to complete the transcription, which can be challenging when native speakers speak at a natural speed. After that the students will translate the transcript, ensuring the translation fits the time slot of the video.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter provided important background on how translation began in Indonesia. It also offered an explanation of the official association of Indonesian translators as well as its position towards translation education in Indonesia. As translation training outside of academic institutions is also present in the country, the chapter also touched on this aspect, though there is little information about this. Moreover, this chapter provides an overview of translation education in several Indonesian higher education institutions, as a useful reference for analysis later in the thesis. Importantly, this chapter outlines details of the translation program at PNP. As the focus of this case study, I will return to the PNP curriculum in subsequent analysis of the data. In addition, views of other institutions will also feed into discussion of the broader context of translation education in Indonesia.

Based on the guidelines from the Ministry of Education, the polytechnic curriculum must be 40% theory and 60% practice. The Introduction to Translation unit provides students with some materials and theoretical knowledge, while, the rest of the units focus more on practice. However, there are no guidelines for selecting texts for translation exercises, such as length of paragraphs or resources to be used; teachers decide what text is given. The syllabus also does not provide any specific regulations on assessing translation, nor is there a single standard on how to conduct it. The only criterion set is that the two texts should be equivalent, which makes it subjective because each teacher has different opinions on what that means. The students only receive a final score, but there is no specific rubric to refer to, nor any explanation for their translation result. This is a problem as we cannot measure their translation competence, as the assessment is not clear. Having a specific rubric to follow when conducting the assessment would be very helpful in identifying any competence issues; for example, a mistranslation criterion can help identify particular problems with language competence.

In the past, PNP requested HPI to conduct competence testing for PNP students as the association is experienced in handling such testing, and their certification would be useful when applying for jobs. However, HPI has not been able to do it because the certification testing is only designed for professional translators. For this reason, PNP uses a private translation agency to certify and evaluate students’ competences. The criteria used are not clear, and this type of certification does not provide a complete description of students’ competence because only a score is provided without further explanation.

This study will address this issue by conducting an error analysis on students’ translation work to examine their competence. This study will observe whether the competences they have acquired help them produce a good translation or if they make errors. As for the latter, this study is going to identify them and any aspect from students’ competence or the curriculum that may contribute to them, and propose solutions on how to respond to these errors. Finally, a detailed discussion on error analysis will be presented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4
Error Analysis

This chapter is crucial for this thesis as it focuses on error analysis in the context of translation education. I will begin with a consideration of error analysis from a language teaching perspective, as a foundation for further discussion. The discussion starts from the notion of errors and mistakes, as these terms are usually viewed as two different things in the field of language teaching. Furthermore, I will discuss how error analysis is developed and applied in context of language teaching. While error analysis is commonly used in the field of language teaching, or as it is often referred to, as second language acquisition (SLA), it can also be useful in translation quality assessment particularly in education context. For the purposes of this study, I will discuss the role of error analysis in translation itself. To make it clear, I will also elaborate on error typologies used for translators in several countries, which will be used as the groundwork of the error typology used in this research.

4.1 Errors and mistakes

Errors and mistakes are two common terms discussed in language teaching. Although those terms can be used interchangeably, some scholars, such as Corder (1982), distinguish between them claiming that errors systematically happen due to learners' competence problems, while mistakes are just a matter of performance caused by slips of the tongue. He believes that learners can correct the mistake themselves. He gives an example of a speaker making a mistake while speaking, but in this instance, he/she can correct it right away. In the case of a written mistake, the speaker would only be able to spot his or her mistake after reading his text again. For this reason, Corder (1975) considers it normal for learners to make mistakes. On the contrary, an error is considered a problem since it shows students' incompetence and, therefore, it needs to be addressed.

Based on Corder's claim, teachers are required to be able to distinguish students' errors from mistakes before conducting error analysis. Although his distinction is understandable, it can be problematic for teachers to do so. There is the possibility that the speaker might forget to correct their mistake when speaking; on the other hand, they might simply realise the mistake afterwards but decide not to correct it. Also, in the case of a written mistake, they might still miss it when rereading their writing despite having a good level of competence. In all these cases, these kinds of mistakes would still be labelled as errors, therefore requiring further investigation to apply a proper label. This is not practical in language teaching as it can be time-consuming.

For these reasons, this distinction is rejected by Ellis (2015). He argues that distinguishing errors from mistakes is not necessary as both of them affect students' performance. It is usually the case that the student's performance is the first aspect used to observe their development, as a quick evaluation is needed. Errors and mistakes are considered the same in translation assessment, especially when evaluating a translation product. It is important to note that while the language teaching field deals with students' speaking and writing, translation only deals with the written product. Target readers or reviewers would not have the opportunity to do further investigation to ascertain whether the incorrect section(s) of text are errors or mistakes. Moreover, reviewers would feel reluctant to do so as they probably believe that the translation has gone through an editing phase, where translators have a chance to review and correct their mistakes. Most importantly, both errors and mistakes will have a direct impact on the translation result. Hence, this study will treat them as equal when conducting error analysis.

4.2 Errors and FL teaching

Errors in second and foreign language teaching have been a major area of concern. Errors are usually considered negatively because they tend to be associated with a lack of competence and a deviation from standard norms. Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 184) define errors

> in the speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner [as] the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.

Richards and Schmidt refer to formal English spoken in academic settings. In that case, Second Language or Foreign Language learners are introduced to and required to follow strict lexical and grammatical standards, and rule deviations may be considered as errors. To illustrate, Indonesian students are not familiar with the change of verb tense in English to mark present or past, because Indonesian grammatical rules only use adverbs of time. Consequently, it is an obvious deviation when Indonesian students say, “I meet my friends yesterday”. While the example shows an obvious error, there are many cases where errors are not obvious and subjective based on the native speakers’ judgments. For example, native speakers may have different opinions when dealing with lexical choices such as the use of modal verbs “can”, “must”, or “have to” to show the level of certainty, which depends on the context and the way native speakers understand it. Moreover, not all native speakers have the same knowledge of formal English, since some of them are used to speaking informal English. Language variability is also a complicating factor, such as the debate about what constitutes international ‘standard’ English (whether British, Australian, American or even second language varieties of English such as Singaporean English). However, the notion of standard English is only related to written language, such as grammar, but not to pronunciation or accents (Trudgill & Hannah, 2017). The differences among those English language standards might be not too crucial, but it can influence native speakers’ evaluation of learners’ English. Despite the various standards available, it is not clear which standard is being used when teaching English to second/foreign language learners in a specific country, such as in Indonesia. Hence, it may be problematic to select which native speakers should judge this ‘standard’.

Furthermore, an interesting counter argument has been made by James (2013) in response to Richards and Schmidt’s claim that ‘incomplete learning’ is exclusive to non-native speakers. By way of contrast, James states that incomplete learning can also happen to native speakers. Based on his experience, not all native speakers use standard English, as some of them might only acquire English in informal settings. With this in mind, James (2013) does not define errors based on native speakers’ opinions, but based on the target language or whichever one is being learned. In the case of English as the target language, he views errors as the gap between the students’ interlanguage and English.

The notion of interlanguage is introduced by Selinker (1972), who defines it as a system that learners construct when they attempt to produce the target language. Tarone (2014) explains that this theory of interlanguage evolved from 1968-1969. During this time, scholars realised that the second language acquisition process no longer involves two language systems only, but three: native and target language, and interlanguage. Initially, scholars believed that second language acquisition involved two language systems, whereby Lado's contrastive analysis is claimed to be able to predict all learners' errors by comparing them (Tarone, 2014). However, Selinker's research, which aimed at testing Lado's contrastive analysis, demonstrates that there are a lot of errors that cannot be predicted by the latter. In response to this observation, Selinker further introduces the concept of interlanguage into foreign language teaching.

Overall, we can say that even though FL learners have the same first language, each learner will construct a different interlanguage. The way they view the target language system is influenced by many different factors such as their environment and knowledge. Thus, the gap or the errors produced will also vary among learners with the same first language. Therefore, contrastive analysis (CA) comparing first and target language is no longer an adequate way to explain learning difficulties. In that case, no matter who the learners are, CA will show that the errors produced will be the same, as long as their first languages are the same. Although CA is useful for predicting possible errors for learners, it provides limited information, which is too general to be used to improve language teaching. CA does not provide information on personal language difficulties. For this reason, FL teaching switched to the use of error analysis (EA) as this latter approach is capable of dealing with interlanguage, since it focuses on the specific, actual errors made by individual students rather than on a theorised concept of errors. Although it may not be exactly the same, translation education provided for non-native speakers of a language also potentially involves a native language, a target language and interlanguage. Furthermore, interlanguage also plays an important role in the translation process, especially during training, where students are still learning the foreign language. Hence, error analysis would be applicable in translation studies in a similar way as error analysis in language teaching.

4.3 Error analysis in language teaching

As Corder (1967, 1975, 1982) argues, learners' errors are significant in the development of their language learning; therefore, he considers their study important, which is called Error Analysis (EA). According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), EA has a very long history beginning in the 18th century, when prescriptive grammarians at that time studied poor use of English in a book titled *Fowler's The King's English* (1906). A number of foreign language teaching reference books in various languages related to common errors in English, have been published since 1936 (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). It seems that the basis of error analysis started from a grammatical perspective. The publication of error books shows that EA was perceived as crucial in language teaching.

Despite its significance, EA played a supporting role to CA. It is explained by Candlin (1973, p. ix) that EA initially served as "an important source of corroboration to contrastive analysis in their claims for the predictability of error". Moreover, there was a need to assess students' learning levels and how they matched the syllabus. Teachers were not satisfied with CA's linguistic contribution to language learning. They considered that it had failed to predict the errors because errors varied in nature according to individual learners, while CA only predicts the most common errors based on the comparison between first and second language.

By contrast, Corder (1975) believes that while learners may experience some interference from their first language while learning a second one, they will form their own second language system, known as interlanguage. Similarly, Montrul (2014) explains that interlanguage is systematically built during the learning process and can be traced to students' first or second language. For example, after learning that most English verbs need the affix -ed to make it past tense, Indonesian students will typically apply it to any verb, which in some instances is considered an error. However, it does not mean that all students from the same language background will make the same errors: students tend to use second language in various ways based on their personal understanding.

As CA was under criticism, Corder proposed error analysis in the 1960s, which later gained popularity until the 1970s (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Then, a critique emerged that error analysis focuses on the negative development in students' learning, and instead of only focusing on the errors, it is necessary to investigate the learners' language system completely (Richards & Sampson, 1973). In this case, Richards and Simpsons (1974) suggest focusing on the positives as well, on the areas where students do well, and building on that. This would help teachers redesign the syllabus not only based on errors. Though they believe that error analysis is still useful to assess students' progress, they believe there are more variables involved in students' performance for improvement. Coincidentally, the focus on second language research has changed from correcting errors. Recognising this, Selinker (2014) claims that learners will not be able to acquire a second language perfectly as there will always be deviations from the target language. He redefines interlanguage as “non-native languages which are created and spoken whenever there is language contact” (Selinker, 2014, p. 223). Therefore, the focus in SL study now is not on deviation or errors as found in interlanguage; SL scholars are more interested at investigating the complex and highly systematic process of interlanguage formation. As a consequence, error analysis has become less popular in SL and FL acquisition.

Nevertheless, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, p. 70) claim that “the study of learner error remains of practical significance to language pedagogy” because it is needed for assessment. In this case, obtaining a complete picture of learners’ language is not simple and is time-consuming, as too many variables need to be addressed. In a similar way, James (2013) believes that EA could never be abandoned because it provides data and significant information in language teaching and research. EA can inform language teachers on what teaching areas need to be improved. In addition, EA can help researchers of language teaching areas to evaluate how well learning is progressing (Corder, 1972). The most important thing is that EA deals with accuracy (Ellis, 2015), which is very useful in assessment. Ultimately, EA is significant in this research as this study aims to assess students’ translation at Politeknik Negeri Padang. Though EA is not conceptually popular nowadays, it is still relevant in current language research. In this case, there is still a large number of recent studies using error analysis in several areas of applied linguistic research such as foreign language teaching and translation, as compiled in Spillner’s book *Error analysis in the world* (2017). Spillner also shows that EA is expanding to other language areas such as translation, which is the focus of this thesis.

4.4 The process of error analysis

To understand how educators or researchers use error analysis in doing assessment, it is useful to consider the following diagram by James (2013, p. 3)

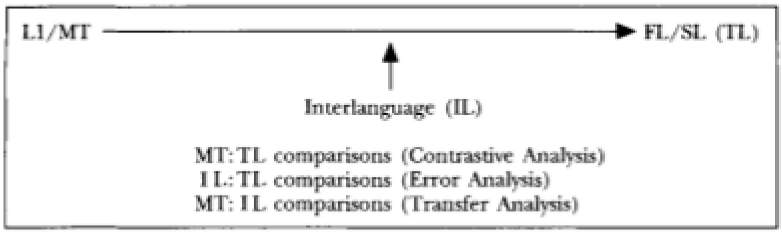

Figure 14 James' description of error analysis

As mentioned, error analysis involves three language systems:

1. L1/MT refers to learners' first language and mother tongue;

2. FL/SL refers to learners' foreign or second language, called target language (TL) or language being learned;

3. IL refers to Interlanguage.

The diagram shows that interlanguage's position is between MT and TL as it is considered a linguistic space between the mother tongue and the target language (Selinker, 2014). In other words, learners attempt to produce the target language, but there is still a deviation from it. The deviation reflects the gap between learners' interlanguage and the target. Though he claims that 95% of learners are unsuccessful in fully acquiring a second language like a native speaker, Selinker (2014) mentions it is important to note the gap in order to see the development of learners' interlanguage. The gap manifests as errors, which represent the deviation from the target language. As learners try to reach target language competence, they try to minimise this gap. Every learner has a gap of differing magnitude depending on the nature of the interlanguage he or she demonstrates, where the wider the gap, the more errors they produce.

Error analysis in this study is conducted by comparing students' interlanguage and the target language. In Figure 14, James (2013) shows how EA differs from contrastive analysis (CA) and transfer analysis (TA). Contrastive analysis (CA) is conducted by comparing the first language to the target in order to observe the differences between them that might lead to errors. On the other hand, TA compares interlanguage to the first language to observe if there is any interference from the latter into the former. Both CA and TA have some role in tracking the source of the errors, as will be discussed in the following section.

Some scholars like Corder (1982), Richards and Schmidt (2010), James (2013), and Spillner (2017) have attempted to formulate steps of error analysis. The systems proposed, with some variation, are as follows:

4.4.1 Identifying errors

Learners might produce numerous errors in their work. Therefore, it is important to do a screening based on the learners' capacity or limitations to find possible errors that might occur. In this case, James (2013) suggests using CA as the first step of screening. This step also involving locating and detecting errors.

4.4.2 Describing errors

The errors then can be described based on the medium (spoken or written), level (substance, text, discourse), and modality (receptive or productive). In translation, the error can be both receptive and productive, caused by misunderstanding the source text and failing to produce an acceptable target text. Furthermore, errors can be classified as either lexical or grammatical in nature.

4.4.3 Finding the cause of errors

This step is diagnosing the error. According to Richards and Schmidt (2010), first language and target language can be the cause of errors, which they call interlingual and intralingual, respectively. It is impossible not to consider the first language as it plays a crucial role in someone's second language acquisition (Ellis, 2015). In this step, James (2013) suggests doing transfer analysis by comparing the first language to the interlanguage.

4.4.4 Error evaluation

One of the purposes of EA is that it should guide effective error correction (James, 2013). Furthermore, Spillner (2017) emphasises that the step above is the basis for the assessment or the assessment of the error's impact, and develops a strategy to remedy the error itself.

As already mentioned, initially EA was used to support CA. However, the explanation above shows that currently CA and TA are both conducted to support EA. The aim of error analysis is to find students' errors, their causes, and to use them to evaluate the language teaching area. In this way, error analysis is aimed at minimising the gap or deviation from the target language.

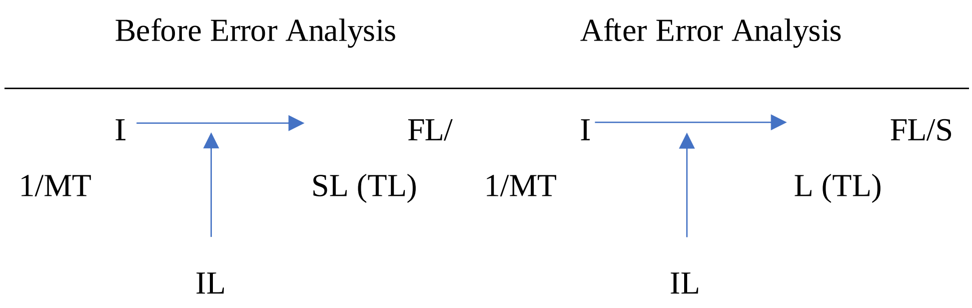

Figure 15 The dynamics of error analysis

The model above attempts to illustrate the process of conducting error analysis. Before doing error analysis, learners are likely to have quite a large gap between their interlanguage and target language, which means that they produce numerous errors. In other words, the learners lack proficiency. To improve their competence, teachers need to conduct an assessment by using error analysis, which helps them identify, find the causes of, and evaluate the errors. Moreover, information obtained from error analysis will help teachers take remedial actions. It is expected that students' interlanguage is well developed with the language training and that this will enable students to move closer to the target language until they acquire a native speaker's proficiency.

As this study focuses on analysing the development of student translators' learning development through their translation work, error analysis is ultimately significant for this study. As stated by Corder (1982), error analysis has two functions: to investigate the students' learning, and to provide guidelines on remedial action throughout the teaching process. In this case, error analysis is going to be used to locate and analyse students' translation errors as well as factors that might cause them, to provide solutions and suggestions for translation teaching assessment.

4.5 Error analysis in translation education

Since translation is considered as a branch of language studies, the two disciplines share some common points of interest. Translation has long been considered and used as one of the methods available to learn another language. Furthermore, Robinson (2012, p. 137) claims that translation is "an advanced form to understand and read a foreign language." For example, English Departments in Indonesian universities mostly offer translation units at the advanced stages of the curriculum, in the third or fourth year of the degree. Regarding this relationship, Pym et al. (2013) claim that translation and language teaching have a complementary relationship as language training is required for translators. With this in mind, linguistic theory, in terms of an approach, method or tools, might be applicable to the field of translation. In particular, error analysis applied for assessment in second language training can be applied for assessment in translation education.

Notwithstanding its widespread use, error analysis in translation might not look exactly the same as error analysis in second language teaching because the measuring standards are quite different. In second language teaching, students' language production is assessed on the basis of the target language system. In this case, any deviation (shown by the gap between interlanguage and target language) is considered an error. Hence, error analysis results are expected to provide information to the teachers on areas that need improvement. On the other hand, error analysis in translation is conducted by measuring students' translation against the source text as well as the target language to check for errors in message transferred and in language.

Furthermore, it is important to note that while in second language learning 'target language' means the second or foreign language, in translation it can mean both native and foreign language depending on the direction. Regarding this last point, Lederer (2014, p. 158) argues that

> The impossibility of reaching a quality of expression in the B language which equals to quality of expression in a mother tongue only really condemns translation from A into B[17] for languages which are widely used and mastered by many translators.

However, she does not totally exclude translation from the foreign language, admitting that it can be performed if there is no other choice (Lederer, 2014). Indonesia is one of the best examples on the market that also demands translation into foreign languages, and indeed this study focuses on translation into English.

As mentioned, translation involves three language systems: source/native language, interlanguage, and target/foreign language. Interlanguage is manifested in students' translations (Toury, 1979) and is important in this study as this research explores errors occurring in Indonesian-English translations. When translation is not into the students' native language, it can be assumed that there will be significant deviation between the language in the translated text (interlanguage) and the target language, due to the students' limited ability to express the message accurately in the latter; this means that there will be more language-related errors in the translation. However, there is also possibility that deviation from the source text may also be caused by other factors, such as inability to understand the message in the source text

[17] Translation from A into B means translation from native language to foreign language

due to lack of knowledge, which will also be explored in this study and discussed in Chapter 8.

4.6 Translation assessment

Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) is crucial in translation teaching for both students and instructors to improve the learning process. Moreover, assessment in translation training is vital to establish competence levels (Albir, 2017). It can be summative or formative. The difference is that formative assessment is intended to provide feedback to enhance the learning process; tasks might typically be in the form of quizzes or special assignments. On the other hand, summative evaluation provides evidence of translation competence for the purposes of certification, or to pass a course.

The complexity of translation is recognised by Drugan (2013), who claims that there is no single objective way to measure its quality. One of the reasons might be that definitions of what constitutes equivalence are varied. Moreover, there are other variables that influence the selection of translation quality assessment. Munday (2012, p. 39) argues that "our evaluations are strongly linked to the values instilled in us by the educational, legal, cultural and other institutions in which we are enculturated. So, evaluation may vary". However, it is important to bear in mind potential differences in the linguistic realisation of culturally expected norms of evaluation. Different levels of seriousness of errors (critical, major, and minor) depend on the impact on the acceptability and comprehension of a translation (Delizee, 2011).

Furthermore, Williams (2004) discusses two approaches used in translation assessment, namely microtextual and macrotextual. He argues that there is a gap between professional and educational contexts. Professional assessment is conducted by using a microtextual approach, while the practical one uses a macrotextual approach. Microtextual approaches are also known as bottom-up approaches, where the translation is given a score, but then points are subtracted based on errors at the sub-sentence level such as phrase and clause. On the other hand, a macrotextual approach is called a top-down approach, in which elements beyond the sentence are allocated bonus points. A microtextual approach gives relatively complete information on the errors that occur in the translation. It seems that the difference between those approaches is that the micro can be too detailed, while the macro can be too general. Based on this explanation, the translation assessment conducted in the English Department at Politeknik Negeri Padang can be regarded as following a macrotextual approach: teachers focus on the text as a whole and provide bonus points based on readability, acceptability, and accuracy. However, they do not give detailed information on which parts of the translation were awarded bonus points, but only general comments. Unfortunately, this kind of assessment does not generally provide specific details to students about areas that need improvement, which may contribute to the repeated occurrence of certain errors found across all year levels in the Department. In contrast, error analysis seeks to provide more specific feedback, which may assist students in avoiding repeated inaccuracies.

Indeed, there are critics of error analysis who argue this method of assessment only deal with negative aspects of a translation. Chesterman (2016) recognises that assessment can be either positive or negative; that it can focus on the error or the strengths of the translation. However, the best starting point for assessment in translation training is identifying the source of students' problems, whereby error analysis can be used as part of a holistic approach to assessment. This opinion is supported by Kussmaul (1995, p. 163), who states that

> there may be other well-translated passages but starting off with those which have been a problem for many students at the same stage of training has, in my experience, proved to be a useful basis.

This is related to providing feedback to students, to shape their learning through formative assessment in translation training. Despite the potential existence of various goals for an assessment item, the most important reason for doing translation assessment is to be able to gain information about the problems that the students have, which then provides teachers with ideas on how to improve their training.

Although some academics might feel reluctant to use error analysis in translation assessment, they need to be aware that one of the key purposes of translation education is to train professional translators who can work at a level acceptable to the translation industry (de Cespedés, 2020). de Cespedés points out that quality assurance in the translation industry is indeed conducted using error analysis, with various metrics such as TAUS or LISA[18], and he notes the beneficial application of error analysis for translator trainees in some European translation agencies. Trainees are provided with feedback on their errors and have access to the edited versions of their translations. This has proved to help their development because they learn how to fix errors and at the same time are made aware of the parts they have translated well. Based on de Cespedés' study, it would be useful for academics to adapt and implement this kind of assessment in an effort to ensure that their translation training can better match industry demands. Hansen (2009, p. 320) proposes an interesting classification below.

1. Classification of errors in relation to the affected units and levels of linguistic and stylistic description: This classification includes pragmatic errors and text-linguistic errors (semantic, idiomatic errors, stylistic error, morphological errors, syntactical errors, and factual errors of content).
2. Classification of Error related to the cause of "interference" or "false cognates": Error due to the projection of unwanted features from one language to the other which can be categorised as pragmatic, text linguistic, lexical-semantic, syntactic or stylistic errors.

Nord (2018, p. 70) classified errors based on problems that may arise during the translation process. According to her (1991, p. 151),

> [a] translation problem is an objective problem which every translator (irrespective of his level of competence and of the technical conditions of his work) has to solve during a particular translation task.

Her classification is as follows:

1. Linguistic translation errors are caused by an inadequate translation when the focus on language structures;
2. Pragmatic translation errors are caused by inadequate solutions to pragmatic translation problems based on the translation brief;
3. Cultural translation errors, due to an inadequate decision to reproduction or adaptation of culture- specific conventions;

[18] TAUS (The Translation Automation User Society) and LISA (Localization Industry Standards Association) develop quality assessment tools in translation industry.

4. Specific translation error related to a specific translation problem.

However, it does not mean that to ensure translation conforms to the target language rules a mere language correction can be performed, without comparing with the source text. With this in mind, Nord (2018, p. 70) emphasises that linguistic translation errors cannot be seen as “a mere deviation from linguistic norms”, particularly when they affect readers’ comprehension of the translation. She further mentions the example that a sentence translated in the correct tense but with the wrong message can be considered a fatal error, because it distorts the intended meaning. For this reason, she uses the term “linguistic translation error” instead of just “linguistic error”.

4.7 Errors and the translation industry

A study conducted by Castilho et al. (2019) found that TQA in the industry is mostly based on errors. This kind of quality assessment is claimed to be objective and is time- and cost-efficient, since it can be done automatically through machine evaluation. The question is whether it is effective or not. Robinson (2012) argues that although the human brain works slower than a machine, it is still preferable because machines are not as well developed as human brains. Most importantly, skilled human evaluation is likely to offer a more comprehensive and accurate assessment comparing the translation with the source text. Furthermore, it can investigate the problems involved in more nuance. Although this may be true, the industry still considers it to be more subjective, time-consuming, and more expensive; these are its main considerations as the marketplace is profit oriented. These factors also seem to be the reason for the massive use of technology in the translation industry.

A survey conducted by Cespedes (2020) suggests that more than 80% of professional translators and translation companies in Europe use Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT). Although some companies are happy to provide training for new translators, most of them are required to have some knowledge of CAT tools. Surprisingly, he also found that some companies use machine translation, such as Google Translate, to produce the first draft in order to save time, which is then edited by human translators. Even though Robinson (2012) does not support the use of machine translation, he agrees that translation memory features in CAT tools are helpful in avoiding errors because the translation will be conducted per segment. While translating, CAT tools will display the target text per segment, which can be a sentence or paragraph; moreover, source and target can be shown side by side, which helps translators focus on the text and avoid unintended omissions. Furthermore, translation memory in CAT tools has a function for storing terminology and its equivalents. When a translator encounters the same terms as those stored in the translation memory, the equivalent term will pop up. In this way, translators are able to translate terms consistently in one document. This kind of stored memory is time-saving as well as it can be used to translate similar documents.

In order to keep up with the development of the translation industry, some universities in Europe have included translation technology in their curriculum (Doherty et al., 2019), subscribing to the view that translation students need to be trained and exposed to TQA as it is used in the industry. The idea is that translation students need to know the quality expected from them and the rubric used to assess their work once they enter the professional field. Unfortunately, translation teachers and students are often not familiar with TQA and tools now commonly used in industry, which is increasingly essential for student translators.

Introducing error analysis would be a positive start in translation training as this type of assessment is mostly used in the industry. Even though the rubric assigned would not be totally the same, it is expected that students would grasp a better sense of the industry. Indeed, it is a challenge for universities to imitate industry TQA metrics and models because they mostly rely on technology such as machine evaluation. However, error analysis used in machine translation can be applied to human translation. For example, Popović (2019) argues that error analysis in machine translation evaluation can be conducted by assigning errors to small linguistic category units.

4.8 Translation assessment and error typology in the translation industry

According to **Görög** (2014, p. 452), “error typology is the standard approach to quality evaluation”. However, he mentions that there is variability in the categories used across the translation industry. His opinion is supported by de Cespedés (2020), who argues that error typology used in the translation industry does not uniformly use a standard metric or measure of assessment. Nevertheless, Lommel (2019) notes that metric standardisation has been employed since 2012 in European countries through the use of the Multidimensional Quality Metrics (MQM) and

Dynamic Quality Framework (DQF). DQF provides a standardized way to categorize and count translation errors for accuracy, language, terminology and style (**G**ö**r**ö**g**, 2014), while MQM deals with extra-linguistic issues by introducing a verity category, where purpose and target audience must be taken into consideration when assessing fluency and accuracy (Lommel et al., 2014). However, according to Lommel (2019), both MQM and DQF can only be used as tools in translation industry assessment as they are designed for the industry.

While the industry seems to focus on using tools for the assessment, professional certification testing prefers human evaluation. However, it also uses various models of testing for professional translator accreditation. There are three popular models discussed in the scholarly literature that centre on translation assessment: the Canadian language quality measurement system (SICAL), assessment practices by the American Translators Association (ATA), and those by the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters in Australia (NAATI). They each use a point deduction system for errors and have a similar error typology. The largest category used is linguistic: language, terminology, accuracy, and style. Below are the error typologies used in SICAL, ATA, and NAATI.

4.8.1 American Translators Association (ATA)

ATA is a translator association in the United States of America established in 1959 with the main purpose of promoting the professional development of translators and interpreters. However, based on the information on their website[19], this association is not limited to American translators as it has more than 10,000 members across more than 103 countries. Translators from all over the world can apply for membership and they will appear on the directory list. There are 94 languages on the list, including Indonesian and Javanese (one of the regional languages in Indonesia). Currently, there are 35 ATA members with language combination English into Indonesian, and 38 translators with Indonesian to English. Moreover, there are five translators with combination English to Javanese, and 4 with Javanese to English. This shows that ATA has a global reach and is recognised by international translators.

[19] https://www.atanet.org/aboutus/about_ata.php, accessed on 19 July 2020.

ATA offers a certification examination for translators, which it claims is one of the most respected and recognised credentials in the international translation industry. There are two types of error assessed by ATA:

A. Strategic errors, also known as meaning transfer, refers to negative impact on clarity of the target text. The categories are addition, ambiguity, cohesion, faux ami or false friends, literalness, misunderstanding of source text, omission, terminology, text types, and verb tenses. Transfer errors are considered to be more serious than mechanical errors.
B. Mechanical errors refer to any negative impact on overall quality of the target text, relating to linguistics issues. The categories are grammar, syntax, word form/part of speech, punctuation, spelling, diacritical or accents, capitalization, and usage.[20]

Koby (2015) argues that it is useful to apply professional-like standards to assessment in translator training. He claims that the ATA framework is applicable to classroom settings.

4.8.2 National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters in Australia (NAATI)

NAATI is the national standard and certifying authority in Australia established in 1977 and aimed at those who want to work as translators and interpreters in Australia. To ensure the quality of translation training, NAATI also approves some translation training institutions. Like ATA, NAATI also offers certification. NAATI only provides 8 error categories: distortion, unjustified omission, unjustified insertion, inappropriate register, unidiomatic expression, error of grammar, error of spelling, and error of punctuation. However, NAATI does not assign specific categories based on the level of seriousness of the errors. Lee and Ronowicz (2014) argue that NAATI error typology is not applicable in the classroom because the categories overlap and are complicated to use.

[20] https://www.atanet.org/certification/Framework_2017.pdf, accessed 15 July 2020.

4.8.3 Canadian Language Quality Measurement System (SICAL)

SICAL is developed by the Canadian Government's translation bureau. There are four categories of errors assessed:

1. Major translation errors include serious mistranslations, significant omissions, and nonsense.
2. Minor translation errors include mistranslation, shift in meaning, ambiguity, and addition/omission.
3. Major language errors include unintelligible language, grossly incorrect language, and unacceptable neologisms.
4. Minor language errors, including diction, punctuation, syntax, style and others.

Despite its contribution with introducing error categories based on level of seriousness, Williams (2009) argues that SICAL provides a quality rating which does not give clear guidelines for the assessor and therefore makes it more subjective.

These models are discussed because they have been established and validated over international language pairs. They are important to provide a basis for formulating the assessment criteria used in this research, which are going to be discussed in Chapter 5. There are also certification models used in Asia such as in China and Korea, as these countries show a growing focus on translation and translation assessment. However, their models would not be applicable to Indonesian as their language systems (and especially their writing systems) are totally different. The nearest country with similar languages spoken is Malaysia. However, Kaur (2005) suggests that Malaysia is still in the process of establishing its national translator certification system. Interestingly, Malaysia currently involves ATA and NAATI in that process. Although Kaur (2005) does not specify the reasons, it seems that the reason is due to the credentials and established systems of both ATA and NAATI.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an explanation of error analysis in the context of second language acquisition. As SLA and second language teaching deal with both students' speaking and writing, this field often views errors and mistakes as two separate things, with mistakes considered as slips of the tongue only. However, the differentiation is not applicable in translation education because translation deals with written products. Regarding errors, this chapter also discusses Selinker's (1972) notion of interlanguage, referring to the language learners that might reflect some errors produced by the learners. This notion is important in translation into a foreign language (which becomes the language direction in this study), as translation works in this language direction mostly reflect translators' interlanguage. With this in mind, it can be predicted that translation linguistic errors (Nord, 2018) are likely to occur, which will be discussed further in Chapter 7.

Furthermore, this chapter also discussed a brief development of error analysis which remains significant in language pedagogy despite some critiques it has received. Error analysis can provide valuable information regarding students learning development, which is important for designing remedial action for both teachers and students. Moreover, error analysis is also considered important in the field of translation, particularly in the translation industry and professional translator certification. The literature has shown that translation quality assessment in both translation industry and certification focuses on errors. However, while the translation industry assesses errors using tools or machines, errors in the professional certification are assessed by humans. Regarding error analysis in translation education, this discussion also noted that not all academics feel comfortable using it. However, to achieve their aim, which is to train professional translators, it is necessary for translation education institutions to familiarise students with the translation industry – not only the way professional translators work, but also how translation quality assessment is applied. Therefore, error analysis is beneficial in translation education, especially when used holistically. It means that the result from error analysis is used to design and develop an improvement in the classroom. Indeed, error analysis in translation education is conducted by a human, as in the professional certification. The examples of translator certification tests conducted in various countries as well as their assessment criteria have been explained in this chapter. However, this study is going to adapt assessment criteria from ATA as guidelines for external reviewer assessment. The elaboration on the adaptation of these criteria as well as the methodology used in this study will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5
Methodology
Case Study: Politeknik Negeri Padang

This chapter discusses the methodological background of this study by outlining the approach and its research design. The research approach is based on constructivism, which allows the researcher to apply an interpretive lens to the phenomenon studied. This research philosophy is the basis of my approach to a qualitative case study research design. My research focus is to explore translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions, with Politeknik Negeri Padang selected as the specific case. In this chapter, I also describe data collection and outline the main data analysis procedure. There is also discussion of the scope of the research, its limitations and consideration of relevant ethical issues.

5.1 Methodological background

Research design has been defined by Harrison et al. (2017) as reflecting a worldview to understand the phenomenon within the research context. Cresswell and Cresswell (2018, p. 6) define worldview as a "general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to study". They prefer the term worldview, despite acknowledging different terms are used by different scholars, including research methodology, paradigms, epistemology and ontology.

There are many research paradigms proposed by scholars. Saunders et al (2015, p. 135-143) identify five major research philosophies commonly used by scholars to underpin research: positivism, interpretivism, critical realism, postmodernism, and pragmatism. Interpretivism is associated with qualitative research, which interprets phenomena through exploratory studies and places more emphasis on understanding meanings and personal experiences through open-ended data. In contrast, positivism is associated with quantitative research which emphasises statistical, close-ended responses to examine a hypothesis. Critical realism posits "our knowledge of reality is a result of social conditioning" (p. 142). Postmodernism stresses the role of power relations and challenges the existing way of thinking to expose what has been marginalized from the "dominant realities". Interpretivism, critical realism, and postmodernist paradigms are associated with qualitative research. However, pragmatism emphasises the importance of managing the research and finding solutions with a practical contribution, rather than arguing in terms of abstract distinction. It is commonly associated with mixed-methods research.

In outlining approaches to research methodology, Cresswell and Cresswell (2018), on the other hand, propose four worldviews. They present the characteristics of the worldviews in the following table.

Table 1.1 Four Worldviews

Postpositivism	Constructivism
• Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Theory verification	• Understanding • Multiple participant meanings • Social and historical construction • Theory generation
Advocacy/Participatory	**Pragmatism**
• Political • Empowerment Issue-oriented • Collaborative • Change-oriented	• Consequences of actions • Problem-centered • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented

Table 2 Creswell's worldview (Creswell & Creswell 2018, p. 6)

A postpositivist worldview is the representation of traditional research which will observe phenomena carefully with objective measurements. This is typically found in quantitative research, as it attempts to be as objective as possible. On the other hand, constructivism (often associated with interpretivism) tends to deal with subjective reality, where the researchers' own background is recognised as shaping their interpretation. The focus is to understand and interpret the participants and their worlds. Therefore, this view is more compatible with qualitative research. The advocacy approach, also known as being 'transformative', views phenomena as based on political views, which in turn prompts a need to enact change. This view is also typically used in qualitative research. Finally, pragmatism focuses on the problems and potential solutions. This leads to a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Although the categories proposed by Saunders et al. (2015) and Cresswell and Cresswell (2018) vary, the differences do not differ greatly. It can be argued that both represent similar worldviews which can be grouped into three broad categories based on the associated research approach: positivism with quantitative research, interpretivism with qualitative research, and pragmatism with mixed-methods research. Ultimately, the choice between research approaches will be about whether the research is quantitative, qualitative or mixed.

Similarly, Cresswell and Cresswell (2018) claim that the worldview will decide the research approach as either quantitative, qualitative or mixed, but warn that quantitative and qualitative approaches should not be viewed as opposing dichotomies. Cresswell (2012) states that dichotomies are unrealistic, providing the example of research in a classroom: this can be an objective reality but also subjective in nature, meaning that it can be analysed quantitatively or qualitatively.

The debate about positioning the researcher relative to the research context has polarized dominant epistemological assumptions into a dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative research. Scholars claim that both are derived from different worldviews, which in turn make them incompatible with certain areas. However, scholars in sociological research argue that quantitative and qualitative methods can be compatible with many fields of research (Bazeley, 2019). Furthermore, Molina-Azorin (2018) argues that "paradigms and methods are not inherently linked". It seems that research approaches can be flexibly related to researchers' needs and the research context, and do not have to be strictly bound to a particular worldview.

Saunders' paradigms are commonly used in business research, which may be different from research in other social science fields, while Cohen et al. (2018) consider Creswell's four paradigms in their attempt to characterize different paradigms in educational research, though they are not the only ones they include. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2018) argue that these paradigms are not ideal types or exclusive, and they might overlap. Therefore, the authors prefer to see paradigms in educational research as based on two categories, which are positivism and post-positivism. Positivism views the world as objective, impersonal, predictable, and as a rational system which can be studied through the empirical means of the scientific method. On the other hand, post-positivism views the world as changing and partial where there is no absolute truth, which therefore allows multiple perspectives and interpretations.

Saldanha and O'Brien (2014) also consider these paradigms as not being exclusive. They argue that though there are many research paradigms proposed, the most important thing before conducting research is to decide the ontology and epistemology. While ontology is related to the way we see the world, epistemology is related to the theory of knowledge and how we acquire it. Saldanha and (2014) identify three ontological positions in translation research: objectivism, constructivism, and realism, and three epistemological positions: positivism, interpretivism, and realism. They argue that the ontological position is linked to the epistemological, in that the way we see the social phenomenon will determine the way we obtain knowledge. With this in mind, objectivism is linked to positivism, constructivism is linked to interpretivism, and realism is linked to realism. While they state that they are not trying to prescribe specific positions in translation research, and acknowledge that there are many other research paradigms, they consider that the above positions are sufficient to provide us with perspectives which can be useful in translation research.

As mentioned earlier, this study uses constructivism, in which the phenomena observed will only be able to construct the ideas if it is reviewed by people within the environment. Ontological constructivism is linked to interpretivism, as it prioritizes people's subjective understandings and interpretations of social phenomena and is often linked with qualitative approaches to research, where the researchers attempt to explore the social world from the point of view of the actors and reflect on their own subjective interpretation. With this in mind, I am acknowledging that the interpretation of students' errors as well as their implications for the quality of translation education may vary.

5.2 Research design

Based on the above discussion of research philosophy, I now present the research design for this study in a visual depiction in Figure 16 below. This offers a basic visual representation of this study, based on Creswell and Creswell's (2018) conceptualization of research as being multi-layered, like an onion. Beginning with the outer layer is the holistic, constructivist view of translation in Indonesia, in broad terms. The next inner layer represents the qualitative approach to data collection and analysis to look at translation education as a program of study within the English department at Politeknik Institution in Padang. This is the site of the translation program case study, which predominantly examines student translations and reviewer assessments as the core data. Finally, the innermost layer of this metaphorical onion involves document analysis from the Politeknik Institution. This visual representation is a way of providing a simplified overview of the study design, where the more outward the layer, the broader the perspective, and the more inward circles represent increased attention to detail. The exception is the innermost circle (document analysis), which is another form of data, in addition to student work and reviewers' assessments. Document analysis is not given greater attention than other forms of data but is somewhat separate from it. Data from student work and reviewers' assessments are grouped together since they are more directly interconnected.

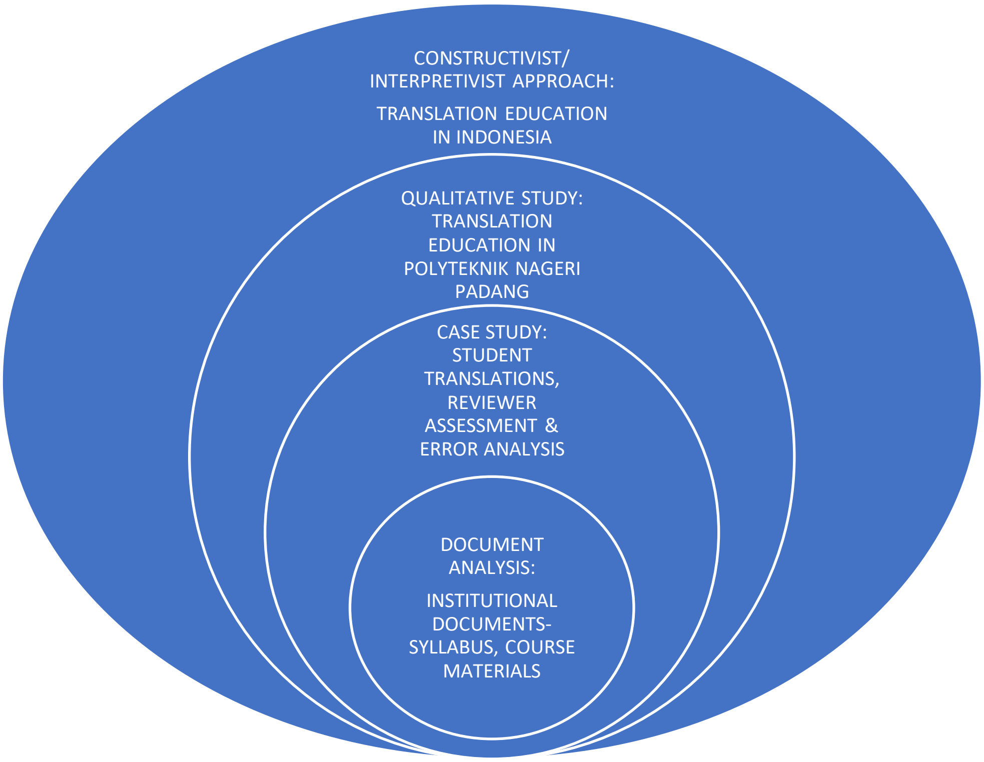

Figure 16 Research design (based on Creswell & Creswell, 2018)

In this research, I adopt Creswell and Creswell's (2018) constructivist (also known as an interpretive) worldview. Constructivism is an ideal position from which to develop an interpretation of Politeknik Negeri Padang students' translation errors in business texts from Indonesian to English, as it allows me to see students' translation errors from multiple perspectives. The first one is through the assessment conducted by external reviewers and how they view students' translation works. Furthermore, it allows me to view translation errors in the context of the students' translation competence. This lens also offers deep understandings of the impact of translation errors for translation education at Politeknik Negeri Padang in particular, and translation education in general in Indonesian tertiary institutions. It will offer potential insights into how translation curriculum in Politeknik Negeri Padang might have contributed to these errors and what might be needed to address common ones.

To achieve these objectives, I apply a qualitative research approach. Creswell and Creswell (2018) note that historically qualitative approaches originated from sociological studies. While Nkwi et al. (2001) give a working definition stating that a qualitative study is any research using data that do not include ordinal values, Denzin and Lincoln (2005, p. 3) explain qualitative research as the study of "things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". This means that qualitative research explores phenomena and their interpretation. This project is a qualitative study as it investigates the phenomena behind translation errors produced by Politeknik Negeri Padang students. The deeper objective is to explore students' translation competency and underlying problems that may affect it.

5.3 Case study and study context

Qualitative studies also can be done through several research designs such as ethnography, grounded theory, and case studies. Here I adopt a case study approach as it is more suitable for an evaluation within a specific context. According to Cresswell and Cresswell (2018, p. 14), case study is "a design of inquiry found in many fields especially evaluation in which the researchers develop an in-depth analysis of a case often a program, event, process, activity". Moreover, Harrison et al. (2017, p. 1) claim case study to be effective "to investigate and understand complex issues in real world settings". A case study approach is also beneficial in exploring the phenomenon being researched in terms of complex processes and factors that shed light on the subject of study (Yazan, 2015). Case study is popular in translation research and has been used by Liu and Yu (2019) in understanding student translator's motivation in Chinese Universities, by Hu (2020) to discover how norms are validated by translators in translating Chinese political discourse, and by Piertzak and Kornacki (2020) to understand freelance translation in using new technologies. Thus, as this thesis aims to understand phenomena in translation studies in Indonesian universities, the English Department of Politeknik Negeri Padang is selected as the case study site for this research.

As has been discussed in Chapter 1, the English Department at Politeknik Negeri Padang is a vocational college that specifically trains student translators in a government tertiary institution. Unlike other colleges, polytechnics play significant roles in creating a workforce based on industry demands. Politeknik Negeri Padang is one of many polytechnics that focus on translation education.

Based on the guidelines from the Indonesian Ministry of Education, the polytechnic curriculum must be 40% theory and 60% practice. The complete curriculum provided by Politeknik Negeri Padang was presented in Chapter 3. The demand for translation to English is quite high as Indonesia is becoming increasingly globalised, as reflected by expressions such as ‘go international’. English to Indonesian and Indonesian to English directions are both offered; however, the specific focus of this research is on translation into English as the more challenging direction of translation for Indonesian translators.

Students at the Padang Polytechnic receive also hands-on training in the use of technology in translation; this includes computer-assisted translation tools (Wordfast). Finally, they also undertake an internship in the business sector, in the government or in a private organisation provided that their job description includes translation. Under Ministry of Education regulations, undertaking a project is a requirement for graduation from polytechnic education. During their last semester, students work on a final project which consisted of translating a 3000-word text from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English, accompanied by a justification of practice based on relevant theoretical discussion. Most of the students choose the Indonesian-English language direction as their source texts are mainly taken from local sources such as tourism brochures. They present this product at a seminar, which is evaluated by three examiners.

Graduates receive a certificate that documents the grades in all the units they took; additionally, as vocational college graduates, they are required to have an additional certificate that documents their competencies, in this case in translation. Unfortunately, Politeknik Negeri Padang currently does not have a reliable and objective translation assessment system and resources. Hence, this type of certification is conducted by outsourcing to an external institution. While Politeknik Negeri Padang has a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the Indonesian Translators’ Association (HPI), which is the only official translators’ organisation in Indonesia, the certification test organised by the latter is only designed for professional translators. For this reason, the polytechnic pays a private translation agency to certify and evaluate students’ competence. However, it does not solve the problems with the assessment, in part because the criteria used are not clear. Furthermore, this type of certification does not provide a complete description of students' competence because it only gives a score without further explanation. Therefore, the students' translation competence and the quality of their works remain unknown.

With this background in mind, this study decided to use a more reliable assessment model of students' competence by adopting specific criteria adapted from the ATA framework (see Chapter 4). This assessment was conducted by the external reviewers. Furthermore, this study also used error analysis to explore in more detail students' translational competencies and the problems they demonstrate. In order to get a more thorough picture of PNP translation education quality, the result of the error analysis is supported by a documentary analysis of PNP institutional documents.

5.4 Data and data collection

Creswell (2014) argues that data collection in qualitative studies should be conducted in natural settings, which can be done through fieldwork. For interpretive research, researchers should observe the context personally to gain more understanding and to be able to interpret the phenomenon. Furthermore, he claims that using documents - both public and private - as data can be beneficial as in this way researchers can get reliable written evidence.

There are two key sources of data for this study – primary data sources relating to assessment materials in the form of students' translations and assessors' comments, and secondary data sources in the form of institutional documents such as curriculum and syllabus. To collect the data, I conducted fieldwork in April – May 2018 in the English Department of Politeknik Negeri Padang. Being a staff member for more than 10 years, I had full access to the documents needed as the source of data in this study. Students' translation tasks for assessment, along with the feedback from the reviewers, are used as the primary source data for this study. In addition, detailed institutional documents, including curriculum, syllabus and course materials are treated as part of additional data (see Chapter 3).

Assignments from three translation units are used, representing first-, second-, and third-year students. Many types of texts and genres are introduced and translated as part of these classes including medical, engineering, business, literary and tourism material. However, business translation will be used for this study because it represents the greatest area of demand in the Indonesian translation industry. While students are required to demonstrate bi-directional translation competence by the translation market, only Indonesian to English translation is used in this study because it is most commonly required during students' professional work after they complete their studies.

As part of the in-class assignment, the students were asked to translate 250 words. The students had 135 minutes to complete the task in a multimedia laboratory where they could access a computer equipped with an internet connection. Although they had been warned not to access google translate, there was no guarantee that they would follow the instructions.

Assignments completed by students at Politeknik Negeri Padang become the property of the university and so were accessible to the researcher, after due process to anonymize the student work: they were deidentified by the English Department before being provided for analysis in this study. The researcher received the student texts as well as the original material that they were asked to translate. There was no identifying information associated with these assignments, except for the year level of the student who produced each assignment. For this reason, this study obtained a Deakin University ethics waiver. In this study, individual translator characteristics are not the focus; it is the student cohorts at collective levels and the translations they produce, just like professional certification tests; but also on the educational implications of those findings for the different student cohorts. Evaluating the results of translations produced by students across the different year levels is a means to evaluate how student competency develops over the course of their degree.

A total of 10 translation samples per year level are used in this study. Each sample is 250 words long and was an assessed task for students of translation at the level in question. This total of 30 samples of translation from Indonesian to English provides a significant body of data for analysis. A similar number of samples are used in other qualitative translation assessment studies by Beaton et al. (2002), Lai (2011), and Alevi and Ghaemi (2013). This sample size is fitting for the qualitative approach adopted for this study. It should be noted that statistical significance and a larger sample size are not required as they might be in a quantitative study. The quantification of translation evaluations described below is intended for ranking purposes only, not for quantitative analysis of the data set.

5.5 Analysis of data

There are two stages involved in analysing the primary data, which is student assignments, as shown in Figure 17 below. The first stage involved external reviewers who assessed students' translation works based on criteria adapted from ATA. The second stage was conducted by me as the researcher. The following chart explains data related to student assessment as primary data:

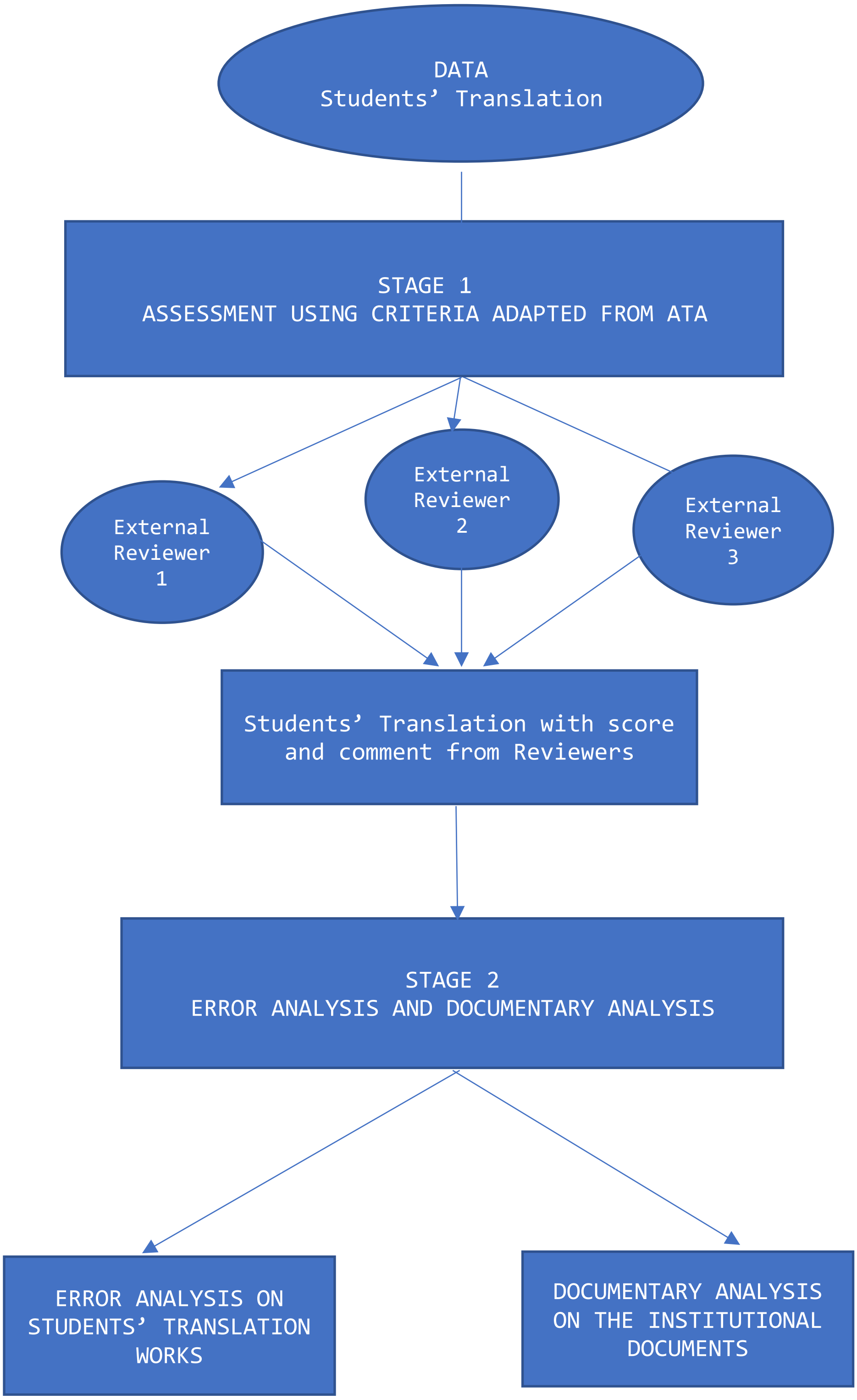

Figure 17 Data analysis workflow

As described above, data analysis is conducted in the following two stages:

5.5.1 Stage 1: Assessment by external reviewers

The first stage involved three native English speakers as the external reviewers of the student translations. Judgment from reviewers can be very subjective, particularly when giving the score, as they might have different opinions on what a 'good' translation is. The reason I selected three reviewers was to recognise and allow for subjectivity at a manageable level. If there were only two reviewers, it was anticipated that the gap between scores could be too great; the third review helped balance this. Native English speakers assessed the translations into English. These reviewers were university-educated, familiar with business texts, and represented target readers. They were asked to use the evaluative tool adapted from the criteria developed by the American Translators Association (ATA) (see Appendix 1). ATA was selected as this tool because it provides clear and complete marking criteria as well as guidelines for each error found. It has been validated for use in many languages (ATA, 2017).

The assessment of each translation generated three scores, one from each of the reviewers. They assigned scores from 1-3, with one being the lowest translation quality, and three being the highest. These scores were combined to generate an aggregate one for each text. In addition, the variance between the highest score and lowest score assigned by the external reviewers was noted. In order to determine the comparative quality of the translations, the aggregate for each text was divided by the variance to produce an overall score. It is assumed that a higher quality translation will achieve a higher aggregate and lower variance. Therefore, this calculation will result in a higher value. While the actual value achieved is not significant, the comparative score will represent quality in terms of the scoring criteria on the evaluation tool and will allow the translation sample to be ranked according to quality based on native speaker judgment.

While much of the literature on the quantification of errors in translation relates to machine translation (see, for example, Schwenk et al., 2006; Popović & Nevy, 2007; Stymne, 2011), various approaches have been used to develop quantitative measures of translation quality or error content (for example, Waddington, 2001; Laufer and Waldman, 2011). These approaches are generally simple tabulations of errors identified by a single reviewer or instructors and do not take into account varying perceptions that may exist among speakers of the target language. The measure designed for this research represents an attempt to capture the impact of differing reactions to translated language that may better reflect the professional context where translated texts are used in real settings. The measure of translation quality designed in this study was based on simple statistical principles based on individual reviewer evaluations and a measure of the difference between them. It is not intended as a quantitative evaluation of the material studied, but it allows translations to be ranked in terms of quality. Most importantly, this rank is useful in comparing students' competencies based on their year level. Finally, the result of the external reviewers' assessment is going to be discussed in Chapter 6.

5.5.2 Stage 2: Error analysis of the students' translation work and documentary analysis of Institutional documents

The second stage was conducted by me as the researcher. The main analysis is the error analysis of the students' translation work, which is supported by documentary analysis of PNP institutional documents. In conducting error analysis, I used feedback from the reviewers to decide on categories of errors and studied the specific ones contained in the translated texts. This categorisation identified the following key areas: grammatical mistakes, structural problems, unidiomatic language, incorrect use of terms, and also the broad category of misinterpretation, which can be grouped with linguistic translation errors. The inclusion of the blanket category of misinterpretation is intended to account for translated language that is reasonably sound in terms of grammar and syntax but does not convey the content of the original text. It is anticipated that this may occur, especially in the translated texts produced by first-year students. This more traditional method of error analysis has been discussed in depth in the literature (see, for example, Pym, 1992; Bowker, 2000; Melis & Albir, 2001; Waddington, 2001; Myles, 2002, and James, 2013 among others). The result of error analysis is going to be discussed in Chapter 7.

As the objective of this research is to evaluate translation education, students' translation work is not a sufficient source of data. Therefore, this study also used institutional documents of Politeknik Negeri Padang, to which I had full access. The benefit of using documents is that they are a natural source of information (Tight, 2017). The documents here refer to the curriculum and syllabus used at the Politeknik (see Chapter 3). The documentary analysis conducted in this stage focuses on the overall course structure, and particularly the course objectives. This analysis provides information on how English units such as reading, grammar, and writing develop students' English competency as the basic requirements for translation units. Moreover, this analysis also observes how translation units are delivered, such as the kind of texts used (length, level of difficulty) and examination and assessments provided. The most important thing is this analysis established the connections between the syllabus and categories of errors. In this way, links and gaps reveal the problem areas which need improvement and development. Finally, the result of documentary analysis is going to be discussed in Chapter 8.

5.6 Evaluative tool used in this study

As mentioned in Chapter 4, Politeknik Negeri Padang currently does not have specific evaluation standards. Yet, an evaluative tool is crucial in this research to ensure validity and reliability of external reviewers' assessment. Therefore, I adapted an evaluative tool from the American Translators Association (ATA) which is specifically used by the external reviewers in this study. The original ATA tool identifies errors in two broad categories: translation/transfer/strategic errors and mechanical errors. The first category refers to any errors leading to a negative impact on comprehension, while the second one has negative impacts on the linguistic accuracy. Each category is assessed on the basis of several criteria by the reviewers. There are 16 criteria for the first category related to comprehension and 8 criteria for the second category or text quality. However, the ATA tool is designed for professional translators. Therefore, the criteria are so detailed that they would not be suitable for assessing undergraduate student translators. For this reason, the adapted ATA tool was adjusted by Polytechnic Padang by adapting criteria representing those two categories, so that it would be more applicable for use in the classroom context.

As a result, eight criteria were selected from the original ATA tool allowing the reviewers to assess the students' translation works both in terms of comprehension and language accuracy. The criteria were provided to the reviewers on the assessment sheet (see appendix 2) and are summarised below.

Code #	**Criteria and Description**
U	**Understanding of Original Text:** This category refers to whether the reviewers can see the level of translator's understanding of the texts.
T	**Terminology, Word Choice:** It often involves terms used in texts requiring specific background knowledge such as legal or business texts, which have specific meanings. In general texts, this criterion is used to verify translators'

	ability to select the most appropriate words among the words with similar meanings.
R	**Register:** Language level, degree of formality should be preserved in the translation; particularly in a specialised text that requires specific registers instead of common words.
ST	**Style:** This criterion refers to texts which require specific styles such as flowery, instructional or conversational. Translation with a clumsy style will be penalized.
C	**Consistency, Same Term Translated Consistently:** It depends on the source text, if the source text keeps using a term consistently, the translation also should use consistent translated terms. However, if the source text expresses an idea using different terms, the translation also needs to use various terms. [Note: In scientific and technical texts, translating the terms into English should be done consistently.]
CL	**Clarity:** The translation should be clear and unambiguous. The reviewers should not have to puzzle out the meaning.
G	**Grammar:** The example of grammatical errors is lack of agreement between subject and verb, incorrect verb forms, incorrect case of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives, and use of an adjective where an adverb is needed.
SP	**Spelling:** A spelling error that distorts the meaning is considered as a serious error such as principle/principal, peddle/pedal, bear/bare.

Table 3 Assessment criteria adapted from ATA for the external reviewers' assessment

1. Understanding

Based on this criterion, the reviewers observed if the student translators demonstrated good understanding of the text they translated. Furthermore, reviewers needed to assess whether the translation was understandable for the target readers.

2. Terminology or Word Choice

The texts for translation usually involve technical, legal, and financial jargon, and some texts also require words with very specific meanings. Translators are expected to use the most appropriate lexical choices, even though there may be several words with similar meanings. Thus, this criterion allows reviewers to assess whether the translators have selected the appropriate terms based on the context.

3. Register

This criterion is used to assess students' ability in terms of maintaining the level of formality in the translation. For example, 'spit' should not be used in a medical journal article which requires the formal term 'saliva'.

4. Style

Under the style criterion, reviewers would be able to assess students' ability to preserve the source text style. This is important when the source text has distinctive manners of expression, such as a flowery, conversational, or instructional tone. Failure to preserve the style is likely to result in an awkward translation.

5. Consistency (same terms translated consistently)

This criterion is related to consistency of translated terms, for example in scientific texts. Inconsistency may result in confusion and have a negative impact on comprehension.

6. Clarity

This criterion is adapted from the ambiguous criterion on the ATA list. It allows reviewers to observe whether a translation is clear and unambiguous. If not, understanding would be compromised as readers may not be able the grasp the message.

7. Grammar

As grammar is crucial for translation quality, reviewers need to assess the grammatical accuracy of a translation text. This reflects students' proficiency in the target language grammar including the use of tense, verb forms, adjectives, phrases and clauses.

8. Spelling

This criterion allows reviewers to observe whether students demonstrate accurate spelling. A spelling error may cause confusion for the reader, for example principle vs principal.

9. Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are concerns in all research and are especially important where subjective judgments are used as the basis of evaluation, as in this study. Validity of evaluation in this research is ensured by using three independent reviewers for each example of translated text. This method is discussed by Williams (1989) and is widely accepted. The potential difficulty for reviewers who are not provided with the original text has been discussed in the specific context of grading translation assignments in an educational context (see Rothe-Neves, 2002). However, this stage of the study using external reviewers is designed to assess translations from the point of view of the client or reader, who naturally only has access to the translated text as a product.

In order to ensure reliability in this study, a two-phase analysis process was used. This allows the external scores assigned by the reviewer to the various translations to be compared to a detailed analysis of the language of each text. Because the measure of quality described above allows for a ranking of translated texts, each position in this ranking corresponds to certain language characteristics. The ranking shows the quality of translation based on the student's year level; in the ranking process, students' progress between year levels was observed to identify any significant changes. A more detailed analysis of the nature of translation errors was conducted by the researcher comparing the translated text with the source text; the error categories evaluated here were informed by the score and comments provided by the external reviewers.

This validity issue is discussed in detail by Waddington (2001). It is expected that this process will ensure reliability but also allow to determine the type of error that is most detrimental to quality in translation between Indonesian and English, as well as errors that may be less serious in affecting user perceptions. This will have important implications for training translators as well as in improving translation quality overall.

5.7 Ethical issues

There are no outstanding ethical issues associated with this study. The samples of translation used for analysis are the property of Politeknik Negeri Padang and were archived at the English department, with written informed consent of participants for the purposes of research. Data have been provided to the researcher in deidentified form with the only indication of author characteristics being the year level at which they were completed. This study does not address individual translator characteristics but examines students at different year levels as discreet cohorts. This reflects all reasonable efforts to maintain anonymity of research participants. Data collection was undertaken in 2018. This procedure was approved for an ethics exemption by the Deakin University Human Research Ethics Committee (DUHREC), consistent with university and national research regulations (see Appendix 3).

5.8 Scope of the study

It should be noted that linguistic errors concerning terminology, grammar, and facts are the main areas of focus in this study. This is based on the primary aim of this research, which is to better understand the nature of translation produced by students who have not worked as translators in a professional capacity. The main problem for translators at this level is mastering English linguistic features. Contextual errors are noted but are more likely to be a result of the students' lack of experience and general knowledge, and can be expected to improve with increased exposure to the English language and its context. Linguistic errors, however, represent the most basic competency in translation (see, for example, Nord, 2005) and are also the main areas of focus of translator training in Indonesia. For this reason, proficiency in these elements is more relevant to the university context and is a key focus of formal training.

5.9 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the methodology and research design used in this study and described how the research was carried out. To gain a better understanding of the context, a qualitative case study at Politeknik Negeri Padang was undertaken. The research approach reflects constructivism using an interpretive lens as an overarching framework for qualitative analysis. This approach allows me to see the quality of translation education in an Indonesian tertiary institution from multiple perspectives, namely from students' translation errors, from the external reviewers' assessment, and from the students' translation itself. Moreover, it allowed me to utilise error analysis procedures and documentary analysis.

Data collection has produced two key sources. Primary data is in the form of students' assignments, examined through external reviewers' assessment and error analysis. Secondary data consists of institutional documents such as relevant course syllabi and curriculum documents. Having outlined the research approach, subsequent chapters will each address one specific key aspect of the study. This will commence with Chapter 6, by addressing reviewers' assessments of student translations in terms of scoring, comments and rankings.

Chapter 6
External Reviewer Assessment

This chapter outlines the results of external reviewer assessments on Politeknik Negeri Padang students' translation works. The reviewers, who are independent native English speakers, assessed students' translation without comparing the source and target text in an attempt to see the acceptability of the translations. Here, the reviewers observe whether the translation is delivered in the appropriate target language in such a way as to make it understandable. This assessment is significant in this study because it informs the translation quality from the target readers' perspective, represented by the external reviewers. Since the translation is a product, the reader's response as the users of this product is significant in evaluating the quality of the translated texts. In conducting the assessment, the reviewers were provided with the criteria adapted from American Translator Association certification test (see Section 5.6). These reviewer assessments are also an important component of this study because they are used as the foundation of developing the key categories of error analysis discussed in Chapter 7.

6.1 Business translation at PNP

Although PNP students' translation tasks include texts from diverse fields, such as literary and medical translation, students' business translation works are specifically analysed in this study. The reason is the increasing demand for this type of translation: the importance given to the translation of business texts in this study reflects the most likely site of future employment for translation students. Despite the importance and ubiquity of business translation, there is still very little scholarly attention paid to business translation. With this in mind, Biel and Sosoni (2017, p. 352) argue that

> While academia lags behind, business translation has always been one of translators' core areas of specialisation, which has intensified since the early 1990s as a result of globalisation and the growth of multinational corporations.

Additionally, with the advent of globalisation, it seems that the internet and growing international business communication nowadays may well force us to pay more attention to business translation.

Within current circumstances, business English translation is becoming one of the most important issues to be discussed as it is one of the genres of translation that is most practiced and most in demand (Gao, 2018). In education sectors across the globe, it is considered to be an important area of proficiency for student translators. Particularly in Asia, more translator training institutions are offering units and modules on business translation (Li, 2013). In this way, students will get more chances to increase their employability in the translation market. For similar reasons, Politeknik Negeri Padang has also placed a stronger focus on business translation proficiency, although other types of translation also are also offered to its students (see Appendix 4). Therefore, the data for this study is Politeknik Negeri Padang students' business translation work from year 1, 2, and 3.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, students' translation works were first assessed by external reviewers. The source texts were selected articles from prominent online business media in Indonesia such as Tempo.com, Kontan.co.id, and Harian Bisnis Indonesia. The topics of materials translated range from tax issues, insurance, trading, finance, and banking (see section 5.4). Indeed, newspapers have been one of the common texts used in teaching business English, especially to novice translators; Wang (2010) claims that they can be effective tools, as newspapers usually cover wide range of topics such as international trading, banking, stock marketing, and finance, and as such they can help students acquire current business concepts.

At Politeknik Negeri Padang, translation of newspaper texts is offered to second-year students in the Practice of Translation 1 unit. The purpose is to develop students' knowledge and vocabulary in business, particularly to enhance students' business terminology. Based on PNP curriculum, the difficulty level of this text is considered medium, yet still reasonable for first-year students. On the other hand, it is not too easy for the third-year students. Given their more advanced level, third-year students are expected to be able to revise, edit, and refine their translation work and produce much better translations than the students at the lower levels. They are not assigned the same source text to avoid plagiarism among students, although the texts for each level have similar difficulties because this research is designed to compare Politeknik Negeri Padang Students' competence across year levels.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, computer laboratories are key facilities provided for translation classes in Politeknik Negeri Padang. Students work in this laboratory which gives them sufficient access to helpful resources such as the internet, as well as online and print dictionaries. In normal assessment practice at Politeknik Negeri Padang, fairly long source texts are assigned to the students, even though sometimes the translation can take longer than the allocated time; in this case, the students can continue the assignment at home. When this happens, their access to translation resources is limited, which is likely to disadvantage them. To avoid this, the source texts for this study were limited to 250 words.

When giving a translation task, Nord (2018) suggests providing a translation brief or specific instruction to the students by assigning the intended function and readers of the translated text, which may be different from the source text. Accordingly, students may be required to make stylistic, pragmatic, or even cultural adjustments to the translated text. Otherwise, no adjustment is needed as the students should follow the source text setting. This situation where there is no specific translation brief assigned is referred to by Angelelli (2009, p. 30) as a 'neutral translation,' where "candidates are discouraged from making changes." Under these circumstances, the function, style, and temporal and cultural setting of a translated text should mirror the source text. "Neutral translation" has been practiced in translation training and certification tests like ATA. Since the assessment used in this study is adapted from the ATA certification test, students were not provided with specific instructions about translating the source text. However, PNP students were expected to be aware of specific language features they would encounter. Gao (2018) mentions that a Business English text contains lexical features (terminology and abbreviations), syntactic features (passive sentences and complex sentences), and textual features (expression). However, in teaching business translation, the focus should not be purely on grammatical issues. Language function and cultural issues should be considered to frame business communication (Leonardi, 2009). In this way, Biel and Sosoni (2017) argue that the most important feature translators need to keep in mind is terminology, because it represents knowledge of business and in some ways, is bound to cultural contexts and different economic systems. Although grammatical issues are not the main focus of Business Translation, it is important to have these features assessed. For this reason, the evaluative tool used in this study includes all business English text features (see Chapter 5).

6.2 External reviewers' assessment

This study involved three external reviewers. They were native speakers who worked independently because they were not part of Politeknik Negeri Padang. The reviewers were native English speakers with a postgraduate educational background. The reviewers had no relationship to the researcher, PNP or the students. They remain anonymous for privacy and ethical reasons. The reviewers worked voluntarily and were not paid for their feedback. The process of recruitment was conducted this way in order to ensure the neutrality of the reviewer in providing feedback about the student translations. This type of assessment can be categorised as hetero-assessment, defined by Galan-Manas and Albir (2015, p. 67) as

> performed by someone whose level of knowledge or skills differs from that of the person whose work they are assessing, as in the case of a teacher assessing a student or of a professional translator being assessed by a customer.

Compared to other types of assessment (see section 2.4), it is the most common assessment in translation education due to teachers' responsibility in marking and grading students' work. The problem is whether teachers apply clear assessment criteria or not. With this in mind, Waddington (2001) has raised concerns around the possibility that teachers may be too soft in scoring as they might forgive their students' mistakes, knowing the students are not English native speakers. This has been the case for Politeknik Negeri Padang because it does not have any established tools to assess its students' translation work (see Chapter 3). There is a strong possibility that the assessment will prove overly subjective, especially when the students are just assigned the final grade without feedback.

Since teachers form an integral part of the translation program, I consider any translation assessment involving the teachers as an internal assessment. In contrast, the assessment for this research was conducted by external reviewers from outside Politeknik Negeri Padang. As the aim of translation education is to produce professional translators, it is a good idea to have external evaluation, although some educational institutions might consider it as interference. Krawutschke (2008) encourages any translation program which is inexperienced in assessment to allow this type of external involvement because society deserves adequate translation performance from its translators. He further claims that it is an effective way to evaluate the program offered by translation education providers. Otherwise, these programs which are reluctant to be assessed will have the quality of their education and assessment procedures in question. Importantly, in the case of Politeknik Negeri Padang, the institution has attempted to secure evaluation from an external organisation, the Indonesian Association of Translators (HPI) (see Chapter 3). However, the HPI could not approve the request because this organisation, unlike NAATI which has collaboration with universities in Australia, only works with and offers assessment for Indonesian professional translators. Due to the position of translation education as a new discipline in Indonesia, the focus of HPI is on improving professional translators' quality rather than improving the education of translation students. Without support from professional organisations, translation assessment remains a problem for tertiary institutions in Indonesia, including PNP.

The purpose of using native English external reviewers in this study was to observe students' translation works from the users' perspectives without comparing the translation to the source text. With this in mind, the reviewers are considered as English target readers who rely on the translation as they do not speak Indonesian. This would be quite different if the external reviewers understood Indonesian very well and could access the source text. There would be a greater possibility for them to understand students' translations regardless of the translation quality, which may in turn affect their assessment. As a speaker of Indonesian and English, I could understand the translations, although the native-speaking external reviewers complained that the students used telegraphic syntax or random words. This sentence was taken from a first-year translation: "Efforts to choice the hotel have kitchen so that you can cook for dicrease eat cost". The English native-speaking reviewers found this sentence incomprehensible, whereas I could tell that the message is "Try to choose accommodation which provides kitchen amenities so you can cook your meals to minimise your meals expense". In this case, as an Indonesian speaker, I can relate to the students and understand the linguistic framing they have applied.

However, the intended target readers of a translation should not be expected to have this kind of ability. Indeed, it is the translator's responsibility to make the readers understand the message, because translators play a bridging role for readers to access different worlds in different languages (House, 2014). Hence, this assessment is crucial for this study to observe the quality of Politeknik Negeri Padang students' translation works.

6.3 Assessment procedure

It has been mentioned that the external reviewers were not provided with the source text. In this sense, they focused strictly on the quality of the translated text. Translation quality particularly in the business environment is crucial because it is a means to an end (Bittner, 2020). To put it in another way, a good business translation will support business communication, which in the end can bring economic benefits. In assessing the quality, PACTE (2017) consider acceptability as a "transversal indicator" of translation quality. The acceptability depends on the target readers, which in this case are represented by the reviewers.

When assessing the translated text without comparing it to the source text, the reviewers would most likely be able to detect language errors only. They would not be able to see if there is any equivalence problem or how well students understand the source text. However, Conde (2013, p. 99) claims that language errors are a sign of translation errors, arguing that

> translating is essentially a question of language; both concepts (language and translation) overlap so taking language errors as if they were alien to the activity of translating does not seem to make any sense.

Therefore, the reviewers' assessments on translation quality are still valid because "what counts with regard to translation quality are both content and the way in which content is conveyed" (Bittner, 2020, p. 2). Accordingly, reviewers were able to determine if the translation is acceptable from both a linguistic and extra-linguistic perspective, as reflected in the assessment criteria used in this study. The evaluative tool used was adapted from the ATA one, including a range of criteria or rubrics related to linguistic issues (grammar and spelling) as well as translation issues (understanding, terminology, register, consistency, and clarity) as outlined in Table 3 (section 5.6).

Three English native speakers were asked to give scores for the translation based on linguistic and translation issues. They were also asked to provide overall comments on the translation quality. Primarily, there is a debate on the standard of a good translation (see Chapter 2). However, the same standard cannot be applied to both professionals and students. With this in mind, William (2009) proposes standards to assess students' translation where students should be able to transfer the meaning satisfactorily based on the assigned learning objectives and without major errors. With this in mind, this study applied an adapted version of an assessment tool from ATA. The following Table 4 shows how the assessment tool used in this study is adapted from ATA tool.

	ATA TOOL	ADAPTED TOOL
CRITERIA	It consists of two broad assessment categories: translation errors and language errors	Consists of two broad of assessment categories – translation and linguistics errors
	Translation issues category consists of 13 errors criteria	Translation issues category consists of 6 criteria—understanding, terminology, register, style, consistency, and clarity
	Language issues consist of 8 criteria	Language category consists of 2 criteria- Grammar and Spelling
SCORING	1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 16 error points deducted from translation criteria	No error point assigned for translation criteria
	1, 2, and 4 error points assigned to language criteria	No error point assigned for translation criteria
	Positive Points 1, 2, and 3 may awarded for any exceptional translation with no specific criteria mentioned. This point will be subtracted from the total error point to get	Positive points 1, 2, and 3 are awarded based on the assessment criteria. The score in each criterion is converted to percentage. Furthermore, the total point is obtained from the total average scores.
	Reviewers may stop counting once the maximum 46 points are reached.	The reviewers are not required to calculate a score
REVIEWERS	It requires two reviewers. However, if a disagreement occurs between these two, the third reviewer will be hired	It requires three reviewers.
	The reviewers must be fluent in both language pairs as they are comparing the source and target text	The reviewers must be fluent in the target language

	The reviewers are paid	The reviewers work voluntarily

Table 4 Comparison between ATA and adapted ATA tool used in this study

This study applied fewer criteria than the original ATA assessment tool because the ATA was designed for professional translator certification, while the adapted one was designed for the student translators and modified in line with the findings of William (2009). Given the fact that the external reviewers were not trained to use the original ATA assessment, the best way was to adapt the system. Therefore, only the most significant criteria were employed. Besides adapting some criteria which are applicable to this study, the scoring system was also simplified to make scoring easier for the reviewers. The original ATA scoring system required the reviewers to locate the errors and award a range of points (1, 2, 4, 8 and 16) based on the impact of the errors (slight, minimal, serious, etc).

The ATA grading regime also provides options to award 1, 2, and 3 positive points to any translation they consider exceptional. However, there is no specific guidelines on awarding those positive points, whether they are based on certain criteria, and for what unit of language (word, phrase, paragraph or text). The total score would be obtained from subtracting error points from the positive ones. Reviewers however do not locate all errors because they stop after reaching a maximum of 46 points. Related to this issue, a study conducted by Phela (2017) on ATA assessment suggested that this system is not as objective as it may look with the wide ranges of scores provided. On the other hand, he argues that it is challenging for the reviewers to decide on error point scores to award. The problem is that they found it difficult to assess the impact of errors whether they are minimal or slight, as they are left to the reviewers' opinions, which makes it subjective. For this reason, I made adjustments to the scoring system. The error points are not used in this study, so the reviewers were not required to locate the errors. On the other hand, positive points were used but the reviewers were provided specific criteria to assign 1, 2, and 3 positive points. Providing a simplified assessment, scoring the translation is on a scale of one to three: Not really good (1), Good (2), and Very good (3) (see Chapter 5). In addition, the external reviewers provided overall qualitative feedback for translation in a comment section.

Naturally, assessment can be very subjective because it is based on the reviewers' perceptions (see Chapter 4 and Chapter 5). This can lead to disagreements among reviewers' judgments. The application of ATA assessment tools required two reviewers only, but if there is disagreement, a third reviewer will be hired. To minimise this subjectivity, each text was evaluated by 3 different independent reviewers. This was designed so that the third reviewer would balance the first and second reviewers' opinions if there was disagreement between them. For example, if the first reviewer gave a score of 1 while the second reviewer gave a score of 3 for a certain rubric, it was expected that the score given by the third reviewer would balance them. Although the data of each score given by each reviewer are not presented here, there were just a few disagreements among them. These scores did not impact the rank or the average scores, suggesting that the evaluations were consistent and therefore valid.

6.4 Assessment results

Assessment results are based on "the judgment, whether numeric or not, on the quality of the translated text" (Conde, 2013, p. 97). In this case study, the assessment results are based on the scores and comments from the reviewers. Scores from the reviewers were calculated to obtain the averages, which were then converted to percentages. The assessment results are presented in table 5 showing criteria, average scores for each criterion and the overall average score. These overall scores are the basis to rank the translations, in which the result assessments from all year levels are compared to identify if there is any progress between year levels.

Criteria	Year 1 %	Year 2 %	Year 3 %	Average %
UNDERSTANDING	60	84.4	82.2	75.5
TERMINOLOGY	43.3	52.2	48.8	48.1
REGISTER	60	70	70	66.6
STYLE	58.8	73.3	68.8	66.9
CONSISTENCY	64.4	77.7	76.6	72.9
CLARITY	41.1	47.7	44.4	44.4
GRAMMAR	37.7	43.3	43.3	41.4
SPELLING	58.88	64.4	75.5	66.2
OVERALL	53.02	64.12	63.70	60.25

Table 5 Reviewers' scores for Politeknik Negeri Padang students' translation work

Based on the external reviewers' assessment, I identify several key points for discussion below.

6.4.1 The reviewers consider that the students have a very good understanding

Table 5 shows that, overall, the reviewers consider that students have a very good understanding. Understanding is the key to translating a source text. Though the reviewers did not have access to the source text, the translated text provided them with an impression or feeling whether the translators understood the text as it can be seen from the translation result. According to PACTE (2017),

> The translator, in order to translate, has to implement a complex mental process to be able to understand the meaning transmitted and then reformulate it via another language, bearing in mind the needs of the end reader and the purpose of the translation.

At this stage, competence plays an important role in both linguistic and extra-linguistic competences (see section 2.3).

Based on their assessment, the external reviewers believe that Politeknik Negeri Padang students demonstrated a quite good understanding of the source text, as the total average understanding score for the whole year was 75.5%. The first-year students attained the lowest score (60%). Subsequently, the second and the third-year students received higher scores of 84.4% and 82.2% respectively. The reason was probably that higher-level students had already been more exposed to business texts. Contrary to the scores given, reviewers were concerned that the students' understanding was not well reflected on their translation. It can be seen from their comments such as:

- The translator clearly understands the text, but has not expressed it in a standard and correct manner of writing and word use.
- Understanding significantly impacted by poor grammar, punctuation, capitalization, etc.

From these comments, it seems that the reviewers consider that the students understand the source text well, due to the fact that it is in Indonesian and dealing with the latest issues prominent in Indonesian media. However, it is important to note that understanding is not only related to language skills but also to knowledge of the subject matter, particularly of business texts. The reviewers' beliefs are that translators usually have a good command of the source language which helps them understand the source text. However, error analysis (see Chapter 7) will uncover that being a speaker of Indonesian does not guarantee that the students understand the text very well.

6.4.2 The reviewers consider that message transference is poor

The reviewers claimed that the translations lacked clarity about many details, and their overall score for this aspect was 44.4%. This is concerning because on the surface at least, it could mean that more than half of the text is incomprehensible. In other words, the reviewers did not understand most of the message the student translators attempted to deliver. Their comments varied. The worst comment from the reviewers was when they claimed that they could not understand much at all, as in “Extremely difficult to understand”. However, on a quite positive note, reviewers still considered that some translations were generally sufficiently clear:

- Mostly quite understandable with a few very confusing uses.
- General ideas are fairly clear, but some details are not clear at all.

From those comments, it emerges that reviewers were disappointed because translations were not clear. There were no comments showing that the translations had a clear message. It is the translators’ responsibility to reformulate the message via another language: in this phase, the translators need strategic competence (Albir, 2017; see section 2.3 in Chapter 2 for types of translation competence). This competence plays a central role in the translation process. As translators are required to solve both linguistic and extra-linguistic problems, this competence activates others, such as linguistic and instrumental competence, which are helpful in identifying, assessing, and choosing the best method to solve these problems (see Figure 2, Section 2.3.2). For example, when translating an idiom, strategic competence will help resolve the challenge by paraphrasing or finding culturally equivalent words to ensure sufficient clarity.

Related to the lack of clarity, the reviewers provided more information on what made them consider the translations unclear. In this case, terminology and grammatical problems contributed to a lack of clarity, reflected in the scores on both criteria: the average score for terminology was only 48.1% while for grammar it was even lower (41.4%). According to the reviewers:

- This has untranslated terms in it, so I don't know what they are talking about. Many incomplete sentences and poor grammar. Phrases used are strange.
- Very strange word use. I am not sure what some phrases mean but can get the general idea of the article.
- Indonesian terms are not translated; I don't know what KPR is.

"KPR" is the abbreviation of "Kredit Kepemilikan Rumah" or "Home loan", information that indeed English native speakers would not have. Regarding the grammatical problems, the reviewers consider that first-year students showed "Little attempt to use English sentence structure and English word use". Instead of following the English grammatical rules, the students used "telegraphic syntax", where they put the words together in a sentence, but some function words may have been omitted. Then, in their attempt to understand the message, the reviewers must guess the relationships between those words. An example of the telegraphic style taken from first year students translation work is: "If haven't cash money for pay ticket and hotel, you can use credit card but ask the instalment of three until six months so that the interest not big". The sentence contains missing words that make it ungrammatical.

Most of the comments made by the reviewers complained about the lexical and grammatical problems they found. For example, the reviewers mentioned: "Word use very hard to understand, contains incorrect tenses, incorrect idioms, strange sentence structure", and they contain "Untranslated terms and abbreviation. A lot of incorrect word use, grammar poor". Yet, it seems that the reviewers were quite satisfied with the style and register of translation: both these criteria received higher scores compared to terminology and grammar. Moreover, the reviewers did not provide any comments related to register; there is a possibility that the nature of the source text does not contain a lot of register variation. In addition, only 2% comments were made about style. Hence, it can be assumed that the reviewers found that both style and register in students' translation were tolerable, or they might have focused on other assessment criteria which they considered more significant in assessing the students' translation.

Regarding style, the reviewers made comments that the style used is incorrect, which results in inconvenience while reading. In certification tests such as ATA and NAATI, style is not crucial and does not heavily impact on the readers' understanding of the translated text. Furthermore, style can be considered as a non-core parameter. The main parameter is how accurate the translators transfer the information in the source text. Hence, Koby and Champe (2013, p. 165) argue that the translation test is "test for professional translators who, by and large, are working with texts that are information intensive, rather than style-intensive".

6.4.3 The reviewers consider that the overall quality of students' translation is low

Since the scores awarded in this assessment are positive, they show the quality of translation works. In this way, we can see the progress among the year levels. The following Figure 18 compares the overall translation score for each year level.

Figure 18 PNP students' translation quality

As shown in the above figure, the curve does not show a significant increase and the highest score reached is 64.12%. The average total score for the whole year level is 60.25%. Based on Politeknik Negeri Padang's grading system (see Chapter 3), any score in the range ≥ 60 < 65 is awarded a C+ (Average). Though C+ is not considered as a Fail, it is not the target of Politeknik Negeri Padang, which aims at producing graduates with competence levels above 70% (See Politeknik Negeri Padang grading systems, Chapter 3). Therefore, this study will recommend possible improvements that should be made to increase the students' competence level.

Figure 18 also further shows students' competence in each year level. Based on the figure, first-year student translations received the lowest score, which could mean that they have the lowest translation competence. This result is obvious because the data was taken from the first translation unit offered in Semester 2, and the translation tasks might have been more challenging for first-year students. As already mentioned in Chapter 4, there is no English language requirement for enrolment in the English Department at Politeknik Negeri Padang. Thus, first-year students need to learn the basics of English while also beginning their translation course. In this case, they are struggling to learn both. Introduction to translation is the first translation unit for them and hence the first time they learn about translation. Therefore, they have less experience and exposure to translation tasks. This result is aligned with a study conducted by Quinci (2015) at the University of Trieste, who found that first-year students have the lowest score in translation competence.

Nevertheless, reviewers seem to understand this situation: although they gave first-year students the lowest score in the style rubric, they did not include style in the comments. The reason might be because they can tolerate such errors more than other types. On the other hand, reviewers made complaints related to the style criterion for second- and third-year translation work. Evidently, they seem to presume a higher quality from these students, with the expectation that they should pay attention to style as well.

The lowest score for translation rank was awarded to first-year students. Scores for second and third year are almost the same, which may suggest that these students have a similar translation competence level. Second-year scores in some criteria, such as clarity and terminology, are slightly higher than the third year, although this difference is not significant: Figure 18 has indicated that there is no progress between these year levels. This is contrary to research on translation competence of university students in various countries conducted by Kim (2013), Quinci (2015) and Shreve (2018), which reports rising levels of competence across the year levels. Indeed, this kind of trend was expected in this study, and yet it is not the case. One possible reason is that the PNP curriculum and syllabus have been designed to expose third year students to more varied text types with higher levels of difficulty. With this in mind, third year students have more translation experience which would seem to suggest they would also have more translation competence than first- and second-year students.

Unfortunately, the assessment result indicates that the learning outcome expected through curriculum and syllabus design are not successfully achieved. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the translation course at Politeknik Negeri Padang aims at making translators ready for the industry with adequate translation competence. Since external reviewers acted as the target readers, their assessments clearly demonstrate that the acceptability of Politeknik Negeri Padang students' translation works is low; as the intended audience, the translation reviewers could not consistently comprehend the translated texts.

It seems that the problem at Politeknik Negeri Padang is in part caused by their assessment system. It has been mentioned in Chapter 3 that the Politeknik has no detailed translation assessment with qualitative evaluation. However, assessment is significant because

> in a translator training program that focuses on professional preparation, it is reasonable to apply standards for evaluating translated texts that are similar to (if perhaps initially less stringent than) professional testing and quality evaluation (QE) standards (Koby, 2015, p. 222).

The idea is to make students aware of expected translation standards as well as to familiarise them with the industry. However, the assessment applied in Politeknik Negeri Padang is far from professional testing, due to the lack of specific assessment criteria. In the absence of assessment criteria, teachers just provide scores based on their subjective general assessment, which according to Brugué and Giró (2015), is easier for the teachers but brings no advantage to students. On the other hand, they claim that students would benefit from having an assessment with the specific criteria which would allow them to identify their mistakes and potentially address them.

Students repeating the same mistakes may indicate that there is no significant progress. This seems to be the case at Politeknik Negeri Padang, which can be seen by comparing some comments provided by the external reviewers for each year level.

1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year
• Some confusing sentences and paragraph, poor word use	• Word use awkward, grammar poor but can more be understood	• Not clear what this is about, untranslated terms sometimes, word use, grammar poor
• Contain untranslated terms, word use awkward and incomprehensible	• Strange spelling and poor grammar, not natural, hard to understand because of grammar mistakes	• Grammar and word use very poor. Has made up words, I don't really understand what this is about
• Full of incorrectly used words, very hard to understand, poor grammar	• Very bad grammar and word use. Contains made up words.	• Word use very hard to understand, contains incorrect tenses, incorrect idioms, strange sentence structure

Table 6 Comparison of comments from external reviewers

Comments provided in the above Table 6 are representative of most of the other ones as they were very similar. It appears that reviewers have repeated similar comments for students at each year level showing that the same mistakes are repeated. Moreover, it can be seen that students at all year levels produce lexical and grammatical errors with a similar level of severity, as the reviewers kept using the same adjectives, "bad" and "poor", in their comments. The reviewers did not specify the errors as they were not required to do so. Error analysis conducted in Chapter 7 will build on the reviewers' opinions by identifying the types of errors students produced. It seems that students should have been able to avoid repeating the same mistakes if they had experienced reliable and valid assessments.

Regarding the lack of assessment, there is a possibility that this problem is related to Politeknik Negeri Padang human resources, particularly the teaching staff who are responsible for designing the translation syllabus and assessment. It has been mentioned in Chapter 3 that 90% of teaching staff graduated from the English Language Teaching program, not from a Translation program. Furthermore, no staff has received any translation teaching training. The situation may affect the way teachers teach translation, particularly in assessment. Ultimately, this will likely impact the translation teaching quality and its outcomes. Garbovskiy and Kostikova (2021, p. 58) claim that "experience shows that neither teachers of foreign languages nor translators and interpreters are able to efficiently train interpreters and translators on their own without undergoing additional training". Furthermore, they argue that though language teachers are familiar with translation as part of their language teaching, it is completely different from teaching translation, and that even translator teachers need to undergo translation teaching training. The idea of including language teachers in translation training has been supported by Pym (2021), who considers it as a common part of language teachers’ methodology. In this way he sees that students also gain some translation knowledge. Nevertheless, he notes that in some countries like China, translation training is conducted by language teachers. A similar situation also occurs in Indonesian universities, particularly at Politeknik Negeri Padang. Therefore, translation teaching training is significant because it can guide translator teachers on how to design the syllabus and the assessment. With this in mind, Orlando (2019) conducted a survey to find the most important topic sought in translation teaching training, and found that besides curriculum design, assessment was the most requested topic by translation teachers. This indicates that teachers realise the benefits of having a valid and reliable assessment to assist the development of students’ translation competence. The results of reviewers’ assessment as outlined in this chapter has suggested that there is improvement needed in the translation assessment at Politeknik Negeri Padang.

6.5 Conclusion

Based on the reviewer assessments, Politeknik Negeri Padang students’ translation works quality is low. Moreover, scores between year levels do not show significant difference. This is really concerning as it suggests there is no significant progress in Politeknik Negeri Padang students’ translation competence across the year levels, implying that significant improvement is needed. Examining the detail, 85.5% of reviewers’ comments were related to lexical and grammatical problems, indicating a concern about these. Moreover, these problems impacted on the translation quality. In a similar way, Bittner (2020) mentions that lexis and grammar are the most common factors contributing to low translation quality. While she explains that syntax or sentence structure differences between source and target languages can be acceptable because they can be translated into different structures without impacting the meaning, grammatical problems can heavily impact the overall translation quality as identified by reviewers’ comments.

Based on these reviewer assessments, this chapter identifies lexical and grammatical issues as key categories for error analysis to be examined in Chapter 7. In this next chapter, I will present selected samples of translation works by students where key categories of lexical and grammatical issues will be discussed in comparison to the source texts. This will enable a deeper analysis of equivalence between translated texts and source texts. Finally, any translation issues which is not detected by the external assessment, such as factual issues, will also be discussed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7
Error Analysis of PNP Students' Business Translation Work

Recognising the importance of addressing common types of student errors in language and translation education, in this chapter I identify key categories of student errors as evident in the data set of this study. We have seen that "errors" can be defined as the deviation of a translation due to a lack of linguistic competence (Nord, 1991) or as unsolved translation problems caused by lack of translation knowledge (Orozco, 2000). The process of error analysis is part of a pedagogical strategy for identifying errors in order to be able to suggest potential solutions to remedy regularly occurring ones. In this case study, understanding errors will help us to understand the problems in PNP students' translation competence. Furthermore, it will provide information on how PNP's translation program may contribute to the problems, which will help us to formulate recommendations to address those problems (see Chapter 8). The most common general types of errors were defined in Chapter 6 as lexical and grammatical. However, the error analysis I have conducted shows that there is another type of error (factual) to be discussed here. This type of error was not detected in the external reviewers' assessment, which is understandable because they did not have access to the source text. Therefore, I now present concrete examples of these most common errors as they occurred in actual students' work at PNP during the period 2017-2018.

As outlined in Chapter 5, the data of this research was processed through two stages of analysis. Error analysis is conducted as the second stage because it is a necessary complement to the first stage – the external reviewer assessment – which has been discussed in Chapter 6. Error analysis is important because it can inform us about the errors produced as well as the possible causes of the errors. More importantly, it can tell us whether the errors have a serious impact on translation quality. In other words, error analysis is aimed at discovering quality based on translation accuracy and adequacy, while the external reviewer assessment is aimed at observing the overall quality of students' works based on translation acceptability from the target readers' perspective.

Having both stages of analysis is important because students need to understand that a successful translation is assessed based on its acceptability, accuracy, and adequacy (Shreve, 2018). Acceptability means that the translation is well accepted by the target readers, which is usually shown from their reaction towards the translation. Accuracy and adequacy mean that the messages contained in the translation are accurately transferred from the source text, which can be seen by comparing the translation and the source text. In this research, the result of external reviewers' assessment of PNP student translations indicates that there is low acceptability from the external reviewers' perspective. In this case, the quality of PNP students' translation works is quite low, as both the scores and comments from reviewers suggest that the students' translations have poor clarity due to the presence of lexical and grammatical errors. Importantly, the reviewer's assessment also indicates that there is no significant progress observable in PNP students' translation works across the 3 year levels.

Low 'acceptability' of translations indicates problems with accuracy and adequacy, which can be investigated through error analysis. In this sense, comprehensively assessing accuracy and adequacy can only be done by involving the source text to check the original message and to see if the message is transferred properly into a target text. Failure to transfer the message properly means that the target text is not equivalent to its source text. Though Newmark (1989) argues that there will never be absolute equivalence between the source and the target, Hansen (2010) considers a lack of equivalence as translation errors, particularly in translation education. Equivalence, however, is considered an important criterion to measure the success of students' translation processes. This chapter focuses on error analysis of students' business translation works. Here, some selected samples of errors are discussed based on the main key categories developed from external reviewers' assessment (lexical and grammatical errors) and the error analysis conducted by the researcher (factual errors). The words or phrases which are being discussed are printed in bold. However, the samples are not presented in complete sentences (see Appendix 5 for more samples). To keep the focus on the error discussed, any other inaccuracies translation shown in the sample are going to be ignored. The discussion is expanded to the nature of errors, possible causes and the potential solutions.

7.1 Linguistic and factual errors

In translation education, any target text which is not equivalent to its source text is suspected to contain translation errors. Hence, the notion of equivalence has become significant in error analysis because it is considered as the basis of translation evaluation (House, 2015; Colina, 2019). There has been some debate on the concept of equivalence, namely whether it should be defined from a linguistic or functional perspective (see Chapter 2). However, this case study focuses on linguistic equivalence because translation training in Indonesia is still considered as part of language competence (Dewi, 2015). In Indonesia, the focus of translation training and assessment is still on the linguistic aspects of equivalence. This approach is also commonly adopted by translation programs around the world, especially for students in the early stages of training (Gile, 2009). The notion of equivalence also influences the categorisation of errors, as Munday (2008) suggests that translation errors are corrected based on the notion of equivalence adopted by the translation teacher. In other words, when teachers adopt linguistic equivalence as a measure of quality, they focus on the linguistic aspects of the translation. In this way, errors would fall under linguistic categories. It is important to have categories in error analysis; according to Hansen (2009, p. 313),

> classification categories contribute to the clarity when we have to describe and explain phenomena like, for example, errors and necessary changes in a translated text that has to be corrected.

In other words, error discussion should be conducted systematically by developing relevant categories of errors. Instead of analysing each error individually, it is more effective and efficient to sort them in specific categories since some of them are repeated.

As discussed in section 4.6, different scholars have different foundations in classifying errors. For example, both Pym (1992) and House (2015) categorise errors based on their nature; they consider whether they might be categorised as objective, such as grammatical errors, or subjective, such as lexical ones. On the other hand, Nord (2018) and Hansen (2010) categorise errors based on their source. As understanding the reason behind the errors is the most important thing in this study to seek for the possible recommendation for PNP, this study combines Nord's and Hansen's approaches (see section 4.6). Nord's linguistic translation error category is aligned with the key categories developed in this study based on an external reviewer assessment, which confirmed that lexical and grammatical errors are the main issues in PNP students' business translation works. It has been pointed out in Chapter 6 that there is no translation brief assigned to students in the PNP program or in this data sampling which requires students to follow a particular style and cultural adaptation. For these reasons, pragmatic and cultural translation error categories are not a key focus to this study and are not explicitly examined. The main focus of this analysis is linguistic translation errors, and so discussion of this category may inherently include pragmatic and cultural aspects, as those aspects are presented in linguistic forms. Moreover, in this case study, the external reviewers suggest that the students' lack of English proficiency means dealing with translation problems other than linguistic is even more difficult. Regarding this, Nord writes that

> students with inadequate proficiency in the two languages involved will not be able to focus on pragmatic or cultural translation problems in an appropriate way. Translating will then become no more than an instrument for foreign language learning, with the focus on linguistic correctness rather than communicative or functional appropriateness. (2018, p. 45)

Nord's statement accurately describes the situation in Indonesian translation education, such as at PNP. In Indonesia, applicants are not tested on their bilingual proficiency level; this case study has demonstrated that a lack of bilingual proficiency leads students to make linguistic errors.

Furthermore, the data also shows some factual information (content) presented in the students' translation, which is different from the source text. These errors were found after conducting error analysis, which falls into Hansen's factual error category. These kinds of errors were not detected by the external reviewers because they did not have access to the source text to clarify them. However, accuracy of content needs to be considered in discussion and such inaccuracies should be recognised as errors. With this in mind, errors produced by PNP students in business translation are categorised as lexical, grammatical, and factual errors. Lexical errors deal with incorrect vocabulary use; grammatical errors refer to grammatical mistakes found in the translation; and factual errors relate to inaccuracies in content.

7.1.1 Lexical errors

Based on the result of external reviewer assessment and error analysis, lexical errors are found to be one of the biggest sources of translation vagueness, which later contributes to the target reader's misunderstanding. Lexical errors discussed here are any words used leading to ambiguous and incorrect meaning. These errors are further classified into polysemy and homonymy, borrowed or loan words, Indonesian terminology, idiomatic expressions, untranslated terms and unusual word usage.

7.1.1.1 Polysemy and homonymy

Errors in polysemy and homonymy are defined as errors when the translated words are incorrectly used based on context. Polysemy requires students to recognise whether a word contains denotative or connotative meaning based on the context. The first example is when the student translated the word "*terkait*" in "*...aturan pemerintah **terkait** pemberlakuan pajak khusus…*" as "hooked" in "*…government arrangement **hooked** special tax...*". The word "terkait" is polysemous and derived from the noun base "*kait*". Based on the official Indonesian Dictionary, KBBI (The Great Dictionary of Indonesian Language), the denotative meaning of "*kait*" which represents the real object is "*alat biasanya dari besi yang ujungnya melentuk*" (device usually made of metal with a curved tip). Meanwhile, when the suffix "*ter*" is added, as in "*terkait*", it can mean "*sudah terkait menggunakan kait*" (already hooked to), as in "The picture is hooked to the wall", but it can also have the connotative meaning of "*bersangkut paut atau berhubungan*" (related to). However, the context of the source text is Indonesian government regulations in relation to a special tax. Here, the word "*kait*" is used in a connotative way. It is as if there is an imaginary hook between the government regulation and the special tax to describe the relationship between those objects. Unfortunately, the student decided to translate it literally as "hooked" referring to the real object. It not only distorts the meaning but also is confusing for readers. The student translator should have transferred the connotative meanings into the target text. With this in mind, a possible translation could have been "…government arrangements **related to** a special tax...".

Another example is when the student translated the Indonesian verb "mematikan" as "turn off". This verb can mean "*membunuh*" or "kill", which is denotative meaning. However, it can also mean "*menjadikan sesuatu mati*", literally "to make something no longer alive". The second meaning can be denotative or connotative based on the subject being discussed. In Indonesian, a real object such as a TV being operated is referred to as "*hidup*" or literally "alive", which makes "*mematikan TV*" or "make the TV unalive" denotative because it is physically true. However, when it comes to an abstract object such as business, "*mematikan*" has a connotative meaning because it is not physically unalive. Meanwhile, the context is the online trading sector, an abstract object; the source sentence is *"Penerapan pajak pada e-commerce dikhawatirkan bisa* ***mematikan*** *sektor belanja daring*". Here, "*mematikan*" is intended to have a connotative meaning. However, the student translated it as "turn off": "the implementation of tax on e-commerce is feared to **turn off** the online shopping sector." In English, "turn off" can have both a denotative and connotative meaning. When "turn off" means "to stop the operation or activity" such as "turning off a TV", it is considered as a denotative meaning. However, it also has a connotative meaning such as in "to affect with boredom", "to lose interest" or "to stop paying attention". In a business context, "*mematikan*" is more appropriately translated as "shut down" because it means "to prevent (a business, etc.) from operating".

Homonymy deals with similar words, but the similarities are varied, resulting in homographs and homophones. An example of a homograph occurs in the word "*sanksi*" in the sentence "*Sesuai Peraturan Menkominfo pula, ada* ***sanksi*** *bagi pelanggan yang tidak melakukan proses registrasi*". According to KBBI, "*sanksi*" refers to "punishment". However, the student translated it as "doubt": "Based on Menkominfo adjusment anyway, there are **doubt** for customer who doesn't registration process." In Indonesian, "doubt" means "*sangsi*", which refers to "feeling not confident". Though "*sanksi*" and "*sangsi*" have different spellings, they both have the same pronunciation which makes them homophones. Although strange, the possible reason is that the student searched for "*sangsi*" instead of "*sanksi*" in a bilingual dictionary because that was the word they were thinking of.

The following example shows students' errors in translating homographs. The sample is in the noun "*pos*" as in "*Untuk* ***pos belanja oleh-oleh****, sebaiknya tidak lebih dari 10% dari total anggaran liburan*." The context is a financial planner's advice on budgeting for a holiday. Based on KBBI, "*pos*" is a homograph which enables it to have a different meaning based on the context. "Pos" as a general noun means "*surat-surat dan sebagainya yang dikirim dengan perantara pos*" (letters sent by postal system). Here, however, "pos" is a financial term meaning "*bagian mata* *anggaran belanja*" (parts of spending budget). Hence, the student translated it as "mail", as in "For the **mail of souvenir expense**, should no more than 10% from the estimate holiday total." Indeed, "pos" in association to letters is more familiar to the student as it is part of their daily life; however, s/he need subject matter knowledge in finance to recognise that "pos" can have a different meaning, and should have been translated as "gift budget".

The student translated the verb "*menerbitkan*" as "rise" in "The government will be **rise** the tax's rule to the buying and selling sektor of online (e-commerce)...". In English, "rise' means "moving upward" which is used when talking about a physical object, such as "the sun rises" or "a balloon rose up to the air". However, the source sentence was about tax regulations: "*Pemerintah akan **menerbitkan** aturan pajak untuk sektor jual beli online* (e-commerce)...". The source of the problem comes from the base form of verb "*menerbitkan*", which is "*terbit*". "*Terbit*" can mean "*naik dan keluar (tentang bulan dan matahari)*" – "appear and move upward" (for the moon and sun), which can be translated as "rise". It can also mean "*keluar untuk diedarkan (untuk majalah atau surat kabar)*" or "appear to be distributed (for magazines and newspaper)", which can be translated as "publish". As the context is regulations which are going to be distributed, students should have translated it as "published", as in "The government will **publish** the tax rule…"

Furthermore, one word may have more than one meaning based on the context. In the case of polysemy, the meaning can be denotative or connotative. Naturally, context plays an important role in deciding the meaning of two similar words which are homonymous; however, PNP students tend to adopt the denotative meaning and inaccurately translate certain words without adequately considering the context, as demonstrated by the examples above.

7.1.1.2 Borrowed or loan words

In this type of error, borrowed words from other languages are translated incorrectly. An example of this is the use of the word "beleid" in the sentence: "*Penetapan tarif batas bawah tiket pesawat merujuk Peraturan Menteri Perhubungan No. 14/2016. Dalam **beleid** tersebut, …*". The student thought that "beleid" was borrowed from English, with the original spelling and pronunciation; thus, they left the term untranslated: "Determination the price of lower limit on airplane tickets are reffering to regulations minister of communication No 14/2016.

On this **beleid**,...”. The context is the new regulation for airline ticket prices issued by the Minister of Transportation. “Beleid” here refers to the letter of decision from the minister; it is actually borrowed from Dutch, meaning “decree”. This reflects a trend where students tended to assume that loan words were from English.

Another example is where student recognised that the term “kurs”, in the sentence “*penggunaan kartu kredit tidak disarankan karena **kursnya** cenderung lebih mahal*”, is a loan word. The context is a recommendation not to use a credit card due to the different currency used and the fluctuating rate making it more expensive. Based on the KBBI, “*kurs*” means “the value of a currency stated in another currency”. This word is borrowed from the Dutch term “*koers*” referring to the exchange rate. It is generally quite easy to recognise a loan word from the spelling and word form which appears odd to speakers of Indonesian; however, the student could not find the English equivalent term, and decided to make a guess and translate it as “curs” (“using credit card shouldn’t because the **curs** more expensive”) instead of “exchange rate”.

Another interesting example is the word “*investasi*” translated into “investation”. Here, the student tended to over-generalize the rule that any loan word ending in -asi is derived from an English word ending with -ation, such as “*komunikasi*” and “*transportasi*”, while the English term for “*investasi*” is “investment”. Indonesians tend to consider this word as derived from “investment”, while some suggest that it is derived from the Italian “*investire*” which means “*memakai*” or “*menggunakan*” [to use] (Kamus keuangan, 2021). On the other hand, Lanin (2012) argues that it is derived from Dutch “*investatie*”, which means “cash flow from investment”. By considering Indonesian history, it seems a greater possibility that it is derived from Dutch.

Further errors which seemed to be caused by student guessing occurred when translating the term “*polis*” in the sentence “*…tak satu pun yang akhirnya dibayarkan sesuai dengan ketentuan dalam **polis**...*”. “*Polis*” was translated as “police”. However, the text is about a claim dispute between Allianz Insurance and a customer. According to KBBI, “*polis*” is “an agreement letter between insurance company and the clients containing terms and condition of the insurance”, or “policy” in English. The spelling and pronunciation of “*polis*” and “police” are similar, suggesting that the students thought that “polis” was borrowed from the English word “police”. This phenomenon is also known as a ‘false friend’ or ‘false cognate', in which two words probably derived from a similar root; this makes them look similar, but they have different meanings.

Errors in loan words are defined as mistakes occurring when translating words derived from foreign languages. In the case of this data, this included words from English and other languages such as Dutch. Translating these words should be done by referring to the meaning of the source word. They should be handled carefully as it may lead to errors resulting from false cognates. However, PNP students translated loan words as if all of them were derived from English, and generally followed the same spelling, such as in "*beleid*", "*kurs*", "*investasi*" and "*polis*".

7.1.1.3 Indonesian terminology

Indonesian terminology errors involved any words which were translated into English with a different meaning than the intended one. This is highlighted by the example of the word "gadget", which is a very popular term in Indonesia. However, this word was replaced by "*gawai*", which according to KBBI, it is an unpopular old Indonesian term from Malay referring to any equipment or device. Subsequently, the following new definition was added to the KBBI: "electronic and mechanical device with practical function, gadget". The term *gawai* is becoming more widely used, but people are still more familiar with "gadget". In that case, when the student translated "gawai" from the sentence "*...penjualan terbesar ada pada barang elektronik,* ***aksesoris gawai****, dan fashion*", they decided to omit it: "…most or 85 percent is UKM with the largest is in electronic, **accessories** and fashion." The context is the biggest selling items during an expo. The omission of the word "gadget" changes the intended message because "accessories" is too general, while the context is specific to "gadget accessories". There is a significant possibility that the student was not familiar with the term "*gawai*", and its equivalence with the term "gadget".

Another new term introduced is "*dalam jaringan*", with "daring" as the acronym referring to "connected to internet network". It has been introduced to replace a popular foreign word in Indonesia, "online". Unfortunately, the student is still not familiar with this term: while translating the sentence "*Toko modern* ***dalam jaringan (daring)*** *Lazada mengaku akan mengikuti aturan pemerintah…"*, "dalam jaringan" was literally as "in network": "modern store **in network**...". This translation is not correct as it does not suit the context which is an online store.

Errors in Indonesian terminology can be caused by misunderstandings. Translating Indonesian terms requires a familiarity with both the context and the terms used. However, these examples show that PNP students were unfamiliar with new Indonesian terms such as "gawai" and "*dalam jaringan* (daring), particularly when they were more familiar with their commonly used English equivalents.

7.1.1.4 Idiomatic expressions

Errors in idiomatic expressions are related to the use of figurative language. In instances of such errors, the translation does not fit the context. An example is the idiomatic expression "*kantong tidak jebol*" in the sentence "*supaya pelesiran Anda bisa tetap fun dan **kantong tidak jebol***". The context is holiday budget planning, where the financial planner uses that expression to describe how a person would run out of money. In Indonesian, "pocket" is commonly used as a metaphorical way to refer to someone's financial condition. For example, "your pocket is full" means that this person has a lot of money; on the other hand, if someone "has an empty pocket", it means he or she has no money. "*Kantong jebol*" means there is a hole in the pocket, implying money is being lost and resulting in an "empty pocket". However, the students translated it literally as "the pocket not perforated", which might be incomprehensible for readers. There is a similar English expression which could have been used: "burning a hole in your pocket", which means "you are eager to spend it as soon as possible especially for something you do not need that much but that you would like to have"[21]. Although this idiom is not completely compatible, it may have been possible to use it in this instance. Alternatively, as this translation was from a newspaper where the message is more important, the students could just have translated it as "you are not running out of money".

In another example, the students also made errors in translating an idiomatic expression with "pocket" when translating the sentence "*Paytren kini dibekukan lantaran masih belum **mengantongi** izin*". In this sentence, "*mengantongi*" or "pocketing" is a verb derived from the noun "*kantong*" or "pocket". In this case, "*mengantongi*" means "*memasukan dalam kantong*", or "to put something in a pocket". However, it is also a metaphorical way to say "*mendapatkan*", or "to get". However, the student translated it literally as "pocketed": "Paytren now is suspended

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[21] https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/burn-a-hole-in-your-pocket

because it still has not **pocketed** permission". The context in this sentence is Paytren not receiving permission from the central bank. Hence, "pocketed" is not acceptable in this context, and should have been translated as "granted".

The next example contains the idiomatic expression "*perpanjangan tangan*" in the sentence "*Bahkan koperasi sekolah bisa dijadikan Agen46 sebagai* ***perpanjangan tangan*** *Bank, sehingga pencairan PIP bisa langsung dilakukan di koperasi sekolah tempat penerima PIP berada*". The student had attempted not to translate "tangan" literally as "hand" because, according to KBBI, it has thedenotative meaning of "*anggota badan dari siku sampai ujung jari*" or "part of body from elbow to finger". In fact, s/he seem to be aware that "hand" here means "*kekuasaan, pengaruh, or perintah*" or "power, influence, or order". The context is making *koperasi sekolah* or the *school cooperation*[22] to be a part of Agen46, a small institution which is granted power by BNI to cash the aid. In this way, BNI extends its authority to cash out the aid to the school cooperation, which makes it the "*perpanjangan tangan*". According to KBBI, "*perpanjangan*" literally means "*hal memperpanjang*" or act to make something longer. Hence, it seems that the students translated "*perpanjangan*" literally as "extension". The student finally decided to translate "perpanjangan tangan" as "extension bank", or "bank extension" following English grammar. However, "Bank extension" is not a business term, so it is incorrect. On the English version of BNI's official website, Agen46 is addressed a "partner"; hence, "perpanjangan tangan" could have been translated as "partner".

In the following example, the student translated an idiomatic expression literally. The source sentence "*Saat ini marketplace menjadi salah satu* ***wadah*** *resmi bagi penjual individu maupun perusahaan untuk berjualan*" has an idiomatic expression: "*wadah*". Literally, according to KBBI, "*wadah*" means "*tempat untuk menaruh atau menyimpan sesuatu*" or "a place to put or store something", but can also mean "*tempat berhimpun atau perhimpunan*" or "a place to get together or an association". Here, "*wadah*" refers to a place to gather the individual sellers or company, which are not physical objects. However, the student translated it as "container": "Nowadays marketplace becomes one of the official **containers** for individual sellers and companies to sell", which does not make sense. The student could just have

[22] School cooperation is a small business unit in schools involving teachers and students, each school has different business, but mostly they sell some stuff such as snacks, book, and uniform.

translated it as “place”: “Nowadays the marketplace becomes one of the official **places** for individual sellers and companies to sell”.

Translating idiomatic expressions cannot be done literally because the meaning will be different as it requires contextual consideration. However, PNP students tended to translate idiomatic expressions literally and word-for-word, which caused errors. This may be caused by the students’ lack of knowledge of Indonesian idioms or of strategies to translate idioms. Translating idioms with appropriate and common English idioms is also challenging because it requires cultural knowledge; hence, a common strategy is to paraphrase them. This is demonstrated in the examples presented above of “*kantong tidak jebol*” (not running out of money), “*mengantongi*” (granted), “*perpanjangan tangan*” (partner), and “*wadah*” (place).

7.1.1.5 Untranslated terms

These types of errors are easily recognised as the terms appear in translation in the source language. One of the example areas involves proper names. The proper name in this sentence is not translated by the students: “*Mendag mengatakan kosmetik dari bahan alami menjadi produk yang banyak dicari oleh delegasi dari* ***Timur Tengah, Eropa, dan Afrika***.” In this example, “***Timur Tengah, Eropa,*** **dan** ***Afrika***” were not translated, as they were supposed to, as “Middle East, Europe, and Africa”.

Another example is the abbreviation “KPR”, which stands for “Kredit Pemilikan Rumah”. This was left untranslated by the student in the target text: “Safir Senduk, a financial planner, says that restructure **KPR** done when we feel…”. As the target reader may not be familiar with Indonesian terms, it would be best to add an explanation.

The following example, “PT Bank Negara Indonesia (Persero) Listed Company BNI facilitated Senior High School, Vocational High School students and Study of Community to accept the aids of **Program Indonesia Pintar (PIP)** by using BNI **Simpanan Pelajar (SimPel)**” shows two terms left untranslated by the students. The first term is “Program Indonesia Pintar (PIP), which refers to an Indonesian government program to financially support students from disadvantaged families. This term could have been translated as “Smart Indonesia Programme”, which has been officially used on the socialprotection.org official website. The second term is “Simpanan Pelajar (SimPel)”, which refers to a saving product launched by BNI. As it is the name of the product, this term should not be translated, however, it should be accompanied by a description for readers to understand what the term means. Therefore, it can be translated as "Simpanan Pelajar (SimPel), a saving product for students".

Although "UKM" can be translated in English, the students left it untranslated in the sentence "Lazada, said alkatiri, now have 40 thousand the seller in Indonesia and most or 85 percent is UKM with the largest is in electronic, accessories and fashion." "UKM" is an abbreviation of "Usaha Kecil Menengah", a concept known in the global economy context as "Small Medium Enterprises (SMEs)".

There are various ways identified here in how terminology should be translated. Terms can be translated into English if the concepts are known in English culture, and if there are specific terms available. Otherwise, terms which are unique to the Indonesian context can be left untranslated but should be accompanied by a description or definition to help target readers understand the concept they represent. However, PNP students left certain terms untranslated even though the terms could be translated into English, either due to a lack of knowledge or familiarity with the equivalent words in English. Examples reflect specific knowledge, including 'business-related' concepts such as KPR and UKM. These terms should arguably be familiar to educated native speakers because they appear in the media and in political discourse. Unfortunately, it seems such terms are not general knowledge for PNP undergraduate students, which suggests that this kind of knowledge needs to be taught as a part of the business translation program.

7.1.1.6 Unusual word usage

This category refers to any unusual word usage found in students' translations. In this case, the word usages are not appropriate, and the source word and the translation have different meaning. An example is the verb "*dinilai*" in "*Aturan tersebut **dinilai** akan melindungi perdagangan daring*" which was translated as "quality": "The arrangement **quality** to protect trade". "Dinilai", however, means "assessed" or "valued". There is a big possibility that students thought that "nilai" is equal to "quality". However, the context is not about quality or value of the regulation. The verb "dinilai" is usually used to introduce an opinion, and as such it can be translated as "considered".

Another example is in the sentence "*Untuk penginapan, **usahakan** pilih hotel yang ada dapurnya…*" where the verb "*usahakan*" is translated as "efforts": "For the hotel, **efforts** to choice the hotel have kitchen...". *-kan* is an imperative suffix that Indonesian tertiary students should recognise and understand. The root of the word "*usahakan*" is "*usaha*" which means "any extra power". If we search for it in a bilingual dictionary, we will find the word "effort". It seems that the student searched for the base word "*usaha*" in the dictionary, either because s/he did not accurately understand the suffix -kan, or because s/he did not understand that "usaha" is noun form. However, "usahakan" should be translated as "try".

These examples show errors at the word level in translation. Applying such incorrect forms seems to be the result of PNP students' practice of using the base form of a word when searching for its English equivalent in a dictionary: "usahakan" and "dinilai" are verbs, but the base form, which arguably led to the incorrect translation, are "usaha" and "nilai". Unfortunately, this led to the production of an error as the meaning conveyed is different. This practice is closely related to telegraphic models of syntax, discussed in the following grammatical errors category.

7.1.2 Grammatical errors

Based on the results of external reviewers' assessments (see Table 5, Chapter 6), grammar is also considered to be an issue for the students, as reflected by the low scores and comments. However, the most important thing is that the message is expressed in correct grammatical terms (Nord, 2018). In the sections below, examples of grammatical errors are discussed, focusing on those most frequently occurring. As already mentioned, the focus is on the bold printed words while other errors such as lexical ones are not going to be discussed.

7.1.2.1 Incorrect use of 'to be'

This type of error deals with the incorrect use of "to be" in the target sentence. An example is: "Even **he still using** helm attribute gojek to supply passenger", which is supposed to be "even h**e still uses** helm attribute gojek..." or "even **he is still using** helm attribute gojek...". Another example is the sentence "Hiras explain, **there some consideration** for unilever in forge partnership with e-commerce", which should have been translated as ""Hiras explain, **there are some** consideration for unilever in forge partnership with e-commerce."

The following example also shows that students do not use the verb 'to be' when it is required. The sentence "This card **couldn't active**" uses the adjective "active" as the predicate instead of the base form of "to be" required by the modal "could", as in "This card **couldn't be** active". In other cases, students used "to be" when it was not required, as in the sentence "Minister of Trade admit **they are still have** a constraint that faced by businessman". The sentence uses the verb "have" as the predicate, which does not require "to be" except when the verb is progressive.

Furthermore, a passive sentence also requires "to be" although it uses a verb as a predicate. In the following example "…Haiyani Rumondang said in her written statement **that received** by Republika.co.id", the students failed to add "to be" where required. As the phrase is passive, it requires "to be" as in "…written statement **that was received** by Republika.co.id".

In English, there are many ways to use "to be". Any nominal sentence, passive sentence, and progressive sentence requires the verb "to be". However, PNP students sometimes were confused with the use of 'to be'. In this case, they did not use "to be" in a correct place but they put "to be" when it was not required.

7.1.2.2 Incorrect use of syntax

This type of errors specifically refers to an incorrect use of English syntax, such as the use of tense and compound nouns. The sentence "He **explained** that delegations from non traditionals countries such as Afrika Selatan, India, Timur Tengah, Nigeria, and Eurasia **are coming** and **make** a deal with Indonesian businessmen" shows that the tenses used are incorrect. The statement is about an event which happened in the past. The student uses the correct past tense for the verb "explained", but the incorrect one for "are coming" and "make", as the delegations have already visited Indonesia.

The following example, "customers can choose time periode from one until 16 weeks that can be **extend** with special requirements" also shows incorrect tenses. In this case, the phrase "that **can be extend** with special requirements" is passive as contains a modal and be, which need a past participle verb. Therefore, it should be "…that **can be extended** with special requirement".

Another example is related to subject-verb agreement in the sentence "**E-commerce have** different business style". In subject-verb agreement, the verb must agree with the subject: if the subject is in singular form, the verb should also be in singular form, and the same if the subject is plural. In this case, the subject "E-commerce" is singular, but the verb "have" is plural.

In another example, the sentence "William said, **the** more seller in tokopedia not just buy the product..." shows incorrect use of "the". In this case, "the" should be omitted because it is not needed as the noun "seller" is used with superlative adjective "more". Therefore, it should be "more seller**s**...". Moreover, the sentence is negative, and needs the auxiliary "do" before "not": "more sellers in Tokopedia do not just buy the product…".

In the sentence "Of course, the cancelled of **distribution bonus** is not even a big problem…", the student used an inappropriate noun compound: "cancelled of distribution bonus". The first problem is the position of the modified "bonus" and modifier "distribution". Here, the student followed the Indonesian grammatical rule in which the modifier is placed before the noun modified. However, it should be the other way round, as in "bonus distribution". Another problem is the use of the participle "cancelled", which should be the noun form "cancellation". The correct translation should be "cancellation of **bonus distribution**".

The following example also shows an incorrect compound noun: "Therefore, the country needs **a strong coorperation bilateral**". The compound noun "a strong cooperation bilateral" is incorrect because it follows Indonesian grammatical rules, which allow the noun ("cooperation") to be placed before the modifier ("bilateral"). Therefore, it should be translated as "a strong **bilateral cooperation**".

The following sentence shows that the students put two verbs ("sold" and "start") together as in "This luxury apartment is sold start from 3 billion rupiahs for one-bedroom type". The students use the verb "start" to show that the lowest price for the one-bedroom is 3 billion rupiah, which is already determined by the preposition "from". Therefore, the verb "start" should be removed: "These luxury apartments are sold from 3 billion rupiah for a one-bedroom type". These examples show that PNP students tended to follow Indonesian structures due to first language interference when translating texts, which is not an acceptable practice and can result in errors.

7.1.2.3 Prepositions

This type of error covers the incorrect use of English prepositions in PNP students' business translations. Preposition uses in English are varied; they can be used to name the location, part of prepositional phrases located after verbs, and part of compound nouns. However, the examples presented here are the ones that commonly occur.

One example is when a student translated the sentence “Airlangga menyampaikan akan bertemu dengan beberapa stakeholder…” as “Arilangga will meet with several stakeholder…”. The verb “bertemu” which is translated as “meet” is supposed to be translated without the preposition “dengan”, or “with”. Therefore, it is supposed to be translated as “Arilangga will meet several stakeholders…”. This indicates the influence of the student’s first language. Similarly, in the following sentence “Same **with**, Pandji Harsanto, the independent finances draftsman, said…”, the adjective “same” should have been followed by the preposition “as”, not “with”. In another example, students put the preposition “with” after the verb “worry”, as in the sentence “Her acknowledge not worried with noise that serve…”, because it was contained in the source sentence (“cemas dengan”).

Moreover, the students also appeared to have problems with the prepositions on, at, and in. The first example is when the student translator used “in site of Trade Expo Indonesia 32nd in the ICE-BSD City” instead of “at the 32nd Trade Expo Indonesia”. A further error is when students used the preposition “at” for the date instead of “on”, as in “…said ken at oct 6, 2017”. They also used the preposition “at” to indicate the name of a city, as in “A development targeted to BRT user, Parking Service, port, Army organisation, and also at Kudus”, instead of “in Kudus”.

The data also shows that student translators used the preposition “of” when it was not necessary or when other prepositions should have been used. For example, the sentence “make of trip plan to destination country” is an instruction to make travel plans, where “of” is superfluous. Another example shows how the students used the preposition “of” instead of other prepositions: “next calculate the ability of transportation expense” should have contained the preposition “for”, as in “next calculate the ability **for** transportation expense”. Another example is when a student wrote “the office operational gojek indonesia in padang city will [be] closed of official communications padang city” instead of “**by** official communication”. The student translator also used the preposition “of” to indicate possession, as in “…repay losses **of** Mariana about Rp2,8 billion” which should be translated as “…repay Mariana’s losses about Rp2,8 billion”.

The samples described above shows that PNP students are influenced by the use of Indonesian language. Particularly, the students tend to use the preposition "with" as in "meet with" and "same with" in the same way they use the Indonesian preposition "*dengan*" ("with"). Furthermore, they also demonstrate confusion in selecting the appropriate preposition ("on", "in", and "at") to indicate location. Finally, the students use the preposition "of" even when it is not required or when another preposition is required.

7.1.2.4 Intended message was not conveyed

This type of error covers any translation with the correct structure but containing the wrong message. It should be noted that a sentence which is structurally correct does not mean that it is grammatically correct because the sentence might not make sense. Structurally, there is nothing wrong with the following passive sentence, "The victim was submitted claim to Allianz Utama..." However, the sentence looks ungrammatical and illogical, as it is impossible for "a victim" to be submitted by "a claim". The original sentence was "**Korban** sudah mengajukan **klaim** ke **Allianz Utama…"** which does require a passive sentence.

The following wrong message is also resulted from using the passive instead of active form, as intended by the source sentence. The source sentence "Tahun kemarin kita sudah bantu sekitar 2.000 nasabah", meaning that the fintech has helped the customers, should have been translated as "we already helped almost 2000 customers"; however, it was rendered as "we **are already helped** almost 2000 customers", sending the message that the fintech received help from the customers.

The examples above show that the correct sentence might not always carry the right message. The problem is that the students changed the sentence structure from active to passive without paying attention to the subject and object. Therefore, the sentence acquired a different meaning and can be illogical.

7.1.2.5 Incorrect word form

This type of error occurred when the students' selected words with the wrong affix. Here, an affix can be significant in determining the word form and the meaning as well. An example is the sentence "This **luxury** apartment is sold start from 3 billion rupiahs for one-bedroom type" which shows that "luxury" is not the correct word form to be used. "Luxury" cannot be combined with "apartment" directly because they are both nouns. It was supposed to be in an adjectival form of “luxurious”. Therefore, the translation should be “These **luxurious** apartments are sold starting from 3 billion rupiah for a one-bedroom type”.

Similarly, this sentence “Offering high class **residential**, Century admited the target is buyers who are millennial” shows that the student uses an adjective form (residential), though a noun (residence) is required. In English, adding an affix will change a word from one class to another, such as from verb to noun or from adjective to noun. Though Indonesian language also has affixes, English has more of them with more varied usage. PNP students seems not to be very familiar with the rules of affixes in English as they used words with incorrect affixes such as “signature”, “billable”, “residential”, and “using”.

7.1.2.6 Telegraphic syntax

This type of error category refers to when the students’ sentences were hard to understand due to missing some grammatical elements. Here are some examples of telegraphic style.

> “Not if are sweeping. I sure friends public transportation too understand”.
> “The arrangement quality to protect trade.”
> “After that, recent of search the plane ticket and hotel.”
> “One of the driver gojek, Dafit (43), acknowledge order in the enter still high althought action demontrasi of driver public transportation tomorrow.”

In English, grammatical elements are crucial in connecting words together as well as to make the sentence meaningful. However, PNP students did not consistently use appropriate grammatical details. From the examples above, it can be seen that the meanings of sentences were unclear because some important parts were missing such as a subject or predicate. In such cases, sentences looked like a collection of words without coherent meaning.

7.1.3 Factual errors

As suggested by the name, factual errors occurred where content in target texts differed from that of the source text. According to Hansen (2010), this phenomenon might typically include names or abbreviations. This kind of error indicates that the students do not understand the concept. For example, students made factual errors in translating “bus anggota organda” which is erroneously translated as “Army organisation". The source text is talking about Tapcash, which is now used in many aspects of life. The example of the use of Tapcash is mentioned in the source sentence "Pengembangan dengan menyasar pengguna BRT, layanan parkir, masuk pelabuhan, **bus anggota organda**….". One of the examples is "organda", which is the abbreviation of "Organisasi Angkutan Darat", an organisation handling land transportation in Indonesia. It seems the students are not familiar with this abbreviation, though the word "bus" already provides a clue on what "organda" is. However, students decided to translate it as "army organisation": "A development targeted to BRT user, Parking Service, port, **Army organisation**,...".

Another error is when translating the name of departments in Indonesia. For example, in the sentence "**Direktur Jenderal Perhubungan Udara Kementerian Perhubungan** Agus Santoso mengatakan…", the bolded title should be translated as "General Director of Air Transportation". Yet, some students translated it as "General director of Air Communication" which is totally different.

The data above shows that PNP student do not have adequate subject matter knowledge. Sadly, this also shows their lack of research skills to find more information although they have the internet access to do so. They preferred to guess and translate without checking the details.

7.2 Error analysis findings

The result of error analysis, which was conducted by comparing the translation to the source text, confirmed the external reviewers' assessment results. It was found that PNP students' business translations contain many lexical and grammatical errors. In lexical criteria, the students have problems in determining the meaning based on the context, resulting from issues with polysemy and homonymy. When translating idiomatic expressions, they often translated literally without considering that the messages conveyed are different and that they would not fit the context in the target language. Moreover, they appeared not to be familiar with Indonesian loan words, and they tended to confuse false cognates. They often considered Indonesian words which looked similar to English words to have the same meaning, such as "polisi" (police) and "policy". In addition, they did not seem to be familiar with Indonesian local terminology, especially new words created to replace a loan, such as "gawai" to replace "gadget". These findings suggest that PNP translation students have low vocabulary knowledge in both Indonesian and English.

In grammatical criteria, the students produced errors even in basic English structures such as the use of 'to be'. They also confused when to use specific forms of verbs such as progressive, infinitive or past participle. They also had problems with the use of prepositions. However, sometimes when the sentences they produced were correct, the message was incorrect as it was different from the original message. Among the grammatical errors they produced, the external reviewers were concerned with the telegraphic syntax produced by the students. The term 'telegraphic syntax' refers to the concept of interlanguage, which has been discussed in Chapter 4. While interlanguage is a specific term for adult learners, telegraphic syntax is usually used to describe the stage of children's language learning where they are unable to produce complete and grammatical accurate sentences. In this case, the students produced incomplete sentences without necessary grammatical elements. This also reflects students' low English language competence. Another concerning finding is the occurrence of factual errors where the students provided imprecise content in their translation, which showed their lack of knowledge and lack of research skills.

Though these findings are the result of the case study for Politeknik Negeri Padang students, there are broader implications for translation education in Indonesia. The findings suggest that translation education in undergraduate programs in Indonesia is challenging. Undergraduate students in Indonesia appear to have low Indonesian and English language competence, which are essential requirements to becoming a translator. In addition, a translator is required to have adequate research skills to improve their knowledge of the subject matter; the internet can help them achieve that.

7.3 Conclusion

Selected samples of errors have been classified based on the combination between Nord and Hansen's errors categories. Both scholars classify errors based on the causes or the source of the errors, which are crucial to discover in error analysis. Based on the analysis conducted, it can be concluded that language interference from both source and target language as well as a lack of knowledge are the most common causes of errors. However, the analysis also reveals that the students also are not familiar with some Indonesian words, especially loan words. It is quite surprising that the students do not have a full understanding of their own language. They even made mistakes when encountering Indonesian homograph words such as "pos", which shows that students' language competence is still low. With this in mind, the external reviewers' belief that the students had a good understanding of the source text as it is in Indonesian might only be partially true. A lack of relevant knowledge is likely to contribute to students' misunderstandings of the source text. This can be seen when the students produced factual errors. Hence, it shows that when the translator misunderstands the source text, they will produce the wrong translation.

Both results of external reviewers' assessment discussed in Chapter 6 and error analysis in this chapter have shown that PNP student translators do not demonstrate satisfying performances. While this chapter only described the problems and categorised them based on the source of errors, the most important thing is to evaluate how the underlying issues of translation competence have caused these errors. Therefore, Chapter 8 is going to elaborate on PNP students' translation competence based on the PACTE model. Finally, the results of analysis of PNP institutional documents are going to be discussed to rule out the contribution of PNP translation program toward the errors, and the recommendations that can be proposed as the solution.

Chapter 8
Implications for Translation Studies at PNP

This chapter explores the pedagogical implications of errors in a case study of students' business translations from Indonesian to English at Politeknik Negeri Padang, West Sumatera. The students' translation errors have been discussed in detail in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7; each chapter represented a stage of the data analysis conducted in this research. The results of analysis provide the foundation for this chapter, where it is argued that the nature and extent of students' errors suggest a great deal about the translation program they have attended. This leads to recommendations intended to improve the translation program at PNP.

The first stage of analysis elaborated in Chapter 6 involves external reviewer assessment. Since the translation is into English, the role of the target reader was played by external reviewers who were native English speakers and did not have access to the source text for comparison. Results of the external reviewers' assessment showed that the translations were largely incomprehensible, due to the low quality of the target texts. In such cases, reviewers commented that it was hard to understand the whole message. They could grasp some general ideas, but they missed detailed information. Reviewers pointed out that their understanding was hindered due to serious English language errors in the translations. They further identified the errors as lexical and grammatical, which arise from a lack of students' English language competence.

Further investigation on the data was conducted through error analysis, which was discussed in Chapter 7. In this stage, the translations were compared to the source texts. Discussion in Chapter 7 is important because it discusses problems with equivalence. As discussed in section 2.3, equivalence is the basis for assessing a good translation, and in translation education, equivalence is seen from a linguistic perspective (see Chapter 2). Error analysis enabled a thorough investigation to locate errors as well as indicating their likely source. It revealed that there are more errors than just English language ones, caused by various factors. Categories of errors were identified as lexical, grammatical, and factual. Error analysis not only identified the types of errors, but also reflected strategies that students used when translating and whether they were effectively employed.

As outlined in Chapter 5, these two stages of analysis were supported by the documentary analysis of PNP institutional documents. Though the main data are students' translation works, related documents from PNP including curriculum and syllabus documents were also taken into consideration in order to get a more complete picture of learning conditions at PNP. Hence, this chapter will primarily discuss issues to do with the PNP translation program design, as a reflection of the implications of PNP students' errors. While errors reflect the state of students' translation competence, a lack of translation competence may in turn indicate problems in the program. Errors also indirectly suggest whether learning goals have been accomplished. With this in mind, this chapter is going to discuss the deficiencies in PNP students' translation competence based on the PACTE model (see Chapter 2). Furthermore, this chapter will reveal how these translation competence issues are linked to the translation program at PNP. Finally, it will propose recommendations to improve it.

8.1 Implications of errors for translation competence

Professional translators require adequate translation competence to perform their work. Translation competence is a set of competences that should be integrated to be able to complete a particular translation (Albir, 2015). Indeed, it is the aim of translation education to train novice or student translators to acquire this competence and to be able to perform translation tasks like professionals. Scholars have offered definitions of what constitutes this competence (see Chapter 2.3.2). A model of translation competence has been proposed by a well-known translation research group, called Process of the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation (PACTE). This model of translation shows that translation competence is built on six sub-competences:

(1) bilingual sub-competence, i.e., language and linguistic competences in both source and target languages;
(2) extra-linguistic sub-competence, i.e., the ability to understand the subject matter;
(3) instrumental sub-competence, i.e., practical skills to use resources such as dictionary, parallel texts and search engines;
(4) knowledge about translation sub-competence, i.e., knowledge about translation strategies and techniques;

(5) strategic sub-competence, i.e., the ability to integrate the competence, skill, and knowledge needed in translation, and

(6) psycho-physiological components, including personality traits such as self-confidence, motivation, and the willingness to work hard.

These six dimensions of translation competence are used in this chapter to discuss students' deficiencies. By referring to the above model, it can be seen that the students had not adequately acquired all sub-competences or knowledge required to ensure translation competence. In other words, students demonstrated several deficiencies in each sub-competence.

Figure 19 PNP students' deficiencies based on PACTE Model

Details of each deficiency are discussed below while related recommendations are discussed in section 8.2.

8.1.1 Bilingual sub-competence deficiencies

This study has shown students' lack of proficiency in bilingual sub-competence, which is the most crucial aspect of translation. Scholars such as Nord (2005), Gopferich (2015) and Albir (2017) agree that excellent knowledge of both source and target languages is the most basic requirements for translation competence. With this in mind, the ability to understand a text in the source language and to express the message in the target language are compulsory abilities for student translators.

External reviewer assessment has indicated that the biggest problem for the students in this study is English language competence - and more specifically lexical and grammatical issues (see Chapter 6). However, my own more detailed subsequent error analysis outlined in Chapter 7 involved comparing source and target texts and allowed the identification of a wider range of problems. Besides having problems with English, students also lack Indonesian language competence. This finding was only made possible by a detailed comparison of the source and target texts. While the students' lack of English competence can be seen in grammatical and lexical problems in their translation, their lack of Indonesian competence can only be seen through lexical issues.

The data shows that the students made numerous errors related to English grammatical usage from simple to complex structures, such as the use of "to be", subject, preposition, English morphological changes and noun compounds. Furthermore, they are unclear about word forms that can occupy the subject position, and the use of affixes or suffixes to change a word from a verb to an adjective or to another word class.

The data also shows that students are heavily influenced by the use of Indonesian prepositions and sentence structure. As has been discussed in Chapter 7, English preposition use is complex and requires a high level of language competence; therefore, this shows that student translators have a lack of English language competence. On the other hand, the use of prepositions is not as simple as it may seem. This is confirmed by the findings in this research where there is negative transfer from Indonesian language as the example in Chapter 7.

Among the grammatical errors presented in Chapter 7, the most serious one is telegraphic syntax, as commented by the external reviewers. There is no information related to why they use this term, which is commonly applied to a stage in children's first language acquisition. It can be assumed that they found it annoying to have adult students produce sentences like children. Another assumption is that external reviewers are actually making reference to Selinker's term "interlanguage" (see Chapter 4), used in second language acquisition to describe the language output of learners where errors reflect first language interference. In this case, grammatical elements were absent from sentences and that made translations look like a collection of meaningless words, because they were not connected in an a syntactically accurate manner and the reader needed to guess the missing grammatical elements to comprehend the translated text.

Although the translation is done into English, error analysis has revealed that the students have Indonesian lexical problems. It is found that though the students made correct English sentences, the message transferred was different; this indicated their problems with understanding the Indonesian source text. These problems were particularly evident when students translated Indonesian loan words, homonyms, and terminology. In terms of loan words, it was found that students had problems in tracking the source of the original words, as they had been adjusted to fit Indonesian spelling and pronunciation. There were instances where they did not recognise the source language of the loan words, whether Dutch or English, which is important to identify their correct meaning. The samples discussed in Chapter 7 show that students tended to consider any foreign words as being borrowed from English; however, Indonesian is also heavily influenced by Dutch, due to Netherland's 350 years of colonisation and occupancy of Indonesia. Hence, it is important to make students aware that not all Indonesian loan words are from English. Their lack of knowledge of loan words also led to a flawed strategy of making up words; while they could have just kept the original word and put it in italics. When students could not find where the word came from, they made up words, such as when translating "kurs", which is originally from Dutch, as "koers" (see Chapter 7).

Furthermore, this lack of Indonesian knowledge also led to confusion when they found an Indonesian word with a similar spelling to an English one. They tended to think that both words were related and had the same meaning, while in some cases they are not related (false cognates). The sample has been discussed in Chapter 7 where students translated "polis" as "police" instead of "policy".

Their problems were not only limited to loan words but also to Indonesian terminology. Data revealed that PNP students were not familiar with it, particularly new terms introduced by the government to replace foreign ones, such as "gawai" for "gadget". Knowledge of Indonesian terminology and its development is significant for student translators to ensure accuracy. While particular Indonesian terminology might not be common in popular usage, a lack of knowledge may lead to a failure to understand the source texts and to translation errors, as shown by samples discussed in Chapter 7.

Furthermore, students also have problems with polysemy and homonymy in Indonesian. The data shows evidence of this where students failed to recognise the meaning of words based on context. Some of them were caused by confusion with respect to spelling, which can lead to errors because they will search for the wrong equivalent words in English. This is concerning because the students in this study are Indonesian people who grew up using Indonesian as the national language in their daily life.

Students' lack of bilingual sub-competence is a serious matter in translation education because it is the most crucial sub-competence that students require. Building this sub-competence requires extensive English and Indonesian language training. In this case study, the students have learned English for 6 years, from junior to senior high school level. In addition, they have learned Indonesian for 12 years, from primary to high school. However, even such long-term language study cannot guarantee high levels of language proficiency. At a senior high school language level, students still need more training to ensure they are ready for the translation program. Unfortunately, in the translation study program at PNP, language and translation study are conducted at the same time, which seems to be one of the reasons for PNP students' low English and Indonesian competence.

8.1.2 Extra-linguistic sub-competence deficiency

Nowadays, it is accepted that translation is not only about replacing the source with the target language, as defined by Catford (1965), but it is about the act of communicating a message between two different languages (Batrina, 2004; House, 2014). Therefore, extra-linguistic sub-competence has become crucial for a translator. Ping (2011) has pointed out that this sub-competence differentiates human translators from machine translators, where machine translators find it more difficult to solve extra-linguistic problems due to extra-linguistic knowledge limitations. PACTE (2017) further describes that this sub-competence includes cultural knowledge of both source and target text cultures, general knowledge, and subject- or field-specific knowledge. Lack of this sub-competence means a lack of knowledge on the topic discussed in the source text. As the data was taken from students' business translation work, this sub-competence plays an important role particularly to understand the specific business concepts behind the terminology used. This knowledge is also important in understanding the cultural background of the source text, which may be reflected by idiomatic expressions, specific cultural terms and factual information relating to context and content.

The students' general knowledge also seemed to be limited as they made factual errors. Students' lack of extra-linguistic competence was evident through terminology errors. It was found that students sometimes interpreted field-specific terminology in their general connotation, which distorted their meaning. The external reviewers also mentioned that there were numerous terms left untranslated, which impacted their understanding of the translation. In some instances, terms were kept in Indonesian without any additional explanation. Some of the terms were particular to the Indonesian context, which made them difficult to translate; however, some of them were originally from English terms which should have been translated back to English, but the students did not realise this. Furthermore, the data shows that some untranslated terms were related to abbreviations or place names. When these terms are only available in Indonesian contexts, such as KPR (see Chapter 7), it is important to include a definition to help target readers understand. Moreover, data also shows that students translated Indonesian idiomatic expressions inaccurately. Instead of trying to find an equivalent expression in English, they translated it literally, which led to a different meaning.

8.1.3 Instrumental sub-competence

PACTE (2017, p. 40) considers instrumental sub-competence as "predominantly procedural knowledge related to the use of documentation resources and information and communication technologies applied to translation". Though it is not considered as a necessary basic sub-competence, it greatly supports the other ones. Pokorn et al. (2020) consider that e instrumental sub-competence is the same as information-mining competence[23]. It is useful to search for any relevant information from various resources that can help students complete a translation task, such as dictionaries and parallel texts. Having adequate skills in using appropriate bilingual and monolingual dictionaries is a great advantage, especially when students do not have high language proficiency. Students can also use parallel texts, which can be found on the internet, to develop more understanding of the subject of the source text.

[23] Information-mining competence is a term used by the European Masters of Translation (Schäffner, 2014)

Unfortunately, this study has found PNP students lack this sub-competence. Data has indicated that the students have access to proper translation aids, both print dictionaries (English to English Oxford dictionary and English-Indonesian/Indonesian-English Hassan Shadily dictionary) and the internet. However, it seems that they have problems utilising these resources appropriately. When they could not find the equivalent words, they would make up words that are unlisted in English dictionaries, which suggests they did not check for them. Even when they used a dictionary, it seems that they did not know how to do so properly, as they tended to pick the meaning of a word without considering the context. It seems that students did not attempt to gain more understanding of business concepts through parallel texts to overcome their limited knowledge.

Although this is speculation, there is the possibility that students may use the internet only to access online dictionaries, not parallel texts as well. A study conducted by Pokorn et al. (2020) has revealed the interesting result that when online student translators tend to access dictionaries only, because they consider the text to be simple enough for them. This may be the case with the PNP student translators. The students might consider that they understand the text, so they feel they do not need to access parallel texts. Another concern is that it is impossible to guarantee that they accessed an appropriate dictionary and not relied on machine translation. It is a common problem for PNP student translators to access machine translation such as Google Translate, and although it can sometimes be useful, it needs heavy editing which students do not do as they tend to believe that the result is adequate.

8.1.4 Knowledge of translation sub-competence

This sub-competence is considered as mostly predominantly declarative knowledge related to translation and the translation profession (PACTE, 2017). Knowledge related to translation includes the process, procedures, techniques, and strategies, while knowledge related to the profession is related to target audience and the translation industry. This sub-competence can help students to plan the translation process and select appropriate strategies for solving any problems. However, in this study it was found that PNP students demonstrated limited translation strategies, instead engaging in literal and word-for-word translation, flawed strategies to address themmany translation problems they encountered. For example, students translated idiomatic expressions word-for-word, which led to the message transferred being different from the intended one. Furthermore, the students translated terminology literally, which also distorted the meaning. Even when the meaning is not distorted, using those strategies is not a sound approach as it often produces clumsy and unnatural translations.

It is understood that not all professional translators in Indonesia have undertaken formal translation training. In such cases they obtain knowledge through on-the-job practical experience and trial and error. While experienced translators need not spend much time thinking about what technique or strategies to use in solving translation problems, a novice translator should be taught this knowledge as part of their training. They need to know what strategies they can use when encountering specific translation problems. This is one thing that should differentiate the training experiences of student translators and language students, and should be addressed in translation units.

8.1.5 Strategic sub-competence

This sub-competence involves procedural knowledge to plan and carry out the translation process effectively. Ideally, translators would encounter no problem as they have bilingual proficiency and knowledge; however, issues can arise (Lederer, 2014). This sub-competence enables students to identify translation problems and find solutions. The most important thing is that this sub-competence can "activate the different sub-competences and compensate for any shortcomings in them" (PACTE, 2015, p. 40). In this case study, the students were expected to recall and use their bilingual and extra-linguistic sub-competences during the translation process. Deficiency in one of those sub-competences can be compensated either by activating instrumental or knowledge of translation sub-competences. For example, data has shown that the students produced terminology errors due to either their lack of language proficiency or business knowledge; in this case, they could have activated their instrumental sub-competence by using a dictionary or a parallel text to understand the concept behind the terminology. Students' knowledge of translation sub-competence should have helped them in selecting the most appropriate translation strategy, such as leaving the terms untranslated and adding a definition to help readers understand it. Unfortunately, this did not happen due to their lack of strategic sub-competence.

It follows that students should be taught the six sub-competences that comprise translation competence. They should learn to be self-reliant to operate independently:

for example, bilingual sub-competence requires extra language training, extra-linguistic sub-competence can be obtained independently, and instrumental sub-competence is a skill that needs practice. They should learn the function of each sub-competence in completing a translation task, and learn which ones can be used to compensate others.

It has been said earlier that this case study shows that students lack strategic sub-competence. There are two possible reasons for this: they might not be aware of how each sub-competence could help, or they may lack all of them, so that they cannot apply any in a compensatory manner. This is something which needs to be addressed in translation units.

8.1.6 Psycho-physiological components

This sub-competence is quite different from the others. First, the PACTE translation model (see Figure 2) shows that this sub-competence is placed outside the loop, but it is still linked to it as it supports the remaining sub-competences. Second, it is rather considered as ‘a component’ because it is a more appropriate term than competence to describe psycho-physiological aspects (PACTE, 2017, p. 39). Indeed, this sixth sub-competence is different from the others because it is related to personal attributes. PACTE (2017, p. 40) further explains that these components can be cognitive, such as memory and attention, attitudinal, such as curiosity and perseverance, and personal, such as self-confidence and logical reasoning. Unfortunately, it is difficult to measure the impact of these components on students’ translation using error analysis, particularly with the students’ translation works having been deidentified.

Although there is no direct impact shown on the translation errors, these components are significant in the translation process, and ultimately may determine whether a translator will be able to survive in the industry and operate successfully. Although this study does not investigate students’ personal attributes through interviews, the quality of their work can give an impression on how they addressed the translation problem. The external reviewers noticed and mentioned in their comments that the students “seem to have made little attempts to use English language structure”. The way the students conducted the translation process suggested to the external reviewers that they lacked motivation to produce a high quality translation, particularly when they used telegraphic syntax instead of a complete, grammatically accurate structure.

Developing personal attributes for translators is not easy because students have very different characteristics, but there are strategies translation teachers can implement to help students build motivation and self-confidence. One of the most important things a translation teacher can do is to give clear, detailed and timely feedback as part of their assessment of the students' translations. Giving appropriate assessment and feedback is a form of appreciation which can motivate students. Clear assessment will give the students a better idea of what they have done well and what aspects they need to improve; it helps them know what they are doing. Otherwise, they can feel abandoned and unmotivated to figure out where they are, what is the target they need to achieve, and how they should achieve it. Haro-Soler (2017) has conducted research related to physio-psychological components and found that constructive feedback, real-world assignments and a student-centred approach based on learning translation strategies are significant in improving students' self-confidence. Atkinson (2014, p. 5) highlights those psychological characteristics, particularly self-confidence, are crucial for student translators because "it is a necessary underpinning both of satisfying work and of the motivation required to do that work". However, Pokorn et a.l (2020) warn that although developing students' confidence is crucial, it is also important to raise students' awareness of their limitations. Their study has shown that self-confidence can also lead students to making the wrong decision, as in deciding not to access parallel texts because they thought that the source text was simple enough for them. Indeed, there are many things that may influence the development of these components, some of which are beyond the scope of this discussion.

This section has discussed each of the six sub-competence areas and has shown that PNP students performed poorly across all sub-competence areas of the model proposed by PACTE. In this case, PNP students not only lacked a range of skills, abilities, and knowledge required for translation, but they also could not integrate those competences and use them holistically in the translation process. Students in this study did not have adequate English and Indonesian language proficiency and did not have sufficient familiarity with business and cultural concepts, as well as lacking general knowledge more broadly. They also lacked translation knowledge, which made them unable to identify translation problems and solutions. In addition, they did not know how to overcome their shortcomings. Due to their lack of practical skills, they could not make effective use of available translation aids. It also seems that they had little motivation to do translation tasks, a likely outcome of significant deficiencies in other more important sub-competence areas.

8.2 Issues and recommendations for the translation program design at PNP

Findings in Chapter 6 indicate that the PNP student translators' work was of low quality and there was no significant progress demonstrated across the three years of the program. Further analysis in Chapter 7 showed that throughout the program, students lacked translation competence and tended to produce the same types of errors. This analysis revealed that the students had deficiencies in language, subject knowledge, translation strategies, and practical skills. As the aim of translation education is to improve students' translation competence, these findings strongly suggest issues with the translation program design at PNP.

Documentary analysis of material at the English department of PNP indicates that the translation program design has significantly contributed to a lack of translation competence in its students. As illustrated by Figure 21, the problems are complex. All aspects interrelated and contributed to PNP students' lack of translation competence.

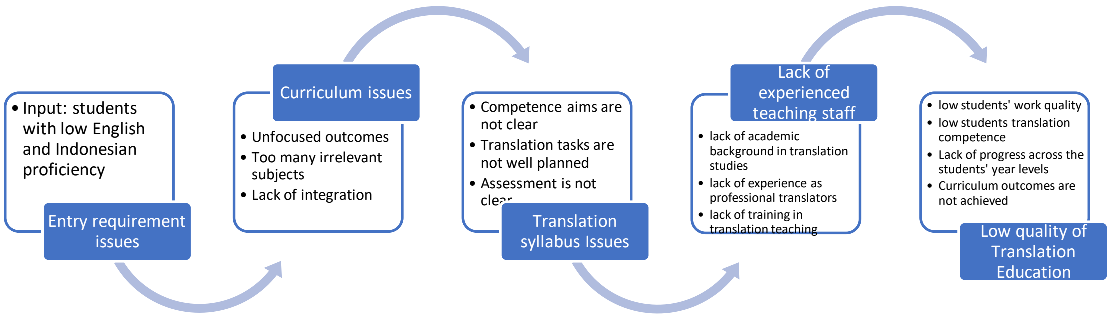

Figure 20 Issues in the translation program at PNP

Figure 21 above shows that issues have been identified from the start, as PNP does not have a specific level of English and Indonesian proficiency as the entry requirement. This is compounded by curriculum and syllabus issues, as well as lack of experienced teaching staff which has holistically contributed to a lack of quality in translation education. Each of these key areas of concern is addressed in the following sections and includes recommendations.

8.2.1 Issues with the entry requirements

Language competence is a normal requirement in translation training (Nord, 2005). By saying this, a certain level of language proficiency is normally set as the entry requirement for any applicant prior to entering a translation course. This has been justified with the argument that language proficiency provides students with linguistic and cultural skills and abilities (Stowe & Farley, 2014). Unfortunately, this case study shows that students were not asked to provide proof of their language competence, nor they were tested for it during the entrance test. This is the first thing that may contribute to problems with students' language proficiency. Since the students have just graduated from senior high school, their language proficiency is at that level. The only information related to this level of English proficiency is through their scores in national examination. Every final year student at an Indonesian senior high school must sit a final examination as a graduation requirement. Among the units being assessed, English and Indonesian are compulsory. The examination is conducted by the Ministry of Indonesian Education, whereby students receive the same test materials whatever their location. The result is processed by the Ministry of Indonesian Education and test results are published on their official website, which provides a useful insight into students' general English and Indonesian proficiency when they enrol at PNP.

The range of scores given to the students is 0 – 100. The data is presented as a list of average scores for senior high school graduates in each province in Indonesia as well as the national average. Figure 22 below shows this data from 2015 to 2018 and can describe students' average English competence.

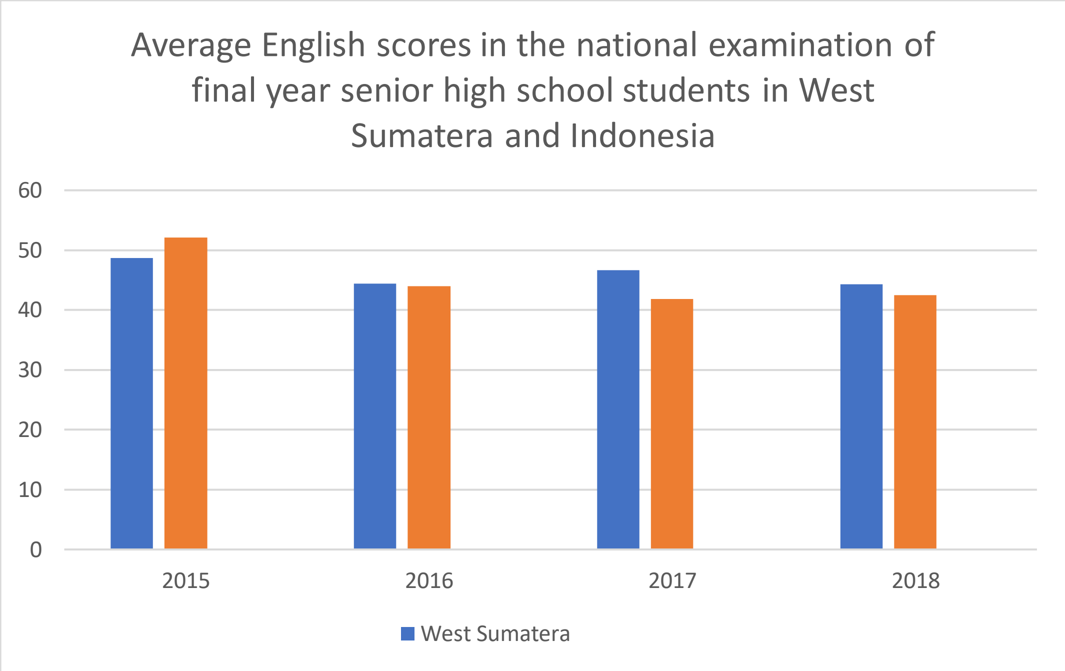

Figure 21 Average English scores in the national examination of final year senior high school students in West Sumatera and Indonesia (source: https://hasilun.puspendik.kemdikbud.go.id/, accessed 28 June 2021).

Figure 22 shows the average English scores of senior high school graduates in the West Sumatera and national level. As discussed earlier, the range of the scores given is 0 – 100; however, during the period of 2015 to 2018, the average English proficiency level of senior high school graduates in West Sumatera was lower than 50%. These data describe students' English proficiency levels when entering tertiary institutions, because most Indonesian students are likely to go straight to university after graduating from senior high school. With this poor English language levels input, tertiary institutions need to put significant effort into improving students' language competence, by providing English language units from basic to advanced levels.

As data analysis has shown that students lack competence in Indonesian, it is also important to look at the level of Indonesian proficiency of the students prior to entering Politeknik Negeri Padang. This is concerning because these students are exposed to Indonesian language as the national language. While they use Indonesian along with their local languages, they have received formal Indonesian language education at school, to develop language skills in formal contexts and various fields such as business. However, the finding in this study is not surprising because data from Ministry of Education shows that the national final exam scores for senior high school students in Indonesian language subject during the period of 2015 to 2018 are low, as shown the following Figure 23.

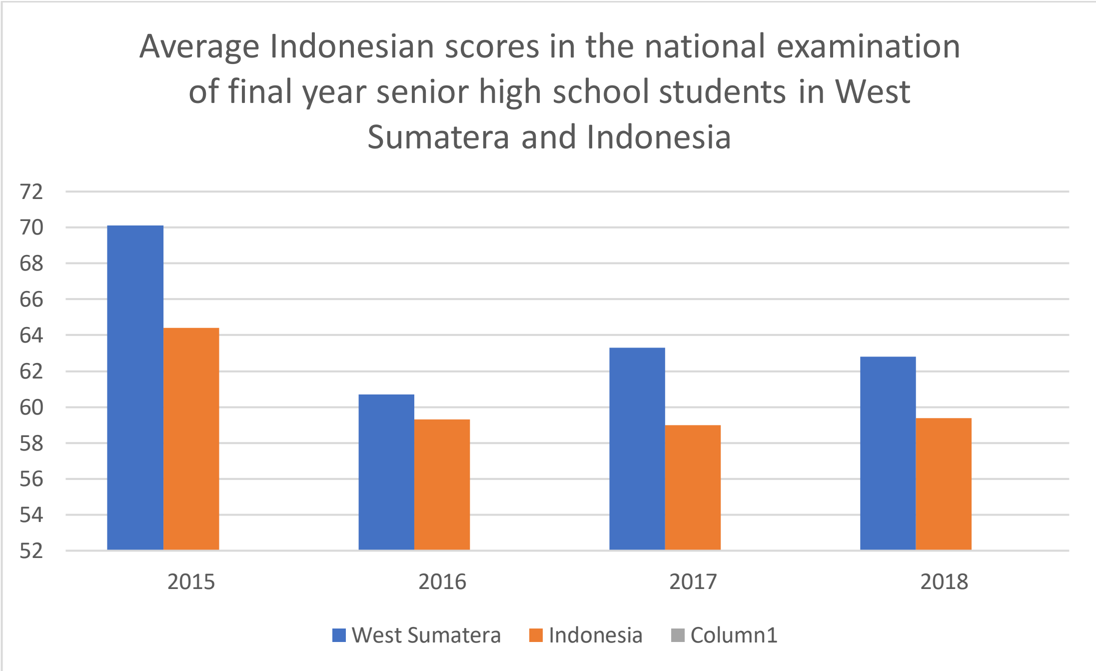

Figure 22 Average Indonesian scores of final year senior high school students in West Sumatera and Indonesia (source: https://hasilun.puspendik.kemdikbud.go.id/, accessed 28 June 2021).

Figure 23 shows the result of national examinations in Indonesian for final year senior high school students in both West Sumatera and Indonesia. These scores suggest that Indonesian levels are quite low (below 50) in West Sumatra, despite being quite good in 2015. It means that students have low Indonesian proficiency prior to entering tertiary education.

Data on national examinations for both English and Indonesian subjects in West Sumatera is significant because it offers insights into the average high school graduate's English and Indonesian language competence within the 2015 – 2018 period. Furthermore, this data is a reflection of the basic English and Indonesian competence of PNP students in year 1-3 in 2017/2018, during my data collection. Most importantly, the data suggests that PNP students lack both English and Indonesian language competence, which reflects the absence of any language proficiency requirement for admission to Politeknik Negeri Padang.

The issue of the quality of applicants has actually been recognised by PNP, as stated in *Buku Evaluasi dan Kurikulum* (2018). Although PNP did not specify what 'quality' refers to, it can be inferred that it relates to English language. However, no further action has been taken to improve the quality of the applicants. The only clear thing PNP has done is more promotion to senior high schools, with the expectation that graduates interested int applying for this programme should have high language ability. This move does not solve the problems because there is no guarantee of the applicants' ability other than high school qualifications. Meanwhile, students with a lack of language competence will find translation difficult (Erton & Tanbi, 2016). Those starting with good bilingual competence are more likely to succeed, and those without may be left behind.

As it is not recommended to train students in the same class without considering their language proficiency (Pokorn et al., 2020), PNP should set a certain level of Indonesian and English proficiency as one of the admission requirements. There are many ways that this could be implemented. First, PNP could conduct additional entry examinations focused on English and Indonesian subjects, in addition to the national entrance examination. It would mean that PNP needs to conduct their own language tests. Only applicants who pass both the national entrance examination and the language testing should be able to enrol in the English Department of PNP. This is the most effective way, as PNP can prepare their own language test to ensure that it includes certain language competence aspects required in the translation program. Furthermore, both tests could be done in one round, which would save time. Alternatively, PNP could screen applicants who pass the national entrance examination and select those who have minimum English and Indonesian scores of 70 on their final national examination. Another approach could require the applicant to take Indonesian and English proficiency tests from independent test providers to show a certain level of proficiency. Both second and third approaches would involve two steps, however, which would be time-consuming. Another problem with the third approach is that applicants may come from regional areas with no access and money to take independent language proficiency tests. Therefore, the first and the second ways would be the most feasible ways for PNP to solve issues related to language entry requirements. It is expected that such measures would ensure PNP would have more capable students entering the translation program with sufficient English and Indonesian proficiency.

8.2.2 Issues and recommendations for curriculum

With the low quality of the new students entering the program, PNP is required to put significant effort in training students to become translators. PNP provides language units and translation units at the same time; however, the course structure shows some weaknesses. As discussed in Chapter 3, the translation program is placed under the English Department. This situation influences the course design, which is a disadvantageous of the translation program. The issues originate from the outcomes that have been set, as well as the course details and syllabus offered. Those issues and recommendations are discussed below.

8.2.2.1 Too many outcomes

It is crucial that course outcomes be stated clearly and be relevant to the educational context to enable a detailed plan to achieve them. A document evaluating PNP and its curriculum, *Buku Evaluasi dan Kurikum PNP* (2018), states that there are six outcomes set for the English Department at PNP. The first outcome is the ability to think critically and analytically as well as having self-confidence, a good personality, and belief in God. The second expected outcome is the ability to communicate in English orally and in writing, in the realms of business and industry. The third outcome is related to translation, i.e., the students will have the ability to translate official and general documents using a Computer-Aided Translation (CAT) tool. The fourth outcome is the ability to do administrative jobs by using multimedia equipment and ICT. The fifth outcome is public speaking skills for Master of Ceremony and Public Relations activities. The sixth outcome is the ability to work in the broadcasting industry. These outcomes are stated in order as the top priorities that PNP should achieve.

Though it is not related to the core of the English Department of PNP, the Ministry of Education has required that every department in Indonesian tertiary education should put good personality and faith to God Almighty as the first outcome. The reason is because Indonesia is a religious country where religion is a top priority in education. The next following outcome is related to the main competence of PNP's English Department, which is English language competence. However, it is not sufficient as an outcome for a vocational institution because English skills are too general. It needs to be specific, particularly to differentiate PNP from other institutions. Translation skills are placed as the third outcome because they are regarded as the main English skill expected. Unfortunately, the list of outcomes does not stop at translation skills; there are other skill areas as outcomes which lead the course's focus away from translation.

There are many issues with the outcomes where they are not focused on or relevant to translation. Furthermore, the outcome related to translation is not clear because it does not specify the definition of official and general documents. In addition, the use of CAT tools is highlighted as if it is more important than the students' own translation competence. It is understandable that in the attempt to compete with other tertiary institutions, PNP is trying to promote itself as a leader in the application of technology; however, tools should only complement translators' skills, which should be the focus here. The most important aspect is that the outcome is not based on the six dimensions of the PACTE translation model. This contributes to the curriculum design and units offered not supporting translation competence.

To solve these issues, it is recommended that the current outcomes should be reconsidered so there are not too many of them, and to put more focus on the translation program. Although the first outcome is not related to the English or translation, it cannot be removed because it is a requirement for any Indonesian tertiary institution. The second outcome, which is related to English language competence, cannot be removed or replaced with translation either, because translation has been under the English Department from the beginning. However, it is recommended to identify clear outcomes for translation based on the PACTE model of translation competence. Hence, the third outcome should be that students will acquire the six translation sub-competences of the PACTE model in English-Indonesian translation and vice versa. The fourth and fifth outcomes, which are related to administrative jobs and public speaking related to English, can be removed as they are covered by the second outcome (English language competence). Finally, it is impossible to remove broadcasting competence which is in the sixth outcome because there are too many units offered related to it.

8.2.2.2 Too many irrelevant units to the translation program

As discussed in section 8.2.2.1, PNP has listed some skills as expected outcomes that students will possess when they graduate from PNP. Furthermore, the curriculum book also outlines a list of potential careers for PNP graduates. Though 'translator' is stated as the first potential graduate profession, this program also lists some other professions such as copywriter, content writer, MC, customer service, Radio/TV Script writer, Radio/TV presenter, news reader, reporter, and Radio/TV Journalist. With this amount of career goals offered, the curriculum has been designed to accommodate a wide range of skills. Hence, the units offered are varied and many of them are irrelevant for a translation program, as shown in the following Figure 24.

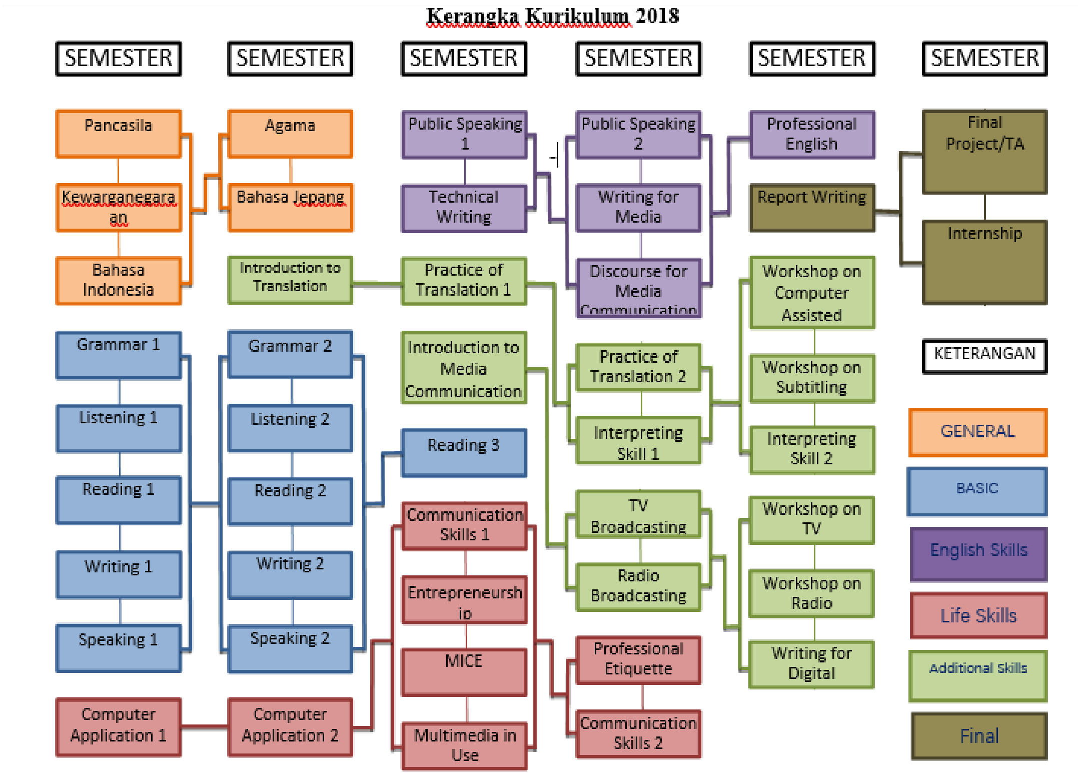

Figure 23 PNP Curriculum Framework

Figure 24 shows the whole suite of units offered within the three-year course; the details of each unit have been discussed in Chapter 3. Based on guidelines from the Ministry of Education, the curriculum should include general units, basic units, English skills, life skills and additional skills, which are represented by the different colours. The links do not show how the units connect to each other, e.g., if certain units are foundational to others; rather, it shows that the units are in the same group. Unfortunately, the curriculum provided is not designed based on the sub-competences that comprise translation competence. Though some units are related to translation, the curriculum chart shows there are too many irrelevant units offered.

There is only one unit relevant to translation in the group of general units, which is Indonesian (discussed further in section 8.2.2.3). Since *Pancasila* (Five Pillar of Indonesia), *Kewarganegaraan* (Citizenship), and *Agama* (Religions) are compulsory units from the Ministry of Education, they cannot be removed though they are not related to the translation program. However, it can be recommended to remove the Japanese language unit, not only because this unit is irrelevant to English language competence and to the translation program but also because this unit is not necessary.

It has been established that students have low English and Indonesian language proficiency, which mean that they are required to improve them. Adding another foreign language while students have still not mastered Indonesian and English languages is not effective and adds unnecessarily to the program. Furthermore, Japanese is not an easy language to learn and is very different from Indonesian, particularly since it has a different alphabet. Therefore, there is little chance that the students will master the language in a one-semester unit. Additionally, its purpose is only to give students some basic Japanese skills and knowledge, which is unlikely to be much use in their future career.

It is also recommended to remove interpreting units. Although translation and interpreting have similarities in that they transfer a message from a source language to a target language, they require different skills, such as note taking, speaking, and listening skills. As interpreters work on the spot, there is no time for them to consult a dictionary or to give careful consideration to concepts or expression. As such, interpreting requires different competences, and therefore it would be more effective to offer interpreting as a separate program and remove it from the curriculum in the translation program.

Moreover, PNP acknowledges that there are some units that overlap (Buku Evaluasi dan Kurikulum, 2018). However, there is no further information on which units they are, and what actions have been taken in this regard. Based on the PNP curriculum book, Writing for Media and Writing for Digital Units have the same content focus. The first unit is designed to cover both print and online texts, and the latter concentrates on online media. Professional English and Professional Etiquette also have similar content. Both units cover how to tackle the working environment and how to be professional. Those units should be integrated into one unit because they are similar. This would create more space for more translation units.

As broadcasting skills are also included in PNP outcomes, the curriculum shows that there are a significant number of units related to broadcasting. Although these units are not related to translation, removing them would cause a major change, which is unrealistic in the PNP context: these units have been taught since the establishment of the English department. Furthermore, PNP has invested significant amounts of money buying and building a studio equipped with broadcasting facilities, which makes it impossible to remove broadcasting. It is true that not all of the broadcasting units offered in PNP are relevant to translation. However, at the very least, some broadcasting knowledge could be used for translation. With this in mind, media translation could become one of the translation specialisations that PNP can offer.

Giving recommendations on a curriculum designed years ago, which has been in use for a long time, is challenging. It is even more difficult because translation is not an independent program, but it is under the English program, which limits flexibility in giving recommendations. Therefore, acknowledging that the curriculum focus is not only on translation, it can be redesigned to make it less overloaded. With this in mind, any unit with no relevance, such as Japanese, should be removed. Additionally, units that have a clear overlap could be integrated, which would allow more room for units related to translation. The process of merging units would benefit from a more detailed analysis of their content to confirm what is indicated in curriculum documents.

8.2.2.3 Inadequate Indonesian units

This research has shown that Indonesian competence plays a significant role in translation from Indonesian to English. Given students' low Indonesian proficiency prior to entering PNP, improving their Indonesian language competence is crucial. Unfortunately, Indonesian is considered as a general unit in the PNP curriculum, in the same category as Religion, Japanese, and Citizenship, which means it is not a core unit. Politeknik Negeri Padang only offers one Indonesian language unit in the first semester (see Chapter 3). This decision seems to be motivated by the assumption that the students should be able to speak Indonesian fluently, as it is their first language. This assumption is made because there is no information on how proficient the students are in Indonesian prior to entering PNP. The data of this study suggests that one Indonesian unit is not enough to develop students' Indonesian proficiency.

Another issue is related to the syllabus offered in this unit. As stated in the Indonesian syllabus, this unit is aimed at students' competence in producing academic writing in Indonesian. Therefore, the focus is to teach students to use quotations, footnotes, references, and write abstracts. Yet, these technical aspects of academic writing are rarely necessary in practical translating tasks. Problematically, this unit does not address proficiency problems such as vocabulary development, particularly terminology, loan words, and homonymy. These issues led to translation errors in this study due to students' misunderstanding of Indonesian source texts. In this way, a lack of Indonesian units contributes to the lack of PNP students' bilingual sub-competence as required in translation.

To address this issue, PNP should acknowledge that the Indonesian language unit is not just a general unit but a core one that deserves more space and credit. PNP needs more of them to improve students' Indonesian competence. Importantly, they should be planned to address students' proficiency problems such as breadth of vocabulary and grammatical knowledge.

8.2.2.4 English language units are not designed to support the translation units

As already mentioned, PNP students' English proficiency entry levels are low. However, English units are provided to the students because the translation program is under the umbrella of the English department. These units are aimed at developing students' English skills in grammar, listening, writing, reading, and speaking. Among these units, Grammar, Reading, and Writing units play significant role in students' English language competence as one of the basic sub-competences required by the PACTE translation competence model.

The grammar units play an important role in developing students' bilingual sub-competence. There are two grammar units offered to PNP students: Grammar 1 focuses on the basic grammatical constructions such as simple sentences, and Grammar 2 focuses on advanced structures such as noun and adjectival clauses. These units are delivered sequentially in Semester 1 and Semester 2. Their purpose is to refresh the students' knowledge of Indonesian grammar, with the assumption that students have learned it already in Junior and Senior high school. With this in mind, there are a lot of grammatical rules covered within one year. However, there is no requirement that students need to pass the grammar units at a certain level before they can take translation; for example, Grammar 2 is offered in Semester 2, when the students have already started translation classes.

Unfortunately, the data analysis shows that the students make serious grammatical errors. It means that the grammar units provided are not sufficient to improve students' English language competence. To solve this problem, it is recommended that the grammar units are delivered before the translation units, so that students are required to pass the grammar units before they can take the translation ones.

The reading units are significant in developing students' bilingual, extra-linguistic, and instrumental sub-competences. There are three reading units offered for semester 1, 2, and 3. It is expected that students can develop English proficiency particularly in lexical comprehension through reading, which can also be used to practice the instrumental sub-competence of dictionary use. Moreover, reading units can also help them gain more general knowledge, which builds students' extra-linguistic sub-competence through exposure to various reading texts. Unfortunately, the reading unit syllabus shows that the reading units are not designed carefully to improve those three sub-competences mentioned above.

The focus in all of these units is on teaching students' reading strategies such as skimming and scanning. Reading 2 is also related to thinking critically about a text. Reading 3 is described as focusing on understanding texts in different genres related to translation, such as short stories, etc. Indeed, reading texts will help students gain more vocabulary and knowledge. However, they are not taught how to use practical skills that build instrumental sub-competences, such as to use parallel texts or a dictionary when understanding a paragraph. Although Reading 3 attempts to build connections to the translation units by offering texts that would likely occur in the latter, it is somewhat late; this should be done from Reading 1, because extra-linguistic sub-competence depends on the students' reading habits. Furthermore, in the attempt to develop students' instrumental sub-competence, students need to learn and practice the use of various kinds of dictionary – print, online, bilingual and monolingual. However, teachers need to make sure that the dictionaries are reputable and teach students how to use them effectively. They need to practice finding words and understand the meaning based on the context provided in the dictionary. Moreover, students also need to learn to use glossaries, thesauri, and field-specific dictionaries. Another skill they need to practice is to use parallel texts to understand the text they are working on, as well as learn to use search engines and find more information regarding the text they are going to translate.

Similar to the reading units, the Writing unit also can be useful to develop bilingual, extra-linguistic, and instrumental sub-competences. In the Writing unit, students need to show their ability to formulate grammatically correct sentences based on their knowledge and demonstrate their skill using a dictionary. Basically, when they attempt to produce the target text they practice the translation process.

There are six writing units offered from year 1 to year 3. This is a significant number of units where students can practice their writing skills. The students are taught writing skills starting from sentences, paragraphs, to whole texts. Unfortunately, the syllabi do not state the topics tackled in the writing. The advanced writing units such as Writing for Media and Writing for Digital Purposes focus on writing material such as news reports and opinion pieces, but these topics are not stated in the syllabus. It is recommended to give students a wide range of topics which will make them more familiar with various genres. It is expected that the students will conduct some research before starting to write their essay, which can give them extra-linguistic sub-competence. The topics should be stated in the syllabus, so students know which one they will tackle. Lastly, it is highly recommended to focus on topics and text types that are examined in the translation units, and not to put too much attention on media writing.

8.2.3 Issues and recommendations for translation units

Translation units are crucial in a translation program because they should be the main core of the translation program. The aim is, of course, to improve students' translation competence and to train students as translators through relevant exercises. Furthermore, the translation syllabus is significant because it provides detailed plans on how translation units are taught in class. This has to be made clear to guide the teachers assigned to teach the unit and also to make sure that all units are synchronized. However, the analysis of the translation syllabus has shown shortcomings in terms of outcomes within translation units, translation tasks, and assessment – each of which are discussed below.

8.2.3.1 Each syllabus does not provide a clear outcome

The outcomes in the syllabus for each translation units are not clear. The Theory and Practice of Translation (TPT) 1 unit stated that the outcome is that the students understand the concept and methods of translation, while outcomes for the Practice of Translation (POT) 1 unit is that students understand translation theory as well as be familiar with different texts and specific terms and registers. Practice of Translation (PoT) 2 is aimed at editing processes, applied to their own and their peers' translations. Workshop of Translation (WOT) unit is aimed at using Computer-Aided Translation tools. These outcomes are too general; for example, TPT 1 does not specify what concepts are discussed in this unit because translation concepts can be broad. The translation theory mentioned in POT1 outcomes is also a broad concept, as it can be about equivalence or assessment. Furthermore, the various texts mentioned should be specified as to their genre, origin, and content focus, such as business or literary. As POT 2 presumes that the students are able to do editing, it means that they would already have advanced translation skills.

The syllabus documents also show that the translation units are not designed based on the translation competence which they aim to develop, while the outcomes are based on the steps of translation. TPT 1 represents the step of understanding translation, POT1 represents translation practice, POT2 the editing process, and the WOT unit focuses on the use of technology in translation. These units are designed to be sequential in the translation process with one unit focusing on a single step; however, it is impossible to just focus on one step in one unit because even in TPT1 the students are asked to translate some texts, which means they are required to do more than just comprehend them.

With this in mind, it is recommended the outcomes for each translation unit should be redesigned to cover the translation competence in focus. For example, TPT 1 can set the outcomes that students develop their bilingualism, knowledge of translation, and instrumental sub-competence. Next, POT1 is designed to develop students' extra-linguistic and strategic sub-competences. POT2 is going to have the outcomes to practice students' bilingual skills, extra-linguistic aspects, strategic knowledge of translation, and instrumental sub-competence. Furthermore, it is recommended to decide the focus of the translation genre in the outcome, and limit it to two or three, such as education and business in TPT1 or Literature and Tourism in POT1. This outcome later will determine how the translation tasks are designed.

8.2.3.2 Translation tasks are not well designed

Based on translation syllabus provided by PNP, there are many issues found to be related to translation tasks. In this case, the syllabus does not specify what texts are offered and the expected outcomes after translating those texts. It is not clear what the basis is for text selection and there are no clear guidelines on appropriate text length in terms of minimum, maximum or average word count. It is not clear what the source of texts should be. Sometimes, texts from the Jakarta Post newspaper are used as the source for translation practice. Although the Jakarta Post is written in English, it is not generally written by native speakers. Furthermore, translation tasks given are not planned based on the level of difficulty. In addition, the text given keeps changing each week. For example, the Week 1 task may be related to a health text, while the Week 2 text may be related to entertainment.

The purpose of giving students translation tasks is to develop and practice their translation competence. With this in mind, translation tasks should be carefully planned to achieve that purpose and be built in a graded manner, beginning with less complex tasks and progressing towards higher levels. The length of text to be translated can be adjusted based on year level, such as not more than 100 words for students in the first year. It is recommended to specify the translation task so any teacher who will teach the unit knows what to do, because translation units at PNP are not exclusive to one teacher. Furthermore, it is important to limit the choice to texts from reliable sources only, because it may affect the whole translation exercise. With this in mind, source texts should be written by reliable and trusted native speakers. In this regard, Albir (2015, p. 264) claims that

> Texts to be translated must be pedagogically useful, in other words, contain various prototypical translation problems or the specific problems students are to work on. It is important that texts be authentic, although they may sometimes be adapted for teaching purposes (summarized, modified in terms of wording or cultural references, etc.).

Furthermore, Albir (2015) mentions that the students should be given various tasks that will help them acquire the necessary competence to be able to translate set texts. For example, before translating a text, students should be given pre-translating tasks that require them to do textual analysis. In this way, they can have more time to understand the text type and have the opportunity to identify common terms, register, or genre.

8.2.3.3 The assessment is not clear

Translation assessment of students' work is also an issue in translation units at PNP. The syllabus mentions that the assessment is conducted in two ways (quantitative and qualitative evaluations). Quantitative evaluation is conducted using scores from the quiz, mid-semester examination, assignment, and final examination. Meanwhile, qualitative evaluation is based on students' answers during the discussion, which reflect their understanding of the material studied. These kinds of evaluation seem to be the template for the syllabus in the English Department at PNP. This is similar to other English units, such as reading units.

In translation education, assessment is crucial to evaluate the quality of students' work as well as students' competence. However, PNP does not have clear translation assessment criteria, which remain subjective and based on the teacher's opinion. Students only get a total score without knowing how it was calculated and without any specific components evaluated. As there are no specific assessment criteria assigned, students are not provided a clear guide of the standard they need to achieve or what is expected from them. Moreover, students do not know if they make specific mistakes. Unclear criteria risk confusing students and impacting their learning. This situation seems to lead to a lack of student motivation, because they do not receive enough encouragement or appreciation from teachers. Therefore, a lack of assessment has contributed to a gap in all six sub-competences of translation competence.

To resolve issues with assessment, it is recommended that the PNP provides specific, standardised criteria to teachers for translation assessment. To do so, PNP could adapt ATA's translation criteria, which could then be adjusted based on the outcomes set as well as the year level. For example, first-year students' translation works might not be assessed against style criteria, but second- and third-year students' should. Furthermore, as shown in this study, error analysis is also helpful to determine the progress of students and the learning outcomes; therefore, error analysis is recommended to be applied in assessing PNP students' translation work.

8.2.4 Issues with translation program staffing

The official PNP website lists 25 teaching staff members in the English Department. Most of the staff have an English academic background. Hence, translation teachers there do not have academic backgrounds in translation nor working experience as a translator. Unfortunately, they also have no training in translation teaching. This situation is challenging for the teachers themselves because they are teaching a subject which they are not familiar with. On the other hand, a lack of guidelines on teaching translation also makes the situation more difficult. This explains the syllabus issues, where teachers seem to not know how to formulate translation tasks. This also explains why there is no clear assessment criteria. With this in mind, it is recommended that PNP teaching staff are given adequate training both in translation as well as translation teaching.

8.3 Conclusion

This chapter has elaborated on the implications of translation errors for the translation curriculum. As a case study, the focus is on Politeknik Negeri Padang. Drawing from the translation competence model by PACTE, this chapter has shown that beyond the errors students produced, the students lack bilingual, extra-linguistic, instrumental, strategic, and knowledge of translation sub-competences, which build translation competence. This chapter also shows the shortcomings of the curriculum in building translation competence through the analysis of PNP documents including curriculum, evaluation books, and syllabi. Issues discussed here are related to entry requirements, curriculum design, and teaching staff. In this case, curriculum design significantly contributes to students' lack of translation competence. It is interesting that thesefindings are similar to Bnini's (2020) study, that claims that undergraduate translation programs have to deal with a number of deficiencies such as poor course structures, low level of students' language competence, and translation teachers not equipped to deliver the program. In response to these issues, recommendations about the PNP translation program have been discussed in this chapter. However, there are limitations in the number of recommendations that can be provided because this program is under the English Department, and as such it is subject to constraints related to the institution and to the requirements of the broader educational national context.

This situation is not unique for PNP; it can be found in translation programs in Indonesian tertiary education due to the lack of national guidelines on how to teach translation in Indonesia, and the fact that programs are placed under language departments. The entry requirements are similar among Indonesian tertiary institutions because of national regulations. In addition, issues with staff are similar. These similarities suggest that other institutions in Indonesia approach translation education in a comparable way. Issues and future directions related to the Indonesian context are discussed in Chapter 9.

Chapter 9
Future Directions of Translation Education in Indonesia

As a case study-based research project, the errors discussed in this study have broader implications for the field of national translation education in Indonesia. The discussion of these issues in the national context is crucial as they likely represent what commonly occurs in translation education throughout Indonesia, for which there are no clear guidelines. The discussion in Chapter 8 has provided the foundations for these recommendations. Chapter 8 has identified crucial issues in PNP translation education, particularly shortcomings in course design and staff capabilities. Although some recommendations have been provided for the PNP context, it is limited to the institutional level, a case where I am aware of particular constraints. It is expected that recommendations at the national level can address broader issues in translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions. Learning from the case study of PNP, this study recommends that translation education in Indonesia tertiary institutions needs to be carefully designed. Accordingly, this chapter provides broader recommendations on the status of translation programs and for collaboration with the association of professional translators (Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia, HPI) in Indonesia.

9.1 Establishing translation education as an independent program

In Indonesia, translation is not yet acknowledged as an independent program as it is established under linguistics or literature departments in Indonesian tertiary institutions (Dewi et al., 2019). Our case study has shown that the status of translation as a dependent program has been the cause of issues in translation education where there is a lack of flexibility and independence in program design. This inflexibility has led to problems identified with entry requirements, curriculum design, as well as teaching staff capabilities. In this vein, Biel (2011) has warned that there are likely to be restrictions on curriculum and content design when translation studies are not recognised as an independent discipline in national educational standards. Therefore, it is recommended that the Ministry of Indonesian Education acknowledges translation as an independent program, which would allow Indonesian tertiary institutions to open their programs without the need to be under linguistics or literature, and to address the problems listed above.

9.1.1 Entry requirements

Entry requirements into Indonesian tertiary institutions might include diploma, undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Compared to the other levels, institutions operating at postgraduate levels have more flexibility and independence in setting their entry requirements because they have the authority to set their own entrance examinations, while those for the diploma and undergraduate levels are often regulated by the Ministry of Education, particularly for public institutions. Whatever the case, students' language competence should be considered before they are accepted into a translation program, at any educational level.

There should be a special test to measure students' language competence besides the standard university entrance examination in Indonesia. In the case of English competence, a standardised test could be taken, for example the TOEFL ITP (Test of English as a Foreign Language Institutional Testing Program) or IELTS (International English Language Testing System). The IELTS test is not familiar to senior high school students and is expensive, so it is less accessible to Indonesian students. On the other hand, the TOEFL test is more popular and affordable; it can be performed by any language institution and some universities are also authorized to administer it.

TOEFL ITP is designed for test-takers over 16 years old and is conducted by Educational Testing Service (ETS). This is the average age for students who graduate from senior high school and intend to attend university in Indonesia. This test is conducted to evaluate students' listening skills by assessing their understanding of conversations likely to occur in colleges, knowledge of English grammar, and their reading comprehension skills with English academic texts. The advantage of using this test is that the material covers a wide range of topics such as academic matters, campus life, and general topics. In this way, the test assesses students' knowledge of specific terms in texts. Therefore, TOEFL should be adequate for measuring Indonesian students' English competence.

As a standardised test, TOEFL evaluation criteria are clear, in that they describe the students' language competence based on the range score obtained. Based on the table below, they classify the range of test takers English proficiency level as A2, B1, B2, and C1 (see Appendix 6 for a detailed description of language proficiency levels).

CEFR Levels	Total Cut Score	Listening Comprehension	Structure and Written Expression	Reading Comprehension
C1	627	64	64	63
B2	543	54	53	56
B1	460	47	43	48
A2	337	38	32	31

Table 7 TOEFL score description

However, students are only awarded certification if they are classified at the B1, B2, or C1 level of proficiency. Those who are classified at A2 level of proficiency are considered as incompetent English language users. ETS reports that the average TOEFL ITP scores for Indonesian test takers for the period from January 2020 to December 2020 is 479 (B1). However, there is no information on the average age of the test takers, which therefore could include adults who have already graduated from university. In Indonesia, the TOEFL score is used as a requirement for job applications, for entry to postgraduate programs, and for scholarship applications.

If only senior high school graduate in Indonesia were tested with TOEFL, it is likely that their average English level would be A2, since Indonesian senior high school graduate national final scores in English are low. In addition, students' English competence in this case study reflected a lot of serious errors, including telegraphic syntax. This level of competence is clearly not adequate to start translation training. Therefore, setting a minimum level of students' English proficiency as an entry requirement would improve translation education in Indonesia. A B2 level of proficiency might be recognised as a minimum requirement for translation training, as students at this level can integrate information and extract the implied meaning from various idioms and expressions when listening to a short dialogue; they can comprehend important details in short academic lectures; they usually can make an appropriate word form using the appropriate suffix or morphemes, and can modify nouns by adding participles and relative clauses. They can process information across typical academic texts to understand detailed information both explicitly and implicitly in a text containing high-frequency academic vocabulary and can understand text discussing concrete topics.

The problem is it would be difficult to find Indonesian students with this level of English proficiency, whether in large cities and even more in regional areas would likely have even greater difficulties. With the consideration that students will receive further language training before taking the translation units, B1 level would be sufficient. This level allows them to be able to understand main ideas and integrate information in a short academic lecture, to understand important details, difficult and abstract vocabulary, complex time references and temporal relationships in a short dialogue. They understand less familiar verb tenses and reduced clauses as well as idioms, multiple usages of words, and complex sentences. They can follow discourse at the level of understanding detailed information as well as major ideas both implicitly and explicitly. They can understand texts on abstract topics.

As translation requires bilingual language competence, students should demonstrate proficiency in both source and target languages. Hence, they would have to demonstrate both prior entering the translation program. In the case of Indonesian and English language pairs, students should be tested for their Indonesian language competence. There is only one standardised test for Indonesian competence which is called UKBI (Uji Kemampuan Berbahasa Indonesia), or Indonesian Language Proficiency Test. According to its official website[24], this test is designed to measure Indonesian language proficiency in both verbal and written communication. The test consists of five sections, which are:

(1) Section I Listening, which poses questions after listening to a short dialogue and monologue;
(2) Section II Grammar, to evaluate students' ability to recognise whether a sentence is grammatical or ungrammatical and correct it if it is wrong based on the available options;
(3) Section III Reading, to measure students' ability to comprehend five different texts and answer the questions based on the texts;
(4) Section IV Writing, to measure students' ability to write a text based on the information provided; and
(5) Section V Speaking, to measure students' ability to present a diagram or picture verbally.

The purpose for taking UKBI varies. It was initially designed for foreigners who are non-native speakers of Indonesian (Badan Pengembangan dan Pembinaan Bahasa, 2020). This test was developed after 2010. However, as the test was focused

[24] https://ukbi.kemdikbud.go.id/

on foreigners, it was not popular in Indonesia. Now, the Ministry of Education is attempting to promote this test to Indonesian native speakers with the expectation that it can build positive language attitudes towards the Indonesian language, amidst the influence of foreign languages in Indonesia such as English, Japanese, Korean, and Chinese (Rahayu, et al., 2017). UKBI is expected to improve the competence of Indonesian workforces in various professions. Furthermore, UKBI can be a requirement for any professional certification and for graduation from any academy. Regarding the use of UKBI in universities, Muslimin (2017) claims that some universities in Indonesia have used it for existing students; however, universities should use it more often as an entry requirement for applicant. Solihah (2017) is also concerned that there is no clear usage of UKBI, although this test has been revised many times; it is not currently used as a requirement for anything. Despite the statement from the government that this test can be used as the requirement for professional certification, there is no specific law or regulation that can force Indonesian citizens to take this test.

Since 2013, HPI has recommended that Indonesian translators take this test. As posted on its official website (Begum, 2013), HPI mentions that UKBI is significant for Indonesian translators, considering that not all of them are proficient in Indonesian. Yet, there is no national certification to assess Indonesian language competence apart from the UKBI. But this is not a compulsory certification that Indonesian translators must have. HPI made this recommendation after observing that the language quality of translation into Indonesian is not satisfactory, inferring that the source of the problem is a lack of Indonesian language competence.

This research study also shows that a lack of Indonesian language competence also impacts on translation into English. In this case, HPI should make an even stronger recommendation for the requirement of UKBI for Indonesian translators. The benefit would be to evaluate their ability to understand various areas of knowledge, as the test materials cover a large range of topics.

Moreover, the outcome of this test classifies students in terms of seven standards of proficiency based on their score (Pedoman Uji Kemahiran Berbahasa Indonesia, 2019). The highest standard is Standard I *Istimewa* (outstanding), awarded to speakers with perfect proficiency in Indonesian, while the lowest is standard VII *Terbatas* (Limited), awarded to speakers with inadequate competence in both verbal and written communication in Indonesian. (See Appendix 7 for other standards).

Badan Pengembangan Bahasa[25] claims that average Indonesian native speakers have standard 4 *Madya* (Intermediate) proficiency. There is no specific information on the profile of test takers such as the age, areas, and occupation. So, it is unknown if they represent Indonesian universities students' level of Indonesian competence. Based on the standard above, average Indonesian native speakers can speak Indonesian for personal and social purposes only, and have low competency when they are asked to communicate in formal and complex contexts, such as in academic or professional contexts.

As students are not required to take the test prior to entering translation training, we cannot judge their Indonesian competence. However, looking at senior high school students' scores in national examinations for Indonesian, it is likely that their levels of competence are between Marginal and Temporary. Before entering university, students should be required to take a UKBI test. This test now can be done online by registering through an official website. Otherwise, it can be done in a *Balai Bahasa* (Language Institution) located in all capital cities in Indonesia's provinces. It is recommended that the minimum proficiency a student should have is standard *Madya* (Intermediate).

9.1.2 Curriculum design

This case study, unfortunately, has shown that PNP students' translation competences do not improve significantly across the three years of the program. It has also found that curriculum and syllabus design have contributed to a lack of students' competence due to irrelevant units in the translation program. The curriculum design is not sufficiently focused on translation because it is placed under the language department. Establishing translation as an independent program would enable a greater focus on translation with units designed to improve the students' translation competence.

It is recommended that the curriculum be designed based on the six sub-competences listed in the comprehensive PACTE translation model. This study has shown that linguistic errors significantly impacted on the students' translation quality; hence, bilingual sub-competence is crucial here. Furthermore, figure 8.2.1.a and 8.2.1b showed that the average Indonesian senior high school graduate had low

[25] https://acuanbahasa.kemdikbud.go.id/

English and Indonesian language proficiency. It means that Indonesian tertiary institutions are required to do comprehensive language training for both English and Indonesian. Currently, students' English competence has been the focus of translation education, with tertiary institutions providing various units to support and improve students' English competence.

However, this study has also noted that students' Indonesian language competence also requires significant improvement. Earlier, it has been noted that Indonesian senior high school students graduate with low Indonesian language competence. The media has often discussed it and the government, particularly Minister of Education, has also expressed concern about this. Yet, when these students go to tertiary institutions, it seems little is being done to improve this; most universities offer an Indonesian language unit in one semester, just because it is a compulsory subject from the Ministry of Education. This might be sufficient for programs which are not related to the language field and which do not require strong language competence, such as engineering and other science programs; however, any university with a translation program should offer more Indonesian language units at a high proficiency level and as a compulsory part of translation studies. Indeed, Nord (2018, p. 72) has emphasised that "the most important tools for prospective translators are their own native language". Though Indonesian might not be the student's primary language, they can be considered native speakers of it as they grow up acquiring both local and Indonesian languages.

If translation were to be established as an independent study program, students could be offered only units that support the development of their translation competence. The most important thing is to design units that support the sub-competence and knowledge areas needed for specific translation genres. An example is the course design at the University of Gdańsk in Poland (Biel, 2012). This university is determined on achieving their outcomes, which are based on their specialisation in institutional translation. This is "the act or product of linguistic mediation carried out by individual or collective actors on behalf of or for the benefit of institutions" (Kang, 2020, p. 256). Furthermore, this university focuses on translation related to European Union policy and information. To ensure students have all the resources they need to do EU institutional translation, this university provides them with a comprehensive program. The first thing they learn is Introduction to EU translation, to make sure they know the focus of this program and any resources they can have to do the translation. This university also provides terminology units because their students will deal with a large amount of terminology. They also offer some units discussing topics covered in EU translation, such as environment, consumers and health protection, as well as general, financial, and institutional matters. Furthermore, the students are also introduced to various relevant texts such as institutional websites, booklets, and case reports. In short, there are no unrelated units, such as literary translation. This example is in contrast to the Indonesian translation curriculum design. However, it is expected that if translation programs achieve an independent status then Indonesian translation tertiary institutions can design a more focused curriculum to improve students' translation competence.

9.1.3 Competent translation teaching staff

This case study has shown that most translation teaching staff have no translation educational background, which impacts the way the course is taught and assessment practices. Again, one of the key source problems is that translation programs are placed under language departments. Therefore, the qualifications of the teaching staff are not specific to those who have a translation education background. Unfortunately, having staff with translation degrees does not solve the quality problem because they may not be experts in translation, as most of them may not work as professional translators; on the other hand, professional translators cannot generally teach to tertiary institutions due to a lack of qualifications, as a relevant university degree is required. Even in Indonesia, now they require a master's degree qualification. Translators tend to not have academic qualifications, or those who have a degree may not be related to language or translation studies.

The issue of translation teaching staff competence has been pointed out by Davies (2004), Nord (2005), and Katan (2008), who note that inflexible regulations on who can teach translation impact on the quality of translation education. They believe that professional translators would provide better learning experiences for student translators due to their experience and knowledge of the industry. Indeed, replacing current teaching staff is not the best solution. On the other hand, Pym (2021) and Orlando (2019) have mentioned the importance of translation teaching training. Both Pym (2021) and Orlando (2019) agree that even those with a background in translation require translation teaching training before they are able to teach it. Specifically, Pym (2021) realises that in some countries, translation is taught by language teachers, who would be empowered by translation teaching training. He mentions China as the example, but a similar situation also happens in Indonesia. Orlando (2019) also argues that translation teaching training will provide expertise in syllabus design, course delivery, as well as assessment – all of which are crucial in delivering quality translation education. As current translation teaching staff have language educational backgrounds, translation teaching training would help them in teaching translation more effectively.

As mentioned earlier, if translation programs were established as independent programs, we would be able to determine criteria for the recruitment of translation teaching staff. We could decide to accept only those who have a translation educational background, and determine their expertise in translation education. In the Indonesian context, the solution can be to have a series of guest lectures with professional translators invited. This might not be something which could be done regularly, as it would require funding to pay guest speakers, and unfortunately budget has always been an issue in Indonesian tertiary institutions. Hence, it would be easier if professional translators were permanent teaching staff because they would receive a permanent salary from the government. Actually, the Indonesian Ministry of Education has noted the importance of having professionals as teaching staff, particularly in the attempt to ensure Indonesian education stays relevant to related industry areas. Furthermore, professionals are considered as practitioner lecturers, where they can work either full- or part-time on campus. There is no need for them to have a master's degree as long as their competence is based on the institution curriculum design (Siswadi, 2019). Therefore, a solution to competent translation teaching staff has been provided by the government. However, the rationale to propose practitioner lecturers depends on curriculum design. Again, with the independent status of translation programs, it would be possible to design a curriculum that focuses on translation, which would then pave the way for the proposal to have professional translators as practitioner lecturers.

9.1.4 Error analysis in translation education

This case study shows us that a lack of assessment in students' translation works impacts on the quality of students' translation competence across the year levels. Moreover, the fact that PNP still uses the same translation syllabus from 10 years ago suggests that there has been little evaluation of the translation program itself. This study has shown how error analysis of students' translation works enables an evaluation of students' translation competence. Furthermore, error analysis also enables an evaluation of the translation curriculum and how it can address issues of competence. In short, error analysis can be useful to provide a thorough assessment for both students' competence and of the translation program itself.

Assessment is vital in translation education because the purpose is to review students' performance and enable the instructor to evaluate whether the program is on track (Galan-Manas & Albir, 2015). With this in mind, the assessment is not only for the students but also for the program itself. Furthermore, Beeby (2000) states that competence can only be seen through students' performance. To evaluate competence, translation assessment tools used for national accreditation or in the professional context must be used, because they are valid and reliable (Williams, 2013). These professional assessment tools use certain criteria, and they will deduct points based on errors found in the translation, as explained by Dewi and Hidayat (2020):

> This assessment model in translation industry is known to apply a checklist of errors, an error analysis/deduction approach, or an analytic evaluation instrument. It evaluates a translation product by counting and discovering the errors it has (Dewi & Hidayat, 2020, p. 27).

The criteria used for this assessment are useful to determine what areas are to be assessed. The most important thing is that there is guidance for the teacher in in identifying errors in the assessment, and see how serious the errors are as well as helping with marking scores. This kind of assessment is not only for marking or determining scores for the students, but also for assessing how the curriculum may respond to problem areas of student competence.

In the context of Indonesian translation education, my experience both as a translation student at University of Indonesia and a translation teacher at PNP show that the assessment criteria used are not clear. The assessment is subjective, based on the teachers' personal judgment. It is recommended to use error analysis in translation programs. This study has shown how analysing errors not only can measure the students' competence, but also evaluate aspects of how the program is conducted and what aspects of students' competence should be addressed. Error analysis is significant in the Indonesian context, where translation education is still a relatively new field. Indeed, error analysis can help to develop and strengthen translation education in Indonesia.

9.2 Collaboration with external parties

This case study has found that a lack of collaboration and support from stakeholders, such as the Ministry of Education, official professional associations, and the translation industry has significantly impacted the quality of PNP translation education. Without sufficient support from relevant external bodies, Indonesian tertiary institutions are currently struggling to provide accredited translation education. The problem is that the government cannot provide standard guidelines for translation education while HPI, as the official association of professional translators, is reluctant to become involved in translation education. On the other hand, despite its constant growth, the translation industry has no special regulations which can be implemented as national translation educational standards. This should be of concern because the quality of Indonesian translation education is not only the responsibility of the institution, but external parties should also take responsibility to ensure tertiary institutions produce competent translators. Indeed, this lack of collaboration significantly contributes to the low quality of translation education in Indonesia. Hence, Indonesian tertiary institutions are recommended to build collaboration with external bodies as stakeholders in improving the quality of Indonesian translation education.

9.2.1 Collaboration with the Ministry of Education

Translation programs in some countries such as China (Lu & Wang, 2011) and Taiwan (Wang, 2013) are regulated by the government through the Ministry of Education. Unfortunately, there is no standard regulation on translation education in Indonesia provided by the Indonesian Ministry of Education. Hence, there is no national standards on how to teach translation in Indonesian tertiary institutions. Providing these guidelines might be challenging because translation education is a new field in Indonesia; it is not yet acknowledged as an independent discipline and cannot be established as an independent program in Indonesian tertiary institutions. The reason is that any program made available in Indonesian tertiary institutions in Indonesia must follow the standard study programs nomenclature provided by the Ministry of Education. This regulation was issued through a Decree of the Directorate General of Higher Education, Department of National Education no.

163/DIKTI/Kep/2007 about the management and codification of study programs in higher institutions, which was later replaced by the Ministerial Regulation on Study Program Nomenclature no. 15 of 2017. These regulations have made it impossible for translation to be offered as an independent program. In Chapter 3, it has already been discussed that translation is not on the list of the ministry's nomenclature, but language programs are therefore, translation has been offered under the language programs. However, the Ministry of Education can help solve the problem by allowing Indonesian tertiary institutions to establish independent translation programs as a supportive step for Indonesian translation education.

In fact, the Ministry of Education has attempted to give more freedom to the tertiary sector in Indonesia by releasing a regulation of the Ministry of Research and Technology of Higher Institution no. 33/2018 on 12 September 2018. The new regulation replaces the Ministerial Regulation No. 15/2017[26]. On the official government website, it is stated that the new regulation was launched to provide more flexibility to tertiary institutions in opening new programs to respond to industry revolution 4.0, to encourage new fields (particularly interdisciplinary fields), and as part of the effort by the Indonesian government to be acknowledged by domestic and overseas societies in internationalizing Indonesian higher education. With this in mind, it is expected that Indonesian tertiary institutions can propose new programs of study to the Ministry of Education, although it is not on the nomenclature list.

However, this new regulation (33/ 2018), is confusing. Article 7 states that any legal-entity higher education institution is allowed to decide the name of the study program and report it to the Minister of Education. It seems that this flexibility is only available for higher education institutions that are recognised as legal entities, which is not all of them. So far there are only twelve higher institutions in Indonesia that are legal entities; they are large universities and ten of them are located in Java. Furthermore, the regulation states that higher education institutions that do not have legal entity status "adjust the name of study programs according to the list of study programs". This statement is very similar to the previous regulation (15/2017), that says higher education institutions "must adjust the name of study programs"

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[26] https://lldikti12.ristekdikti.go.id/2018/09/25/permenristekdikti-no-33-tahun-2018-tentang-penamaan-prodi-pada-perguruan-tinggi-mecabut-permen-nomanklatur-prodi-no-15-tahun-2017.html

according to the approved nomenclature. The only difference is in the word "must". Although this word has been removed, the wording still implies that Indonesian tertiary institutions should follow the nomenclature – just that it is not compulsory. Hence, the statement does not clearly state this flexibility, and it can have multiple interpretations. Therefore, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education provide clear guidelines on tertiary institutions' flexibility in proposing a new program name that will allow translation to stand as an independent program.

9.2.2 Collaboration with professional translators' association

PNP as the case study has attempted to reach out to the HPI for collaboration, particularly to provide assessment for both PNP students and its translation program. However, as has been discussed in Chapter 3, HPI is yet to work with educational institutions; their focus is still on professional translators. In other countries such as Australia, the official association of professional translators is involved in maintaining the quality of translation programs in tertiary education institutions. Australia, through its National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) has a special list of accredited translation programs in Australian tertiary education. These institutions must meet NAATI standards, and assessment also uses a NAATI's style because the outcome of the course is that students will obtain NAATI certification when they graduate. In this way, translation programs in Australian tertiary institutions can be approved and accredited by NAATI (Orlando, 2012).

An example is the translation course at the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology (RMIT) University. As this course is approved by NAATI, the course description mentions that it aims to

> provide students with skills and knowledge in written transfer, the primary competency of the Professional Translator, and the ability to apply relevant contextual knowledge required of a particular assignment. It forms the first semester of a two-semester sequence aiming for Translation accreditation at the professional level as stipulated by NAATI (RMIT University, 2019)

Moreover, the program learning outcomes are developed based on the professional competences and professional standards. The students are taught to translate texts with gradually increasing difficulty, based on instruction, and applying various techniques. There are three foci on this course: legal, medical, and technology texts. The students are given feedback on their performance. They have various assessments such as quizzes and self-reflection, particularly for the theoretically related issues. However, they are also given assessment based on NAATI's style.

Learning from Australia, collaboration with HPI as the official professional translators' association in Indonesia would bring benefits to developing translation education in Indonesia. The reason is that this organisation is well established – since 1974. Their members are professional translators as well as academics who have expertise in translation. As their purpose is to increase the quality of Indonesian professional translators, they already offer translation workshops for Indonesian translators, both professionals and novices. Moreover, they conduct the certification for professional translators in Indonesia. Indonesian translation education has similar purposes as HPI, which is to produce professional translators. With this in mind, it is recommended that Indonesian translation tertiary institutions build a collaboration with HPI in any way that suits the Indonesian context. In order for HPI to be able to build sufficient capacity to provide this collaboration, they would need more resourcing to be able to take on the additional work. This would require additional funding resources. Perhaps this could be government-funded – either directly, via the tertiary sector, or from tertiary institutions. Furthermore, the most important thing is that the government would have to provide legal authority to HPI to manage translation education in Indonesia.

9.2.3 Collaboration with the translation industry

Despite the rapid growth of the translation industry in Indonesia, there is no exact data on the number of in-house and freelance translators as well as translation agencies in Indonesia. This case study shows there is lack of collaboration between the translation industry and Indonesian tertiary education. Yet, the translation industry could play a significant role in translation education. Biel (2011) mentions that in Poland, the European standards for the translation industry were implemented as the national educational standard for translation. Moreover, the European Commission and European higher institutions have specifically designed a translation curriculum for the European Master in Translation (EMT). The process of translation curriculum design involves expert groups in the European translation industry. The goal is to set up standardised translation programs in European higher education. Any university that meets this standard will become members of the EMT network (Calvo, 2011). According to the EMT's official website[27], the eligibility criteria are measured based on programme structure such as course design, learning outcomes, and credits, which cover EMT competence frameworks, sustainability such as staffing policies, and career support such as internships and students' employability. The above discussed example occurs in a country where the translation industry is well established. The situation is different in Indonesia where the industry has just started to grow in recent times.

In the Indonesian context, collaboration with the translation industry can also occur by establishing internship programs for the student translators. According to Schäffner (2014), internship programs provide tertiary institutions with information about market needs as well as the practices of professional translators to ensure that translation education is up to date. More importantly, students can get practical experience to help prepare them for work when they graduate. Sometimes, internships can lead to job offers. Therefore, collaboration with the translation industry can bring significant advantages to student translators' employability.

9.3 Conclusion

The discussion in this chapter relating to shortcomings in Indonesian translation education in tertiary institutions echoes the discussion in Chapter 2 about the debate on whether translation should be taught through translation training (outside tertiary institutions) or as translation education. The findings of this study seem to support the argument for translation training, due to issues in translation education such as a lack of qualified translation teachers with adequate background in translation (Katan, 2008), and curriculum flexibility issues in addressing translation industry demands (Ulrych, 2005).

However, in the Indonesian context, I believe that translation should be conducted through translation education. Training is conducted in short-term programs, while developing translation competence requires a long-term learning commitment which is best done in tertiary institutions. Furthermore, in Indonesia, academic background and degree are still the most important criteria in applying for

[27]https://ec.europa.eu/info/resources-partners/european-masters-translation-emt/emt-membership-criteria_en

work as in-house translators. Moreover, students enrolled in translation education will be more likely to have the motivation to remain in the course, although they might find it difficult because they will earn a title at the end. On the other hand, it is still not clear if the translation industry and the professional association in Indonesia are able to contribute to improving the quality of translation training in the country. Considering all of this, I believe that translation education is still the most effective way to teach translation in Indonesia.

As a new discipline in Indonesia, translation education has a long road ahead, which means that there are significant developments needed to better establish the field. This chapter has identified important steps to develop the field, such as establishing the status of translation as an independent program and developing collaborations with external parties. These are factors that contribute to problems in translation education at PNP and represent issues common to the field of translation education experienced by other tertiary institutions in Indonesia. The solutions to these problems require attention and intervention at the national level.

This chapter has also discussed some further related recommendations for translation education in Indonesia. Establishing translation as an independent program would enable more appropriate entry requirements for translation study programs, better curriculum design, and better assessment practices. Assessment through error analysis would not only benefit students' learning but would provide a stronger basis for program evaluation. Moreover, it is recommended that translation education programs establish a collaboration with the Ministry of Education, the professional translators' association (HPI), and key stakeholders in the translation industry. This kind of collaboration could help develop better regulations, provide better insights into the profession, and better opportunities to develop translation education in Indonesia.

Chapter 10
Conclusion

In this final chapter of the thesis, it is important to reiterate the significance of translation in Indonesia and to recognise the importance of translation education now and into the future. In concluding this thesis, I draw together key threads from all chapters to summarise the study and consider its contribution to a better understanding of translation education in Indonesia. In doing this, key findings of the study are presented in terms of how they answer the research questions stated in Chapter 1. The implications of these findings are then considered in terms of the recommendations presented within this study.

Indonesia has an ancient history of translation activity (See Chapter 3). However, Indonesian society was not familiar with the profession of translation until relatively recently. Translation was formally recognised as a profession in 1974 after the establishment of *Himpunan Penerjemah Indonesia* (HPI), the official Indonesian professional translators' association. The situation has progressed steadily in the 2000s with the profession of translation gradually gaining in popularity. This is partly due to the Indonesian government's acknowledgment of the importance of this profession, demonstrated by the establishment of special government translation job opportunities in the public service. The creation of a corps of government functional translators employed by the secretary of the state (as discussed in Chapter 3) has also helped to raise the profile of translation as a profession. In addition, increased attempts from the Indonesian Government and the private sector to 'go international' have increased the demand for translators. Currently, English and Indonesian language pairs are still the most commonly requested translation jobs in the Indonesian translation market. Though there is no official information on the volume of translation done in this language pairing, HPI directory[28] lists that 479 out of 570 HPI translators are working on English-Indonesian translation tasks, which makes them the majority and implies that the market for this language pairing is the largest. In this context, Indonesian translators are often expected to translate in both language directions. In response, Indonesian tertiary institutions are capturing this growing

[28] SIHaPeI - Indonesian Directory of Translators and Interpreters (hpi.or.id)

market need by opening more translation programs including at the undergraduate level.

Unfortunately, the quality of translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions remains in question. There are concerns about whether the outcomes of translation education are adequate and meet the market needs. As this study has confirmed, the translation quality of translation students in Indonesia is low, which suggests that graduate translators will also have low competence levels. This raises questions about whether the Indonesian translation education system is capable of producing high competence translators. Compared to European countries, Indonesia has been left behind. European countries have an established translation education system as a result of a long research tradition in this field, and due to collaboration between educational institutions and professional translation organisations. Additionally, government policies in European countries support translation education by recognising translation as an independent academic field. (Calvo, 2011; Biel, 2012). Compared to other developing countries such as China (Lu & Wang, 2011) and Taiwan (Wang, 2013), translation education in Indonesia is similarly poorly positioned. However, unlike China and Taiwan, Indonesia does not have government policies which support and regulate translation education. This study has identified that one of the causes of the low quality of Indonesian translator competence is poor language competence, in both English and Indonesian. In common-sense terms, and according to translation theory, it is easier to translate a text from the second language into the translator's native language. Translators who must translate from their native language into a second language will find it difficult to produce a natural target text (Campbell, 2013). However, Indonesian translators are required to do both. This research plays an important role in addressing issues of translating from Indonesian to English, the more difficult direction of translation for Indonesian students.

10.1 Translation studies and error analysis: A summary of this study

In Indonesia, translation education comprises both translation studies and language education. This thesis has shown that there are problems with the combination of these disciplines, particularly as tertiary translation programs in Indonesia tend to be located within English Departments. The research examined the case of Politeknik Negeri Padang, West Sumatera, where the researcher has been working since 2008. Being a teaching staff member responsible for the translation program has enabled the researcher to have authorized access as an insider to the documentation for researching the quality of translation education. This was investigated through the quality of students' translation works and the curriculum offered across all year levels of the program. To evaluate sample translations, this research used English native speakers as external reviewers to provide an assessment of the quality of students' translations, in terms of readability. To better understand how errors impacted the readability of the translations, this research adopted Corder's (1967) error analysis, a method developed in the field of Second Language Acquisition. Though applied in a different field, error analysis has been a significant approach in this study because it enables the researcher to locate specific errors, including the errors which were not detected by the external reviewers.

As applied in this study, error analysis of the outcomes of translation required a comparison of the target texts to source texts. This process of error analysis helped to identify errors and provided insights for understanding the reasons behind the errors. This is applicable to all aspects of translation education where error analysis enables the researcher or educator to categorise errors and the areas of competence in which students are lacking. In the end, error analysis also has allowed us to critique the translation curriculum and propose recommendations on new directions for the translation program.

Finally, the findings of this case study and its data are useful to understand the bigger picture of issues in translation education in the broader Indonesian context. The Politeknik Negeri Padang case can be considered as fairly typical of translation programs in higher education contexts in Indonesia. This institution was selected for the case study because the researcher, being an employee, had direct access to this institution. As a research method, case study aims to apprehend the phenomena in daily life which are accessible by the researcher (Yin, 2014), and this was an important element in the selection of this particular program. With this in mind, conducting the case study at Politeknik Negeri Padang enabled the researcher to observe conditions that also apply to other translation programs in Indonesia, particularly the overarching national higher education policy environment and the dynamics with relevant national bodies such as the HPI. Accordingly, this case study enables certain analytical generalizations where findings from this case study can be applied to the other translation educational contexts in Indonesian higher education (Yin, 2018).

10.2 Addressing the research questions

This study has been designed to address four key research questions, as outlined in Section 1.3. They are:

1. What key categories of translation errors are produced by PNP students?
2. What are the implications of these errors for the translation program at PNP?
3. What implications do these errors have for translation education in Indonesia more broadly?
4. What is the applicability of error analysis as a tool for reviewing translation education in Indonesia?

10.2.1 PNP students' business translation errors

The aim of the first research question was to identify the key categories of errors in PNP students' business translations from Indonesian to English. Furthermore, this question aimed at discovering how seriously the errors impacted the quality of PNP students' translation works. This question has been addressed in Chapter 6 through the discussion of the errors produced by the students, based on the external reviewer's assessment. Errors in the undergraduate students' translation works mostly related to English lexical issues such as terminology, idioms and grammatical issues such as syntax. Some of these errors were more serious as the students produced telegraphic syntax where sentences looked like a group of words without appropriate grammatical linking elements. Even third-year students could not consistently produce correct simple sentences that were grammatically accurate. In addition, the study found some errors related to word usage where vocabulary choices were not appropriate for the context; a form of error which potentially distorted the meaning.

Native English speakers were used to provide external reviewer assessment in this study. This assessment was beneficial, as it provided a tool by which to gauge the acceptability of the translation and to measure if the translation was of an appropriate English language standard. However, since this process involved reviewers evaluating the translated text without any further information, only surface errors were identified. Discovering more detailed information about the nature of errors, the likely causes, and possible ways to correct the errors, required a deep evaluation. This was achieved through error analysis, a deeper analytical stage discussed in Chapter 7.

Error analysis confirmed the external reviewer assessments' findings that English lexical and grammatical errors were the most frequent errors produced by the students. However, the use of error analysis in this study also produced some unexpected findings. It found that the errors did not only occur due to the students' English language problems but also because of the students' Indonesian problems such as their lack of familiarity with polysemous words and new Indonesian terminology. Moreover, a correct English sentence did not necessarily mean that the translation was accurate, if the transferred message was different to that of the source text. Another unexpected finding was that there were some factual errors which occurred when a term was translated totally differently from the intended one due to misunderstanding the concept behind the term, and confusing it with something else.

Besides enabling the researcher to track the errors down, error analysis also proved to be helpful for following the students' process in translating the source text. Error analysis allowed the researcher to observe the strategies and competences employed by the students when facing translation problems, as discussed in Chapter 7. Through the analysis of the students' translation processes and outcomes this study found that the students at Politeknik Negeri Padang have a lack of translation competence. Besides lacking both source and target language competences, the students also had a lack of subject knowledge as translating business texts requires specific knowledge. To make it worse, the students also had a lack of translation strategy competence, resulting in many sentences being translated literally. Translation strategy competence helps solve translation problems by finding appropriate equivalent words in the target language.

10.2.2 Implications of PNP students' translation errors

The second research question is related to the implications of these errors for the translation program at PNP. Key findings in response to this question have been outlined in Chapter 8. Errors identified in this study suggest that PNP students had a lack of sub-competences that make up translation competence, based on the model of translation competence used in this thesis: PACTE (Process in the Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation), as discussed in Chapter 7. The sub-competences are bilingual sub-competence, extra-linguistic sub-competence, instrumental sub-competence, knowledge of translation sub-competence, strategic sub-competence, and psycho-physiological components.

As this research included document analysis, students' translation works are not the only data analysed here. Other documents related to the PNP translation program design, such as curriculum, syllabus, and assessment have also had been analysed to evaluate their contribution to the students' competences (see Chapter 8). This analysis revealed that the translation program itself has contributed to PNP students' lack of translation competence. Notably, the program's shortcomings include a lack of entry requirements which would set specific levels of proficiency for both Indonesian and English. Furthermore, PNP curriculum design, translation syllabus, assessment, and translation teachers do not adequately support the development of PNP students' translation competences. Therefore, in response to these findings, recommendations have been made that the PNP program should be redesigned to address the weaknesses identified by this study through error analysis (see Chapter 8). Recommendations include the redesign of various elements, including entry requirements, course structure, and syllabus design.

10.2.3 Broader implications for translation education in Indonesia

The third research question is related to the implications of translation errors for Indonesian translation education. This is specifically addressed in Chapter 9. Although this research focuses on a single case study conducted in Politeknik Negeri Padang, West Sumatera, the nature of translation education in the PNP program presents similar challenges to what is experienced more broadly in translation education in Indonesia. Therefore, it is possible to draw a bigger picture from the findings of this case study. Key findings have revealed weaknesses in Indonesian translation education systems, which contribute to the low quality of student translators' competences. The first issue to be addressed relates to entry requirements, which should be revised. Indonesian universities typically do not set English language proficiency requirements for students entering a translation program. Hence, the students enter the program with varied English competence levels, including low levels.

An inherent challenge for translation education in Indonesia is that tertiary institutions need to do language and translation training at the same time. This is often not effective as students are forced to work hard to refine their language competence while trying to grasp new skills in translation. To make things worse, curriculum and syllabus designs are not always well integrated. They are often not sufficiently well designed to achieve the six sub-competences that build translation competence. Moreover, the set outcomes are not clear, and assessment regimes are not standardised. Hence, students often have issues with language and translation competence. As a result, they produce many serious errors in translating texts, which affects their translation readability and acceptability, as well as accuracy. Either the translation program in universities should redesign curriculum or change the level of education to provide translation education at a higher degree level, such as in a postgraduate program, with appropriate English proficiency entrance requirements.

Another weakness is that translation programs in Indonesian higher education do not receive adequate support from external related parties. The Ministry of Education does not provide guidelines on how to teach translation. Furthermore, the official Indonesian professional translators’ association (HPI) cannot assess translation training and education in Indonesia to ensure that these programs maintain specific standardised quality in terms of curriculum and teaching. Moreover, HPI cannot ensure that the graduates from these programs are certified as translators.

The translation industry also contributes to the low quality of translation education because it does not provide clear information on what the market needs and does not pressure tertiary institutions to meet those market demands. Enhanced collaboration with the translation industry would be useful to plan the direction of translation education in Indonesia. For instance, more robust collaboration might help institutions to highlight any specialised translation subjects that require attention in response to demand in the Indonesian translation industry. In short, the translation industry could provide feedback and advice on translation curriculum design to help ensure that graduates will have compatible competence with industry needs. On the whole, there is significant work to be done in addressing and improving the quality of translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions. This required work should not only be undertaken from inside educational institutions, but also from relevant external entities and key stakeholders. Indeed, a strong collaboration and planning with relevant external entities is urgently required.

The last research question is related to the applicability of error analysis in reviewing translation education in Indonesia, and this has been addressed in Chapter 9. This study has shown that error analysis is highly applicable in the Indonesian context. Given that translation programs in Indonesia are mainly incorporated within linguistics programs, linguistic equivalence has been the main focus of assessment. Error analysis is useful for assessing linguistic equivalence within translation programs because it reveals the contexts and causes of the errors. Moreover, error analysis enables teachers to assess students' translation competence as well as to identify if there are improvements needed in course design.

10.3 Contribution of this study

Drawing on a detailed case study, this thesis contributes to existing research in the field of translation education in Indonesia. The study has shown that error analysis, originally used in the field of second language acquisition, is relevant and useful in the field of translation education, particularly in the Indonesian context or in other countries with similar situations to those in Indonesia. There may well remain questions around why error analysis should be used in translation education, particularly considering that error analysis has been largely abandoned in the field of second language acquisition (Ellis & Barkhuizen 2005; James 2013). However, as noted by Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) and James (2013), although error analysis is not as popular in the classroom as it once was, it is still used in the field of language teaching, particularly in assessment practice and design.

This research shows that investigating the quality of a translation from the target text, that is, without comparing it to the source text, can only help us to detect language problems which appear on the surface. By contrast, error analysis provides a more thorough analysis that can detect not only potential language problems, but also other problems, such as content of the message and style or tone of language – aspects that also influence the quality of translation. Due to the emphasis of linguistic equivalence in Indonesian translation education, issues of accuracy become highly significant, and can be addressed through error analysis. The most important thing is that error analysis can provide crucial insights into learning processes that are central to translation education. This information is necessary as Indonesian translation education is still in its relatively early stages of development. Error analysis not only enables a detailed assessment of students' translated texts but also offers important insights into learners' experiences that can help Indonesian higher educational institutions improve translation education programs.

When a student makes translation errors, it means they are experiencing difficulties. In educational terms, this should be interpreted as a signal from the students that they require help. Educators need to see it as a warning that the curriculum needs attention particularly when certain errors are produced not just by one or two students but are commonly produced by a student cohort. Such a situation requires further investigation which can be addressed through error analysis. Error analysis requires the educator to compare the source and target text. In doing so, it will be possible to track the source of errors and identify specific categories of errors. Through this process, educators will often be able to understand what has happened in the students' minds and to imagine what part of the educational process has led to those errors, before formulating strategies to remedy the situation. In this way, students' translations reveal a great deal about competences which can then be extrapolated to aspects of the educational program. For future research purposes, interviews with students and educators would be a useful tool by which to verify and explore areas of difficulty that lead to translation errors and in order to explore more diverse perspectives about possible causes of errors. However, in practical terms of coping with high teaching loads and limited time, educators need to undertake assessments quickly. Through error analysis, it is possible to learn that the source of errors may not only come from the students but also result from the delivery of translation education.

Finally, this study has shown that in the case of Indonesia, translators with multiple native languages might have relatively low competence in those languages for the purposes of translating. Indonesian students have typically grown up speaking at least two languages, a local language such as Minangkabau language and Indonesian as the national language. Though there may be assumptions that Indonesian students are proficient in Indonesian, this study has revealed that students have problems with Indonesian. Therefore, this study has recommended that Indonesian students should be tested for Indonesian language competence because they are not necessarily familiar with academic Indonesian. This insight might be useful for other countries with many local languages. In cases where the student translators have more than one native language, they may not possess high levels of proficiency as required for translating in one or both of their native languages. This study recommends that for translation education, students should be required to pass entrance tests to show an appropriate level of proficiency in their native language.

10.4 Recommendations for future study

This study reaffirms the importance of translation education in the Indonesian context. Importantly, this study has identified various aspects that show shortcomings of translation education in Indonesian tertiary institutions. Apart from the translation education program itself, there are also issues in a lack of collaboration with government, professional bodies and the translation industry. This study also recognises further opportunities for research in translation education, particularly as each aspect identified here can be studied in more detail in order to provide deeper understandings of translation education in Indonesia.

This study has some limitations which may be addressed in future studies. The focus of this study is limited to business translation works from Indonesian to English. It is recommended that further study be conducted to address different language pairs in other types of translation or different genres such as literary works. Moreover, it is recommended to conduct more case studies in multiple locations or across different levels of education to research translation training course design in different educational institutions and contexts across Indonesia.

Finally, this study acknowledges that error analysis cannot be used to understand problems with psycho-physiological dimensions which are part of the last sub-competence of the PACTE model. Psycho-physiological dimensions need to be assessed personally, which requires direct interaction with research participants. Although problems with psycho-physiological dimensions might not show direct impacts on students' translation errors, they are crucial for student translators, particularly as they are being trained to be the next generation of professional translators. Further research on psycho-physiological dimensions is recommended to better understand how students' psychological aspects may contribute to the quality of their translation works.

In closing the thesis, this chapter has provided a brief summary of the study by returning to the research questions. This concluding chapter has considered the study's key findings in relation to the research questions, and also discussed the contribution to knowledge, the scope and limitations of the study and recommendations for future study. This thesis argues that the use of error analysis can be extended to the development of translation education. Error analysis conducted on students' translation works has been shown to be effective in revealing students' lack of translation competence. Applying error analysis to students' translation work has also allowed this study to identify bigger issues in the translation program itself, using the case study of PNP to demonstrate how this might be applied in similar educational settings.

Importantly, this study has suggested that problems identified within the PNP case study have implications for a far wider context. This study argues that the root causes of some of the major problems in PNP's translation program are connected to national issues. Problems of translation education in Indonesia may be regarded, in part, as resulting from the status of translation as a relatively newly established field of study despite its long-standing practice in the multilingual socio-cultural context. Accordingly, this study has set a foundation for further research in Indonesian translation education and presented some key recommendations with a view to developing improved translation education in Indonesia.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: ATA Framework for Error Marking

One	Two	Four	Eight	Sixteen	Code	Reason
Translation/strategic/transfer errors: Negative impact on understanding/use of target text						
					MT	- Mistranslation into target language
					MU	- Misunderstanding of the source text
					A	- Addition
					O	- Omission
					T	- Terminology, word choice
					R	- Register
					F	- Faithfulness
					L	- Literalness
					FA	- Faux ami (false friend)
					COH	- Cohesion
					AMB	- Ambiguity
					ST	- Style [i]
					IND	- Indecision, gave more than one option
					INC	- Inconsistency
					CLS	- Failure to use items mentioned in class
					WO	- Word Order
Mechanical errors: Negative impact on overall quality of target text.						
					G	Grammar[ii]
					SYN	- Syntax (phrase/clause/sentence structure)
					P	- Punctuation
					SP	Spelling
					D	- Diacritics
					C	- Capitalization
					WF	- Word form (part of speech)
					U	- Usage
						Total Error Points:
Quality Points:						Explanation:

							0
						Combined Score:	0

[i] Style can include collocation, zeugma, and denominalization errors.

[ii] Grammar can include agreement

ATA Framework for Standard Error Marking — Explanations

Code #	Criteria and Description of Each Error
INC	**Incomplete Passage:** Missing titles, headings, or sentences within a passage may be marked as one or more errors of omission, depending on how much is omitted.
ILL	**Illegible:** ATA criterion not used in KSU context because our texts are never handwritten.
MU	**Misunderstanding of Original Text:** This category applies when the grader can see—usually by back-translating the target-language text—that the error arises from misreading a word, for example, or misinterpreting the syntax of a sentence. In other words, the result is wrong because the translation was based on a misunderstood source text. Example: *Die große Versuchung, die die chinesischen Reichtümer auf die Hunnen ausübten…* *Correct: The great temptation that the Chinese riches exerted on the Huns…* *Wrong: The great experiment* [Versuch] *that the Chinese kingdoms* [Reiche] *practiced upon the Huns…* Example: The deal's complexity is mind-bending, involving six countries charged with putting down no fewer than nine guerrilla outfits that operate inside Congo. Here, the phrase *charged with* means *responsible for*, not *accused of*.
MT	**Mistranslation into Target Language:** The meaning of the original text is not conveyed properly in the target language. For example, a term in the translated text might be much more general (*scientists* instead of *researchers*; *protein* instead of *albumin*) or more specific (*stallion* instead of *horse*) than the original term. Mistranslations can also involve the choice of prepositions, the use of definite and indefinite articles, and the choice of verb tense and mood.
A/O	**Addition or Omission:** Something is inserted that is not clearly expressed in the original text, or something essential to the meaning is left out. Explicitation and implicitation are acceptable, however, but should be well justified (e.g., in your log and during class discussion.)
T MJ	**Terminology, Word Choice:** This error often involves terms used in various technical, legal, and financial contexts, where words often have very specific meanings. In more general texts, the candidate might not have selected the most appropriate word among several that have similar (but not identical) meanings. Sometimes a very specific word in general language is precisely right for a given situation due to usage, collocational conventions, etc. (mot juste).
R	**Register:** Language level, degree of formality should be preserved in the translation; examples of errors include using everyday words instead of medical terms (*spit* instead of *saliva*), making a legal document sound journalistic, *du/Sie* errors, anachronisms, and culturally inappropriate expressions.
F	**Too Freely Translated:** Candidates are asked to translate the meaning and intent of the source text, not to rewrite or improve upon it. The grader will carefully compare the translation to the source text. If a "creative" rendition changes the meaning, an error will be marked. If recasting a sentence—i.e., altering the order of its major elements—destroys the flow, changes the emphasis, or obscures the author's intent, an error may be marked.
L	**Too Literal, Word-for-Word:** Translations that follow the source text exactly may result in awkward, often incorrect renditions. Translate literally when it works, but not at the expense of clarity and natural syntax.

Code #	Criteria and Description of Each Error
FC	**False Cognate:** False cognates, sometimes called false friends or *faux amis*, are words that probably are derived from similar roots and that have very similar or identical forms, but that have different meanings, at least in some contexts. Example: aktuell ≠ actually, but rather *current*
IND	**Indecision, Giving More than One Option:** You must choose between possible options, even if we have stated in class that more than one option is acceptable. You cannot leave the reader to choose between options.
I	**Inconsistency, Same Term Translated Differently:** In general, a term that is used consistently in the source text should be translated consistently into the target language. Conversely, if the source text uses different words for the same idea interchangeably, the candidate should try to come up with a similar variety in the target language. [Note: this is not always the case in scientific and technical texts, where a proliferation of synonyms in the source language should be treated with consistent terminology in English.]
AMB	**Ambiguity:** If the meaning is clear in the source text but ambiguous in the translation, an error may be marked. The reader should not have to puzzle out the meaning.
G	**Grammar:** Grammatical errors include lack of agreement between subject and verb, incorrect verb forms, incorrect case of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives, and use of an adjective where an adverb is needed.
SY Z	**Syntax (Phrase/Clause/Sentence Structure):** The arrangement of words or other elements of a sentence should conform to the rules of the target language. Errors in this category include sentence fragments, improper modification, lack of parallelism, and unnatural word order. If incorrect syntax changes or obscures the meaning, the error is more serious. Examples: *The cupboard was infested with moths that organic foods enjoy.* (Nonsense) *Climbing the mountain, the cabin came into view.* (Dangling participle) *She skis, plays tennis, and rock climbing.* (Zeugma, parallelism error) *The from Berlin coming and now on platform 12 arriving express train is two hours late.* (Interference)
P	**Punctuation:** The conventions of the target language should be followed, including those governing the use of quotation marks, commas, semicolons, and colons. Incorrect or unclear paragraphing is counted as an error.
SP	**Spelling:** A spelling error that causes confusion about the intended meaning is more serious (e.g., principle/principal, systemic/systematic, peddle/pedal, dear/deer, bear/bare, sight/site. Context is a factor as well.
D	**Accents and Other Diacritical Marks:** The conventions of the target language should be followed consistently. If incorrect or missing diacritical marks obscure the meaning, the error is more serious. This is, of course, rarely a problem for into—English translation, but one does need to know when to retain accents (e.g., résumé) and when not. Aberrant accents are an irritation (*engáge* for *engagé*, the term used for hired help or mercenaries during the voyages of exploration in the early Louisiana Territory; Lá Place, a shopping center in Beechwood).
C	**Case (Upper/Lower):** The conventions of the target language should be followed. Examples: Don't carry German capitalization of nouns over into English, or the non-capitalization of the first words in lists, etc.

Code #	Criteria and Description of Each Error
WF	**Word Form:** The root of the word is correct, but the wrong form is used. Example in English: The product has been tampered with and is no longer safety.
U	**Usage:** Correct and idiomatic usage of the target language is expected. Errors include the use of the wrong preposition or misuse of a grammatical form. Examples: take vs. make a walk, married to vs. married with, etc.
ST	**Style:** If the source text is characterized by a distinctive manner of expression—flowery, staccato, conversational, instructional—this should be reflected in the translation. Awkward or clumsy renditions that obscure the meaning may also be penalized.
COL	**Collocation:** Two or more frequently used words that can be consecutive or non-consecutive, that form a unit of meaning, and that are accepted by common usage. Ex: The representative *made* a speech. (It is not proper to 'hold' a speech, or to 'perform' a speech.)
WO	**Word Order:** The relative order of subject, object, and verb, of modifiers (adverbs adjectives, numerals, demonstratives, possessives, etc.) and of clauses and other syntactic elements used in any given language. Note: Word order tends to differ from language to language and requires modification during translation.
D	**Denominalization:** A translation procedure where a noun or nominal structure from the source text is transformed into a verbal structure in the target text. Note: Some languages prefer nouns, and others prefer verbs.

Based in part on Doyle, *The ATA Chronicle* | November/December 2003; ATA Website,

http://www.atanet.org/bin/view.pl/12438.html

Appendix 2: The external reviewers' assessment sheet

GUIDELINES ON TRANSLATION ASSESSMENT

Before assessing the text, please read the guidelines carefully.

1. The texts are translated version of Business/Literary articles from English to Indonesian or Indonesian to English. There are 10 texts from year 2 and 10 texts from year 3.
2. The rater will do the assessment without comparing them to the source texts or original versions.
3. The rater will give the **score 1** if the translation is not really good, **score 2** if the translation is good, and **score 3** if the translation is very good.
4. The score will be given on each aspect provided adapted from American Translators Association Framework for Standard Error Making as follows.

ATA Framework for Standard Error Marking — Explanations

Code #	Criteria and Description
U	**Understanding of original Text:** This category applies when the rater can see the level of translator's understanding on the texts.
T	**Terminology, Word Choice:** It often involves terms used in various technical, legal, and financial contexts, where words often have very specific meanings. In more general texts, the translators might not have selected the most appropriate word among several that have similar (but not identical) meanings. Sometimes a very specific word in general language is precisely right for a given situation due to usage, collocational conventions, etc. (mot juste).
R	**Register:** Language level, degree of formality should be preserved in the translation; examples of errors include using everyday words instead of medical terms (*spit* instead of *saliva*), making a legal document sound journalistic, *du/Sie* errors, anachronisms, and culturally inappropriate expressions.
ST	**Style:** If the source text is characterized by a distinctive manner of expression—flowery, staccato, conversational, instructional—this should be reflected in the translation. Awkward or clumsy renditions that obscure the meaning may also be penalized.
C	**Consistency, Same Term Translated Consistently:** In general, a term that is used consistently in the source text should be translated consistently into the target language. Conversely, if the source text uses different words for the same idea interchangeably, the translators should try to come up with a similar variety in the target language. [Note: this is not always the case in scientific and technical texts, where a proliferation of synonyms in the source language should be treated with consistent terminology in English.]
CL	**Clarity:** If the meaning should be clear and not ambiguous. The rater should not have to puzzle out the meaning.
G	**Grammar:** Grammatical errors include lack of agreement between subject and verb, incorrect verb forms, incorrect case of nouns, pronouns, or adjectives, and use of an adjective where an adverb is needed.

SP	**Spelling:** A spelling error that causes confusion about the intended meaning is more serious (e.g., principle/principal, systemic/systematic, peddle/pedal, dear/deer, bear/bare, sight/site. Context is a factor as well.

5. In the end, the rater will provide overall comment for the translation. For example, if the rater thinks that the overall translation is good, he must explain the reason.

TRANSLATION ASSESSMENT SHEET

YEAR

Rating score:

1 = Not really good

2 = Good

3 = Very good

Text No 1-10	**Understanding**	**Terminology**	**Register**	**Style**	**Consistency**	**Clarity**	**Grammar**	**Spelling**	**Overall Comment**
x	1	2	1	3	2	1	1	3	The translation is not really good because the translators shows lack of understanding on the text. I find it hard to get the meaning because some words are ambiguous for me. And there are a lot of grammatical problems such as in using adjectives, etc. **(This is just a sample)**
1									
2									

Appendix 3 Deakin ethic exemption and Politeknik Negeri Padang custodian letter

Human Research Ethics

Deakin Research Integrity
Burwood Campus
Postal: 221 Burwood Highway
Burwood Victoria 3125 Australia
Telephone 03 9251 7123
research-ethics@deakin.edu.au

DEAKIN UNIVERSITY

Memorandum

To:	A/Prof Rebecca Fanany
	School of Humanities and Social Sciences
	B **cc:** Mrs Indah Sari
From:	Deakin University Human Research Ethics Committee (DUHREC)
Date:	17 July, 2017
Subject:	2017-203
	Error Analysis in the Work of Novice Indonesian Translators
	Please quote this project number in all future communications

The DUHREC Executive has considered the application for exemption from ethical review for this project and found it to comply with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007).

The DUHREC Executive has granted authorisation for Mrs Indah Sari under the supervision of A/Prof Rebecca Fanany,School of Humanities and Social Sciences, to undertake this project for the life of the project from 17/07/2017.

This Exemption from Ethics Review is given only for the project as stated in this memo. It is your responsibility to contact the Human Research Ethics Unit immediately regarding any of the following:

- Any adverse events or events which might affect the continuing ethical acceptability of the project
- All modifications to the research relating to the data or records must be submitted to the Human Research Ethics Unit for review prior to being implemented

In addition, you will be required to report on the progress of your project at least once every year and at the conclusion of the project. You are furthermore required to retain auditable records of the project demonstrating compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007) (paragraph 5.2.9) and to produce these if required.

Human Research Ethics Unit
research-ethics@deakin.edu.au
Telephone: 03 9251 7123

KEMENTERIAN RISET, TEKNOLOGI DAN PENDIDIKAN TINGGI
POLITEKNIK NEGERI PADANG
Kampus Politeknik Negeri Padang Limau Manis, Padang, Sumatera Barat
Telepon (0751) 72590, Faks. (0751) 72576
Laman : http://www.polinpdg.ac.id E-mail : pnp@polinpdg.ac.id

Letter No. 173/PL.9.1.25/Ak/2017

Monday, 3 July 2017

Human Research Ethics Committee
Deakin University
Locked Bag 20000
Geelong Victoria 3220 Australia

Subject: Notification of Ms Indah's research process at Politeknik Negeri Padang

To whom it may concern:

As data custodian for the Politeknik Negeri Padang translation assignment database I agree to provide Ms Indah Sari, Associate Professor Rebecca Fanany, and Professor Ismet Fanany of Deakin University's School of Humanities and Social Sciences access to de-identified data from the translation assessment database to conduct research on error analysis in the work of novice Indonesian translators.

The data were originally collected as a source of material research and program evaluation.

The data were collected after participants provided their written informed consent for the original collection.

Sincerely,

Signature Redacted by Library

Hendro Saptopramono
Head of English Department
Politeknik Negeri Padang

Appendix 4 Translation unit syllabus

FOR/SPM/001.082-
E1R0

POLITEKNIK NEGERI PADANG **JURUSAN BAHASA INGGRIS**			
FORMULIR		No. Formulir	FOR/XXX/000.000-E1R0
RENCANA PEMBELAJARAN SEMESTER (RPS)		Edisi/ Revisi	01/0

MATA KULIAH	Practice of Translation 2
KODE	BIG-
SEMESTER	II
SKS	3 SKS
DOSEN PENGAMPU	Dhini Aulia, M.Pd; Dr. Martini, M.Pd
CAPAIAN PEMBELAJARAN PS	A. Sikap dan Tata Nilai a. Bertakwa kepada TUHAN Yang Maha Esa dan mampu menunjukan sikap religious b. Menjunjung tinggi nilai kemanusiaan dalam menjalankan tugas berdasarkan agama, moral dan etika c. Berkontribusi dalam peningkatan mutu kehidupan bermasyarakat, berbangsa, bernegara dan kemajuan peradaban berdasarkan Pancasila : Berperan sebagai warga Negara yang bangga dan cinta tanah air, memiliki Nasionalisme serta rasa tanggung jawab pada Negara dan bangsa. d. Berperan sebagai warga Negara yang bangga dan cinta tanah air, memiliki nasionalisme serta rasa tanggung jawab pada Negara dan bangsa; Berkontribusi dalam peningkatan mutu kehidupan bermasyarakat, berbangsa, bernegara dan kemajuan peradaban berdasarkan Pancasila. e. Menghargai keanekaragaman budaya, pandangan, agama, dan kepercayaan, serta pendapat/ temuan orisinal orang lain : Taat hukum, dan disiplin dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat dan bernegara; f. Bekerja sama dan memiliki kepekaan social serta kepedulian terhadap masyarakat dan lingkungan; g. Taat hukum dan disiplin dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat dan bernegara; h. Menginternalisasi nilai, norma, dan etika akademik; i. Menunjukan sikap bertanggung jawab atas pekerjaan dibidang keahlian secara mandiri; j. Menginternalisasi semangat kemandirian, kejuangan, dan kewirausahaan B. Penguasaan Pengetahuan a. Menguasai karakteristik dan pemanfaatan bahasa sebagai alat berkomunikasi; b. Menguasai struktur dan pengembangan perbendaraan kata Bahasa inggris;

	c. Menguasai fungsi interpersonal, sosial, dan professional dari Bahasa inggris untuk berkomunikasi lisan dan tulisan, baik formal maupun informal dalam situasi internasional; d. Menguasai fungsi interpersonal, sosial, dan professional dari Bahasa inggris untuk berkomunikasi lisan dan tulisan dalam situasi bisnis internasional; e. Menguasai perbedaan dan pemanfaatan berbagai tipe teks tulisan, lisan, daring(online), dan audio – visual berbahasa inggris; f. Menguasai teori penerjemahan (konsep, metode, teknik, prosedur) untuk melakukan menerjemahkan teks dari Bahasa inggris ke Bahasa Indonesia dan sebaliknya sesuai dengan tujuan; g. Menguasai teknik dan teori pemanfaatan Bahasa Inggris dalam bidang broadcasting; C. Ketrampilan Umum a. Mampu menyelesaikan pekerjaan berlingkup luas, khususnya yang berhubungan dengan penggunaan Bahasa Inggris, dan menganalisis data dengan beragam metode yang sesuai, baik yang belum maupun yang sudah baku; b. Mampu menunjukan kinerja bermutu dan terukur; c. Mampu memecahkan masalah pekerjaan, khususnya yang berhubungan dengan penggunaan Bahasa Inggris, dengan didasarkan pada pemikiran logis, inovatif, dan bertanggung jawab atas hasilnya secara mandiri; d. Mampu menyusun laporan hasil dan proses kerja secara akurat dan sahih serta mekomunikasikannya secara efektif kepada pihak lain yang membutuhkan; e. Mampu berkerja sama, berkomunikasi, dan berinovatif dalam pekerjaannya; f. Mampu bertanggung jawab atas pencapaian hasil kerja kelompok dan melakukan supervisi dan evaluasi terhadap penyelesaian pekerjaaan yang ditugaskan kepada pekerja yang berada dibawah tanggung jawabnya; g. Mampu melakukan proses evaluasi diri terhadap kelompok kerja yang berada dibawah tanggung jawabnya, dan mengelola pengembangan kompetensi kerja secara mandiri; h. Mampu mendokumentasikan, menyimpan, mengamankan, dan menemukan kembali untuk menjamin kesahihan dan mencegah plagiasi; D. Ketrampilan Khusus a. Mampu menerapkan sifat dan fungsi dasar Bahasa Inggris minimal setara tingkat intermediate untuk berkomunikasi lisan dan tulisan baik untuk tujuan tertentu b. Mampu menerapkan fungsi interpersonal, social, dan profesional dari Bahasa Inggris untuk berkomunikasi lisan dan tulisan baik formal maupun informal dalam situasi internasional; c. Mampu menerapkan fungsi interpersonal, social, dan profesional dari Bahasa Inggris untuk berkomunikasi lisan dan tulisan dalam bisnis internasional; d. Mampu menganalisa dan mengevaluasi berbagai tipe teks tulisan, lisan, daring (online), dan audio-visual berbahasa inggris; e. Mampu menerapkan teori penerjemahan (konsep, metode, teknik, prosedur) untuk menerjemahkan teks sederhana dari Bahasa inggris ke Bahasa Indonesia dan sebaliknya; f. Mampu menerapkan teknik dan teori pemanfaatan Bahasa Inggris dalam bidang broadcasting; g. Mampu menerapkan pengetahuan dan keterampilan Bahasa Inggris akademik untuk menulis proposal dan laporan proyek berskala kecil yang berhubungan dengan bahasa Inggris.
DESKRIPSI MATA KULIAH	Mata kuliah ini merupakan mata kuliah penerjemahan lanjutan. Mata kuliah ini berfokus pada tahap akhir penerjemahan, yaitu penyerasian. Mahasiswa belajar menjadi penyunting yang akan menyunting terjemahannya ataupun terjemahan orang lain. Mahasiswa juga diperkenalkan pada kritik terjemahan. Dalam hal ini, mata kuliah ini mengajarkan mahasiswa untuk mampu mengevaluasi terjemahan

	dan memberikan penilaian. Penilaian yang dimaksud adalah penilaian mengenai sampainya pesan yang hendak diberikan oleh penulis, pilihan kata dan ragam bahasa yang digunakan oleh penerjemah.
MATA KULIAH PRASYARAT	
CAPAIAN PEMBELAJARAN MK	Setelah menyelesikan mata kuliah ini mahasiswa dapat menyunting terjemahan sendiri dan orang lain. Selain itu, mahasiswa juga dapat mengasah kemampuannya dalam menilai sebuah terjemahan. Tidak hanya itu, mahasiswa menjadi terlatih untuk menganalisis sebuah terjemahan, mengetahui metode dan prosedur yang digunakan penerjemah, sekaligus menjelaskan mengapa metode dan prosedur itu digunakan.
METODE PENILAIAN DAN PEMBOBOTAN	Evaluasi terhadap materi yang disampaikan selama proses pembelajaran dapat dibedakan menjadi dua macam evaluasi, yaitu evaluasi kualitatif dan evaluasi kuantitatif dengan penjelasan sebagai berikut: a. Evaluasi kualitatif: dilakukan secara lisan dengan pertanyaan yang menggambarkan pemahaman mahasiswa atas materi yang disampaikan. b. Evaluasi kuantitatif adalah evaluasi yang diberikan untuk menghasilkan nilai akhir bagi mahasiswa. Adapun komponen yang dipertimbangkan dalam evaluasi kuantitatif terdiri dari nilai-nilai dari tugas-tugas, kuis, ujian tengah semester, dan nilai akhir semester.
MEDIA PEMBELAJARAN	Power Point, Google Classroom, Edmodo, Internet.

JADWAL PEMBELAJARAN

(1) MINGGU KE	(2) KEMAMPUAN AKHIR YANG DIHARAPKAN	(3) BAHAN KAJIAN (materi ajar)	(4) METODE/STRATEGI PEMBELAJARAN	(5) WAKTU	(6) PENGALAMAN BELAJAR MAHASISWA	(7) KRITERIA PENILAIAN dan Indikator	(8) BOBOT NILAI
			Tatap Muka				
1	Mahasiswa mampu menyebutkan batasan materi kuliah dan peraturan-peraturan selama perkuliahan	Introduction	Kuliah Pengantar & Brainstorming	4x50’			
2-3	Mahasiswa mampu mengaplikasikan tahap penerjemahan; menganalisa teks sumber, pengalihan, menganalisa teks sasaran, dan penyerasian	Tahap Penerjemahan: Analisa teks sumber, Pengalihan, Analisa teks sasaran, Penyerasian	Brainstorming, presentasi Dosen, diskusi kelas dan praktek penerjemahan.	2x4x50’	• Mahasiswa menganalisa teks sumber yang diberikan • Mahasiswa melakukan proses pengalihan • Mahasiswa menganalisa teks sasaran. • Mahasiswa melakukan proses penyerasian	Indikator: • Penjelasan mengenai topic, jenis teks, gaya bahasa, dan Faktor Ekstratekstual pada teks sumber. • Pengalihan draft pertama. • Penjelasan mengenai teks sasaran. • Pengalihan draft kedua. • Penyerasian. Kriteria: Topic, jenis teks, gaya bahasa, dan Faktor Ekstratekstual pada teks	15%

						sumber dijelaskan oleh mahasiswa. Mahasiswa dapat melakukan proses pengalihan tahap 1, analisa teks sasaran, pengalihan tahap 2, Penyerasian.	
4-6	Mahasiswa mampu menjelaskan dan membedakan konsep-konsep dasar mengenai bahasa berupa konsep kebahasaan, fungsi-fungsi bahasa dan ragam bahasa dalam kedua bahasa asal maupun bahasa target.	Konsep-Konsep Dasar Mengenai Bahasa: Beberapa Konsep Kebahasaan, Fungsi-fungsi Bahasa, Ragam Bahasa	Brainstorming, presentasi dosen dan diskusi kelas	2x3x45’	• Mahasiswa menggali pemahamannya mengenai konsep-konsep bahasa • Mahasiswa melakukan diskusi kelas terhadap materi yang dibahas	Indikator: Penjelasan mengenai konsep-konsep bahasa, fungsi-fungsi, dan ragam bahasa Kriteria: Konsep-konsep dasar dapat dibedakan oleh mahasiswa sesuai dengan konsep kebahasaan, fungsi-fungsi bahasa dan ragam bahasa dalam kedua bahasa asal maupun bahasa target	20%
7-10	Mahasiswa mampu menjelaskan dan menerapkan proses-proses dan tahapan yang dilakukan dalam menerjemah teks. Juga mahasiswa menguraikan dan mendiagnosis teks	Proses dan Tahap Penerjemahan: Tahap-tahap Penerjemahan, Pedoman Umum Analisis dan Pengalihan Faktor Ekstratextual dan	Brainstorming, presentasi dosen dan diskusi kelas	4x3x45’	• Mahasiswa menggali pemahamannya mengenai konse-konsep bahasa • Mahasiswa melakukan diskusi	Indikator: Ketepatan Kesesuaian Kriteria:	25%

	sumber dengan mempertimbangkan faktor ekstratextual dan intratextual.	Intratextual dari Text Sumber			kelas terhadap materi yang dibahas • Mahasiswa melakukan analisa teks sebagai penerapan teori	Proses-proses dan tahapan penerjemahan dijelaskan dan diterapkan sesuai dengan teori yang sudah dipelajari	
11	Mid Semester Test						
12-13	Mahasiswa mampu mengkarakteristikan ideologi yang digunakan dalam penerjemahan yaitu foreignisasi dan domestikasi	Ideologi Penerjemahan: Foreignization dan Domestication	Brainstorming, presentasi dosen dan diskusi kelas	2x3x45'	• Mahasiswa menggali pemahamannya mengenai konse-konsep bahasa • Mahasiswa melakukan diskusi kelas terhadap materi yang dibahas • Mahasiswa melakukan analisa teks sebagai penerapan teori	Indikator: Mengenali bentuk ideologi foreignisasi maupun domestikasi Kriteria: Ideologi penerjemahan dikarakteristikan oleh mahasiswa sesuai dengan teori foreignisasi dan domestikasi	15%
14-17	Mahasiswa mampu mendiagnosis perbedaan antara metode-metode penerjemahan	Metode Penerjemahan	Brainstorming, presentasi dosen dan diskusi kelas	4x3x45'	• Mahasiswa menggali pemahamannya mengenai konse-konsep bahasa • Mahasiswa melakukan diskusi kelas terhadap materi yang dibahas • Mahasiswa melakukan analisa	Indikator: Identifikasi Penggunaan Kriteria: Metode-metode penerjemahan didiagnosis oleh mahasiswa	25%

					teks sebagai penerapan teori		
18	Final Semester Test						

Daftar Referensi:

1. Bell, Roger T. 1989. *Translation and Translating*. New York: Longman, Inc.
2. Effendi, Rachmat. 2004. *Cara mudah menulis dan menerjemahkan*. Jakarta: Hapsa et Studia
3. Machali, Rochayah. 2009. *Pedoman Bagi Penerjemah.* Jakarta: PT. Mizan Pustaka
4. Newmark, Peter. 1988. *A Textbook of Translation*. New York: Prentice Hall.
5. Larsoin, Mildred. 1984. *Meaning-based Translation.* Boston, University Press of America.
6. *Texts are taken from Websites, Magazines, Newspapers and Manuals*

Mengetahui Ketua Jurusan Bahasa Inggris **Hendro Saptopramono, SS, M. Ed in TESOL**	Padang, 29 November 2016 Penanggung Jawab Mata Kuliah Signature Redacted by Library **Dhini Aulia, M. Pd**

CATATAN:

(1) Proses pembelajaran harus dilaksanakan secara interaktif, inspiratif, menyenangkan, menantang, dan memotivasi mahasiswa untuk berpartisipasi aktif, serta memberikan kesempatan atas prakarsa, kreativitas, dan kemandirian sesuai dengan bakat, minat, dan perkembangan fisik serta psikologis mahasiswa, termasuk mahasiswa berkebutuhan khusus.

(2) Proses pembelajaran secara umum dilaksanakan dengan urutan:

a. Kegiatan pendahuluan, merupakan pemberian informasi yang komprehensif tentang rencana pembelajaran beserta tahapan pelaksanaannya, serta informasi hasil asesmen dan umpan balik proses pembelajaran sebelumnya;

b. Kegiatan inti, merupakan kegiatan belajar dengan penggunaan metode pembelajaran yang menjamin tercapainya kemampuan tertentu yang telah dirancang sesuai dengan kurikulum;

c. Kegiatan penutup,merupakan kegiatan refleksi atas suasana dan capaian pembelajaran yang telah dihasilkan, serta informasi tahapan pembelajaran berikutnya.

Appendix 5 Sample of PNP Students' Translation works

Year 1 sample

Source Text	Target Text
Lazada Dukung Pajak *E-Commerce*, Ini Alasannya	Lazada support tax E-commerce, This is the reason
REPUBLIKA.CO.ID, SURABAYA -- Toko modern dalam jaringan (daring) Lazada mengaku akan mengikuti aturan pemerintah terkait pemberlakuan pajak khusus bagi pelaku bisnis elektronik atau *e-commerce* yang rencananya terbit dalam waktu dekat ini. Aturan tersebut dinilai akan melindungi perdagangan daring. "Lazada sepenuhnya akan patuh kepada pemerintah, dan eksekusinya nanti dilihat lagi dan sekarang belum bisa komentar banyak," kata Chief Lazada Indonesia, Achmad Alkatiri di Surabaya, Rabu (11/10). Alkatiri yang ditemui dalam acara "shoping street UKM" di salah satu pusat perbelanjaan modern di Surabaya mengakui, Lazada yang menjadi bagian dari Asosiasi E-Commerce Indonesia telah melakukan pertemuan dengan pelaku bisnis elektronik lainnya. "Intinya kami dari Asosiasi *E-Commerce* Indonesia mendukung pemerintah, sebab dibuatnya aturan itu adalah untuk mengayomi keberadaan kami," katanya. Lazada, kata Alkatiri, kini telah memiliki 40 ribu penjual lebih di Indonesia, dan sebagai besar atau sekitar 85 persen adalah UKM dengan penjualan terbesar ada pada barang elektronik, aksesoris gawai, dan fashion. Sementara itu, dalam acara Shopping Street yang diselenggarakan selama enam hari mulai dari 10 Oktober hingga 15 Oktober 2017, di Surabaya bertujuan memberikan kesempatan bagi konsumen Lazada di Surabaya untuk lebih	Republika.CO.ID, SURABAYA –Modern store In network. Lazada will to confess government arrangement hooked special tax hold for bussines electronic doer or E-commerce the draft publish in time this near. The arrangement quality to protect trade. "tLazada will fully adhere to the government, and his later be seen again and now can not comment much,"said Lazada Indonesia chief, Achmad Alkatiri in Surabaya, Wesnesday (11/10). Alkatiri,who met in the event "shoping sreet UKM" one of central modern shopping in Surabaya to admit, that is part of *E-commerce* Indonesia assosiationhave done met with bussines electronic doer other. The point we of *E-commerce* Indonesia association support the government, because he made the rules it is for to protect the existence of us "said". Lazada, said alkatiri,now have 40 thousand the seller in indonesia and most or 85 percent is UKM with the largest is in electronic, accessories and fashion. Previously, the directorate general of taxes finance minister.now are preparing tax laws will be implemented on *e-commerce*. taxes laws regarding commerce it will regulate the way payment to the object will be adopted and one of mechanism tax collections apply to perpetrators *e-commerce* that has an.

mengenal para penjual Lazada yang menghadirkan berbagai macam jenis barang. Di samping itu, untuk menjangkau para pelaku usaha UMKM dan konsumen di Surabaya dalam mempersiapkan diri menyambut hadirnya pelaksanaan hari belanja *online* nasional yang diinisiasi Lazada pada Desember 2017. "Kegiatan ini, diikuti 30 penjual Lazada yang sebagian besar adalah UMKM, dan kami ingin mengenalkan lebih dekat kepada pembeli para penjual," katanya. Sebelumnya, Direktorat Jenderal Pajak Kementerian Keuangan kini sedang menyiapkan aturan pajak yang akan diterapkan pada *e-commerce*. Aturan pajak mengenai *e-commerce* itu akan mengatur cara pembayaran hingga objek yang akan dipungut, dan salah satu mekanisme pemungutan pajak diberlakukan kepada pelaku *e-commerce* yang memiliki aplikasi.	

Year 2 Sample

Source Text	Target Text
Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food Tanda Tangan MoU Dengan Canaan Bisnis.com, JAKARTA – Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food menandatangani Nota Kesepahaman (MOU) dengan Canaan Enterprise Company Ltd (Canaan) untuk mendorong ekspor Indonesia ke pasar Thailand dalam ajang Trade Expo Indonesia yang ke-32 di ICE-BSD City. Melalui kesepakatan ini, Canaan akan menjadi agen tunggal yang memiliki hak eksklusif untuk mengimpor, mendistribusikan dan menjual kembali produk-produk margarin, shortening dan asam laurat dari Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food dengan merek dagang Menara, Red Rose dan i-soc di Thailand. Nota Kesepahaman ini ditandatangani oleh Direktur Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food, Gianto Widjaja, dan Direktur Canaan, Theeraphat Denprasert. Dalam kesempatan ini, turut hadir pula Menteri Perdagangan Indonesia Enggartiasto Lukita, Duta Besar Republik Indonesia untuk Thailand Ahmad Rusdi dan	Sinar mas agribusiness and food signatured MoU with Canaan Bisnis.com, JAKARTA sinar mas agribusiness and food signatured note of understanding (MOU) with the Canaan Enterprise Company Ltd (Canaan) to pushed ekspor of indonesian to market of Thailand in site of Trade Expo Indonesia 32nd in the ICE-BSD City. By this agreement, Canaan will be a agent has eksklusif right to import, distribution and resell products of margarin, shortening and lauric acit from Sinar Mas Agribusiness and food with trademark menara, Red Rose and i-soc In the Thailand. This Note of understanding signatured by director of Sinar Mas agribusiness and food, Gianto Wijaya, and director of Canaan, Theeraphat Denprasert. On this moment also present minister of trade indonesiaEnggartiasto Lukita, ambassador of republic indonesia to Thailand ahmad Rusdi and managing Director of Sinar Mas agribusiness

Managing Director Sinar Mas, Saleh Husein. Direktur Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food, Dr. Ing. Gianto Widjaja mengatakan kesepakatan tersebut dibangun berdasarkan kemitraan antara Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food dan Canaan yang dibina sejak 2013. "Kami melihat potensi yang baik untuk pasar Thailand. Hal tersebut juga didukung dengan peningkatan volume transaksi sebesar 30% dari tahun sebelumnya," ujarnya. Sementara itu, Direktur Canaan, Theeraphat Denprasert mengatakan Canaan dapat memasuki sektor kelapa sawit di Thailand melalui kemitraan dengan Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food. "Pengetahuan dan pemahaman mereka terhadap pasar akan memastikan kelanjutan dari kesuksesan kami, seiring dengan permintaan yang terus meningkat di Thailand." Pada 2017, target pasokan dari Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food untuk Canaan diperkirakan akan mencapai sekitar 2.000 ton dan bernilai sekitar US$1,5 juta. Nota Kesepahaman ini ditandatangani oleh PT SMART, sebagai entitas bisnis Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food. Kesepakatan tersebut juga menunjukkan adanya hubungan yang mendalam antara perusahaan Thailand dan Indonesia. Nota kesepahaman ini menindaklanjuti pertemuan bilateral antara Menteri Luar Negeri Indonesia dan Menteri Luar Negeri Thailand tahun lalu di mana keduanya berikrar untuk meningkatkan hubungan ekonomi guna mendorong perdagangan antara dua ekonomi terbesar ASEAN.	and food, Dr. Ing. Gianto widjaja said the agreement is built on a partnership between Sinar Mas agribusiness and Food and Canaan since 2013. 'we are looking good potential for market of thailand. That matter also suported by raising transaction volume of 30% from the previous year.' He said. Meanwhile, director of Canaan Treeraphat Denprasert said Canaan can enter the palm sector in the Thailand throught parthnership with the Sinar Mas agribusiness and food. “"Their knowledge and understanding of the market will ensure the continuation of our success, along with the ever increasing demand in Thailand." By 2017, the supply target from Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food for Canaan is expected to reach around 2,000 tons and is worth approximately US $ 1.5 million. This Memorandum of Understanding was signed by PT SMART, as a Sinar Mas Agribusiness and Food business entity. The agreement also shows a deep relationship between Thai and Indonesian companies. The memorandum of understanding followed up on a bilateral meeting between the Indonesian Foreign Minister and the Thai Foreign Minister last year where both are working for improved economic ties to boost trade between the two largest economies of ASEAN.

Year 3 Sample Translation

Source Text	Target Text
BNI Layani Pelajar dengan Tabungan Simpel Bisnis.com, SEMARANG--PT Bank Negara Indonesia (Persero) Tbk (BNI) memfasilitasi para pelajar SMA, SMK, dan Kelompok Belajar penerima bantuan Program Indonesia Pintar (PIP) melalui BNI Simpanan Pelajar (SimPel) CEO BNI Kantor Wilayah Semarang, Eben Eser Nainggolan mengatakan produk tabungan menyasar siswa dan diterbitkan secara nasional. Produk ini memiliki persyaratan mudah dan sederhana serta dilengkapi fitur yang menarik. “BNI SimPel ini diterbitkan selain untuk mendorong gerakan inklusi keuangan juga untuk menarik minat siswa agar menabung sejak dini,”	Bisnis.com, Semarang – PT Bank Negara Indonesia (Persero) Listed Company BNI facilitated Senior High School, Vocational High School students and Study of Community to accept the aids of Program Indonesia Pintar (PIP) by using BNI Simpanan Pelajar (SimPel) BNI CEO of Semarang Region Office, Eben Eser Nainggolan said that savings product refers to the students and published in National. This product has easy and simple requirements and also completed with interesting application. “this BNI SimPel published to boost finances inclusive movement and also to lure students in order to saving their money early,” Eben said in Safety Family Card (KKS) and Smart Card Indonesia (KIP) event by President RI Joko

kata Eben di sela acara Penyaluran Kartu Keluarga Sejahtera (KKS) serta Kartu Indonesia Pintar (KIP) oleh Presiden RI Joko Widodo dan Menteri Sosial Khofifah Indar Parawansa di SMA Negeri 1 Semarang, Senin (9/10). Dia mengatakan pihaknya mendukung program pemerintah dalam menyalurkan berbagai bantuan secara langsung. "BNI mengembangkan layanannya agar penyaluran bantuan tersebut dapat dilaksanakan secara digital," katanya. Dalam penyaluran bantuan bagi 654 siswa dan 1000 keluarga harapan di Semarang kali ini, BNI mengintegrasikan bantuan dengan memfasilitasi menjadi kartu debit. Dengan pola ini maka penerima bantuan dari pemerintah ini dapat melakukan pencairan di ATM BNI, ATM Himbara hingga Agen46 terdekat dengan sekolah atau tempat tinggal siswa. "Bahkan koperasi sekolah bisa dijadikan Agen46 sebagai perpanjangan tangan Bank, sehingga pencairan PIP bisa langsung dilakukan di koperasi sekolah tempat penerima PIP berada," ulas Eben. Dia mengatakan hingga September 2017, BNI secara nasional telah menyalu rkan bantuan PIP kepada 1,03 juta siswa SMA dan 834.564 SMK senilai total Rp 1,6 triliun. Selain itu perusahaan memperluas sarana pencairan dengan dukungan 2.017 outlet, 16.977 ATM, dan 57.000 Agen46 di seluruh Indonesia. PERLUAS TAPCASH Head of Consumer and Retail BNI wilayah Semarang Bambang Kusumadi mengatakan pihaknya juga menargetkan mempeluas gerakan non tunai di Jawa Tengah melalui kartu tapcash. Saat ini Kanwil Semarang menargetkan dapat menerbitkan 1,2 juta kartu tapcash. "Pengembangan dengan menyasar pengguna BRT, layanan parkir, masuk pelabuhan, bus anggota organda, bahkan di Kudus, sudah ada anggota organda yang meminta desain khusus tap cahs untuk melayani armadanya," katanya. Bambang mengatakan saat ini untuk pihaknya telah menerbitkan 25.000 kartu BNI Tapcahs khusus untuk mendukung gerakan non tunai di jalan tol. "Kami siapkan sebanyak estimasi Jasa Marga dan Trans Marga Jateng sesuai kebutuhan," katanya.	Widodo and Social Minister Khofifah Indar Parawansa at Senior High School (SMA) 1 Semarang, Monday (9/10). She said that her people supported the government program in distributed any aids directly. "BNI developed their services in order to distribute aids by digital way. In aids distribution for 654 students and 1000 families in Semarang, BNI integrated aids by facilitated become debit card. By this way, the person who accept this government's aids could get in ATM BNI, ATM Himbara until Agen46 nearly to school or student's house. "in fact, school cooperation can be Agen46 as extension Bank so to get PIP can directly hold in the school cooperation where the person who accept the PIP is," said Eben. He said that until September 2017, in National, BNI has been distributed PIP aids to 1,03 million students of Senior High School and 834.564 students of Vocational High School with total Rp 1,6 trillion. In addition, company expanded cashing facilities which is supported by 2.017 outlet, 16.977 ATM, and 57.000 Agen46 in all regions of Indonesia. EXPANDS TAPCASH Head of Costumer and Retail BNI in Semarang – Bambang Kusumadi said that his people also refer to expand 'not cash movement' in Jawa Tengah by using Tapcash Card. Now Semarang Region Office could published 1,2 million Tapcash Card. "A development targeted to BRT user, Parking Service, port, Army organization, and also at Kudus, there are Army organization members who wanted TapCash special design for services their fleet," He said. Bambang said that now his people published 25.000 BNI special Tapcash Card for supports not cash authority in highway. " we provide as much as Jasa Marga estimation and Trans Marga Jateng which approriate with the necessary," He said.

Appendix 6 Detailed description of English language proficiency levels

Each of the level of proficiency is given the description as follow:

1. Students with the lowest score A2 level of proficiency are described as those who sometimes able to understand simple grammar, sentences, and vocabulary. Furthermore, they sometimes demonstrate familiarity with most often used tenses, very common linking verbs, the simple comparatives and common conjunction as well as prepositions. In listening, the students sometimes are able to listen to a short dialogue related everyday situation and understand main idea of conversation.
2. Students with B1 level of proficiency usually can understand high-frequency vocabulary and grasp the meanings of some lower-frequency vocabulary. They can understand the idioms and understand the implying message. They are usually able to use common tenses verb correctly including passive. They usually can use a clause correctly as well as recognize the structure of a more complicated sentence. They also can understand descriptive academic texts. They usually can understand the paraphrased information.
3. Students with B2 level of proficiency usually can integrate information and extract the implied meaning from various idioms and expression when listening to a short dialogue. They can get the important details in a short academic lecture. They usually can make an appropriate word forms using the appropriate suffix or morphemes. They can modify nouns by adding participle and relative clause. They understand various basic grammatical rules. They can process information across typical academic texts to understand detailed information both explicitly and implicitly in a text containing high-frequency academic vocabulary. They can understand text discussing concrete topics.
4. Students with C1 level of proficiency is usually able to understand main idea and integrate information in a short academic lecture. They understand the important detail and difficult and abstract vocabulary. They understand complex time reference and temporal relationship in a short dialogue. They understand less familiar verb tenses and reduced clause. They understand idioms, multiple usages of words, and complex sentences. They can follow discourse in the level of understanding detailed information as well as major ideas both implicit and explicit. They can understand text on abstract topics.

Appendix 7: Detailed description of Indonesian language proficiency level

(Pedoman Uji Kemahiran Berbahasa Indonesia, 2019).

1. Standard I *Istimewa* (Outstanding) with score ranges from 725 – 800.

   This award is given to the participants who demonstrate perfect proficiency in Indonesian both verbal and written. Therefore, they are considered competent in communicating for personal, social, professional and academic purpose.

2. Standard II *Sangat Unggul* (Very Excellent) with score ranges from 641 -724

   This category is given to participants who demonstrate a high proficiency in communicating for personal, social, and professional purpose. However, there is a little difficulty when they attempt to communicate for a complex academic purpose.

3. Standard III *Unggul* (Excellent)

   This category is awarded for participants with a very adequate competence in communication both verbal and written. They have no problem when communicating for the personal and social purposes. They also can communicate for their professional communication both in a simple or complex situation. However, they find it difficult to communicate in academic setting.

4. Standard IV *Madya* (Intermediate)

   Participants under this category are considered to have adequate proficiency in communicating in Indonesian both verbal and written for the personal and social purposes only. However, they have problem when communicating for a complex professional and academic purposes.

5. Standard V *Semenjana* (Temporary)

   This category is awarded for participants who have adequate competence to communicate for personal purpose only. However, they have problems in a complex communication for social, professional and academic purposes.

6. Standard VI *Marginal*

   Participants have inadequate competence in communicating in Indonesian language both verbal and written. They can only communicate in a simple communication for personal purpose only.

7. Standard VII *Terbatas* (Limited)

   Participants under category have very inadequate competence when communicating both verbal and written in Indonesian language. The participants can only communicate for survival purpose only. There are many aspects that require improvement.