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Indonesian Grammatical Interference in Translating Relative Clauses in Japanese Comic Strips

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A B S T R A C T

Bilingual communication, like translation, generates linguistic events due to interaction with two or more languages. The emergence of interference is one of the consequences of language contact. This study investigates the impact of Indonesian grammar on the translation of relative clauses in Japanese comic strips to examine the types of grammatical errors. This study also analyzes the morphological interference and syntactic interference at the phrase level as a result of the respondent's translation and investigates the causes, as well as discovers the respondent's difficulties and strategies during the translation process, particularly relative clauses in Japanese comic strips. A qualitative descriptive approach was used in this study, which data was collected by recording and analyzing the results of a mid-semester exam on comic strip translation for 56 students enrolled in a Japanese-Indonesian translation and interpreting (*Honyaku-Tsuyaku*) course in their third year. All respondents are proficient in JF Standard Japanese at the B1 level. Google Form questionnaires were distributed to ascertain the respondents' difficulties and strategies when translating relative clauses. The findings of this study showed that language interference errors are the most prevalent, followed by errors involving word deletions, word additions, incorrect formation of sentence elements, and incorrect placement of components. Thirty translation results were Global Errors, and twenty-six were Local Errors regarding error severity. The results of the questionnaire found that the most significant difficulty was determining the part that is generalizing, determining the order of the translated parts, translating the particle that connects the generalization clause, determining the Subject-Predicate-Object-Description in the sentence, and when translating the demonstrative word that follows the generalization part consecutively.

INTRODUCTION

Interference is the term in translation. Interference is a term used to describe changes in a language system that result from language contact with multiple elements of another language and are carried out by bilingual speakers, i.e., speakers who alternate between two languages (Chaer & Agustina, 2010). This interference is referred to formally as interference. Moreover, (Tarigan, 1986) states that the quality and quantity of a person's speech depend on the quality of that person's vocabulary. Language rules are the criteria used to determine a speaker's correct use of language. These rules include 1) the sound system (phonology), 2) the grammar (words and sentences), 3) the vocabulary (including terms), 4)

the spelling, and 5) the meaning. The speaker's communication ability will be hindered by the individual's limited knowledge of language rules.

The first language/mother tongue can be a disturbing factor for students learning a language other than their mother tongue because, whether they realize it or not, students engage in a transfer process, both structural transfer and transfer of different language elements from the first language when producing a second (foreign) language (Wibisono, 1990). In this case, control is needed to resolve such interference, and a monitoring system is required to effectively identify when power is needed (Nozari & Novick, 2017). Certain types of interference in a language system are called systemic interference (Weinreich in Chaer & Agustina, 2010). These interferences consist of 1) Phonological Interference, for example, the Japanese pronunciation of Gasoline is *gasorin*; 2) Morphological Interference; 3) Syntactic interference caused by transferring morphemes or words from the first language to the second; 4) Interference with meaning systems or interference with meaning systems. This interference can be divided into three parts: (a) generalization interference, where vocabulary elements are absorbed into another language; (b) contraction interference; and (c) lexical interference. (b) Interference with adding meaning, explicitly adding new vocabulary with a unique meaning while the old vocabulary is still in use and has a whole meaning. (c) Meaning replacement interference, namely interference that occurs due to the replacement of vocabulary caused by a change in meaning. According to the preceding explanation, interference is a language disorder at any level (phonology, morphology, syntax) and an issue that can damage the purity of the spoken language (Chaer & Agustina, 1998).

Translation is one of the courses taken by students studying languages. Translation is included in the discipline of linguistics because translation is closely related to linguistic sciences, both micro linguistics, such as morphology, syntax, and semantics, and macro linguistics, such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. As a sub-field of study, translation is a scientific field different from linguistics. Translation studies have methods and strategies that are different from linguistics. Several definitions of translation include replacing text material in the source language with equivalent text in the target language (Catford in Machali, 2009). Meanwhile, others say that translation is an intentional activity by the author to determine the meaning of a text in another language (Newmark, 1988). There is also a claim that everything expressed in one language can be expressed in another through translation (Nida, 1974).

The translation process can be described in Figure 1, according to Nida and Taber (1982).
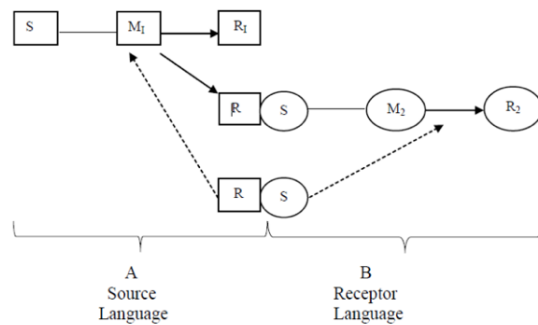

Figure 1: Translation Process Scheme.

The scheme above explains that the first box is the Source (S) or Source, which means the message or Message (M1) to the recipient of the message (R1) or Receptor 1. The translator, who is (S) the Source as well as (R) as the recipient of the message, receives the M1 that is conveyed as R1 and then conveys M1 back into a new message M2, which will be received by the recipient of the second message (R2).

Regarding meaning in translation, several factors facilitate changes in meaning in translation. These factors are language that continues to develop, passed down from one generation to the subsequent, vague meanings of words, loss of motivation, a group of words with more than one meaning (polysemy), and words in context. Ambiguous (in ambiguous contexts), and vocabulary structure (Ullmann, 1972).

Based on several explanations of the definition of translation above, it can be concluded that the process of selecting words is quite a heavy consideration because it relates to whether the result of the translation is natural and acceptable or not. Therefore, a translator must pay careful attention to translation principles. The principles of translation include the following: 1) understand the meaning and intention of the author; 2) have knowledge and knowledge of both languages (source language and target language); (3 avoid translating word for word; 4) use forms natural and commonly used language; 5) choosing the right words in translating (Bassnet, 2005).

How bilinguals choose words in one language while disregarding words in another is a central problem in bilingual language development (Emmorey, 2021). Interference generally includes lexical, phonological, semantic, and grammatical interference. However, Weinreich (2010) divides interference into three categories: phonological interference, grammatical interference, and lexical interference, with grammatical interference including morphological interference and syntactic interference (Aslinda, 2007). Further explanation revealed that grammatical interference alters a foreign language's structure and structural components (Lekova, 2010). This is due to the existence of semantics (the portion of language structure concerned with the meaning of expressions or meaning structures), rigid similarities, and differences between the systems in the Source Language and the Target Language.

In the meantime, grammatical interference is caused by the following: determining adverbs, adjectives, prepositions, verbs, adverbs, personal pronouns, and connecting pronouns (Benchehida, 1997). This is consistent with Hamers' view: "Grammatical interference occurs when a speaker of one language uses the structure of another." Interference occurs in all aspects of syntax, including sentence structure, tense, mode, determining adverbs, use of pronouns, prepositions, adjustments, etc. (Baggioni & Moreau, 1997).

Relative clauses in Indonesian are called by different terms, including "*anak kalimat relative*" by Mees (1954), "(modifying clauses) *klausa pewatasan*" by Lapoliwa (1990), or "(modifier clauses) *klausa pewatas*" by Sudarsa (1993). In Indonesian, relative clauses are divided into two: restrictive relative clauses and non-restrictive relative clauses. A limiting relative clause is a clause whose relationship with its antecedent is very close, and this clause determines the meaning of the entire sentence. Meanwhile, non-restrictive relative clauses are clauses in the form of insert comments or simply additional information that do not provide further restrictions on the antecedent. This clause is marked with a comma (,) in the writing (Quirk, 1979). Some pronouns connecting relative clauses in English are described in Table 1.

Table 1. Linking Pronouns in English.

	Limiter and Expander		Limiter Only
	Person	**Thing**	**Person and Thing**
Subjective Case OP…Prep	who	which	that
Objective Case			that, zero
Genitive Case	whom	of which	
Prep + LP	prep + whom	prep + which	
OP…Prep	who/ m…prep	which…prep	that…prep zero…prep

Explanation of Terms
LP: Linking Pronouns
OP: Object Pronouns
Prep: preposition

In Japanese, the relative clause is called 関係節 (*kankei setsu*). Relative clauses In Japanese are divided into four categories, with examples provided below.

1. 噂を聞いた人 (*Uwasa wo kiita hito*), "The person who heard the rumor". In this clause, "person 「人 *hito*」" is the subject of the person who "hears 「聞いた *kiita*」."

2. 私が聞いた噂 (*Watashi ga kiita uwasa*), "The rumor which I heard". Here, "rumor 「噂 *uwasa*」" is the object of "heard 「聞いた *kiita*」."

3. 私が衝撃を受けた噂 (*Watashi ga shougeki wo uketa uwasa*), "The rumor by which I was shocked." In this example, "rumor 「噂(に) *uwasa* (*ni*)」is neither the subject nor the object of "shocked 「受けた *uketa*」," but rather a modifying adverb 「副詞的修飾語 *fukushiteki shuushokugo*」.

4. 彼が結婚した噂 (*Kare ga kekkon shita uwasa*), "The rumor that he is married". Here, "rumor 「噂 *uwasa*」is neither the subject nor the object of "he is married 「彼が結婚した *kare ga kekkon shita*」," instead, it is a relative clause which is an explanation of the contents of the rumor 「関係節は噂の内容説明 *kankeisetsu wa uso no naiyou setsumei*」.

According to the previous example, the various relative clauses in Japanese, with their complex sentence structures, do not preclude the possibility of posing a challenge when translating into Indonesian for students. The author is interested in the types of translation errors, the difficulties encountered, and the strategies students use when translating Japanese relative clauses into Indonesian in Japanese comic strips based on the various theories, contexts, and problems described previously.

Previous research that is similar to the theme of this research is Juliastika, Mardani, and Hermawan (2019). This qualitative study focused on 32 *sakubun* (written essay) students. The findings of this study indicate that Indonesian language interference results from students' lack of comprehension regarding the use of context-appropriate verbs. This is because one Indonesian verb can have multiple Japanese equivalents. Aside from that, it is necessary to consider many factors, such as who the speaker is, who the interlocutor is, and the position of each speaker, when determining the words to be used. For instance, the word "give" has several equivalents in Japanese, such as 「あげます」 *agemasu*, 「くれます」 *kuremasu*, 「くださいます」 *kudasaimasu*, and 「やります」 *yarimasu*.

Aprilianti (2020), in her study, found that the Indonesian language interferes with the use of Japanese particles. This study aims to identify the emergence and causes of Indonesian interference in using articles in Japanese sentences. This qualitative research employs content analysis techniques. The data source is discourse text composed by second-year (third-semester) 2017 STBA JIA Bekasi Japanese language students who took the *Shokyu Sakubun* (composing) course. This study's data are errors in using Japanese particles extracted from Japanese words or sentences written with an interference-containing sentence structure. According to Weinrich (2010), the theory utilized in this study is interference theory, and according to Chino (2008), the theory used in Japanese language particles. This research indicates that the most interference occurs when using Japanese particles that contain the Indonesian ad position meaning '*di.*' Errors occur because the Indonesian language system is introduced into the Japanese language system in sentences, interfering with the student's ability to learn Japanese.

Nugroho (2022) is another similar study. The subject of this study is the translations of 15 sentences by students. The research method employed is a descriptive method with a qualitative descriptive strategy. The findings of this study are as follows: According to the research findings, interference errors are the most common type of translation error from both a lexical and grammatical standpoint. As a result, lexical and grammatical errors comprise the majority of translation errors made by students based on the impact of their mistakes.

The studies above focus on translation errors in vocabulary and sentences without including the difficulties experienced and strategies used during the translation process. In this research, the author's focus is on relative clauses and tries to find out about the challenges encountered and the strategies used when translating Japanese relative clauses into Indonesian

METHOD

Research Instruments

This study identifies the errors respondents (students) made when translating relative clauses from Japanese manga. This study adapts error analysis procedures from Ellis (1994), James (1998), and Tarigan (1990) by using the following procedures: data collection/sample errors, identifying errors in the data, explaining mistakes in the data, classifying errors based on their cause, and assessing the severity of the error. The methodology is qualitative, with data cards detailing the mistakes in the respondents' translated data. The errors that appear are categorized based on expert references, and the impact of the translation of the relative clause is determined based on whether or not it has deviated from the intended meaning in the source language. On April 4, 2023, the Mid-semester Exam for the *Honyaku-Tsuyaku* course was administered online. Students were prohibited from using and accessing any applications or links in the translation process. During the mid-semester examination, only use paper dictionaries.

The comic strip in Figure 2, the mid-semester translation text, consists of 4 panels (*yon koma no manga*) with six speech balloons. The part that is the focus of this research is speech balloon number 5 because the number and variety of translation errors are most visible. In addition, speech balloon

number 5 is a relative clause. The sentence from speech balloon number 5 is as follows.

「学校からかえったらうちでするてぶくろよ」

(*gakkou kara kaettara uchi de suru tebukuro yo*)

"(*Itu*) *Sarung tangan yang dipakai di rumah setelah* (kamu) *pulang dari sekolah lho* (/*kok*)".

English: "(Those are) the gloves you wear at home after (you) come home from school, you know (/aren't they).".

Figure 2: Comic four on the mid-semester exam panel.

Google Form questionnaires were distributed with the following questions to determine respondents' translation difficulties and strategies with questions as seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Google Form questionnaire list.

No.	Questions
1	Have you ever heard of the relative clause in Japanese?
2	Do you understand which part of the relative clause is in the sentence below? 赤いぼうしをかぶっている人は山田さんです。(*Akai boushi wo kabutte iru hito wa Yamada san desu*)
3	Do you find it difficult to translate (written) Japanese sentences into English containing relative clauses, such as this previous example (question number 2)?
4	What makes translating (written) Japanese relative clauses difficult?
5	How do you translate Japanese relative sentences into Indonesian when you encounter difficulty?

Research Instruments

A total of 56 students from the class of 2020 who took the "*Honyaku-Tsuyaku*" course during the 2022/2023 academic year participated in this study. According to JF Standards, the respondents' skill levels ranged from A2 to B1, an intermediate level. Respondents had no background in translating from Japanese to Indonesian and vice versa, either orally or in writing. Most students have a Javanese cultural and linguistic background, and nearly all are bilingual (regional language and Indonesian).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Error Analysis Results and Discussion

From a field perspective, interference can be divided into five fields: phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, and semantics (Jendra, 1991). In the meantime, Grammatical interference encompasses the fields of Morphology and Syntax (Lekova, 2010). Based on the visible grammatical interference, the word class of the errors can be determined (Baggioni & Moreau, 1997). Next, each type of error is classified according to Dulay (1982) and Llach (2011).

Fifty-six sentences were translated by respondents from speech balloon number 5, with each translation identifying the part and observed location where interference was. Several types of interference were identified due to data analysis, including grammatical interference (morphology and syntax) and lexical interference. Indonesian, regional languages (Javanese), and Japanese contribute to the interference heard.

It is known that all 56 relative clause translation results contain Indonesian grammatical interference, as well as interference from Javanese and the source language, Japanese.

Meanwhile, other translation errors made by respondents were deletion of words (Omission), addition of words (Addition), formation of wrong sentence elements (misinformation), and placement of wrong sentence elements (misordering). The classes of words that experience the errors above are prepositions, adverbs, demonstrative pronouns, personal pronouns (you/me), connecting pronouns (~*yang*), nouns (sentence objects), tense adverbs (after/after

returning home), adverbs of place (school/home) and suffix expressions.

Language Interference Error

From the analysis of translation errors, as many as 51 people made Indonesian language interference, namely omitting the connecting pronoun '*yang* (which)' in the relative clause. This is explained by the results of translation research, in which translators tend to eliminate connecting pronouns with the prepositional phrase "for" in English (Budiman, 2013). Examples of sentences translated by respondents that use the word "*untuk/buat* (for)" to replace the connecting pronoun "*yang*" are as follows.

> "*Itu sarung tangan buat dipakai di rumah sepulang sekolah*" (R6).
> "These are gloves for wearing at home after school."

The use of the word "*buat* (for)" in this sentence does not change the core meaning of the source language sentence. The expected translation sentence is below.

> "*Itu sarung tangan yang dipakai di rumah sepulang dari sekolah lho*".
> "Those are the gloves that you wear at home after school."

Another Indonesian language interference that often appears is the deletion of the preposition "*dari*" before the word "*sekolah*" with a total of 25 people.

> "*Itu sarung tangan yang dipakai waktu di rumah setelah pulang sekolah*" (R27).
> "Those are the gloves you wear at home after school."

In the Japanese sentence, the particle から (*kara* "*dari* (from)*") is written in total, but many respondents did not translate it, so the translated sentences were more effective.

Omission of Words

There are errors in the translation of the sentence above, namely the omission of demonstrative expressions that interpret new information from the speaker to the interlocutor. This similar error occurred in 38 translation sentences from respondents. Abstract nouns are words that can represent an object, attribute, or event in a sentence (Larson, 1989, p.236).

> "*Itu sarung tangan buat dipakai dirumah kalau habis pulang sekolah*" (R11).
> "These are gloves for wearing at home after coming home from school."

In the sentence above, the ending *-yo* is an abstract noun. So, deviations will occur when these abstract nouns are removed or replaced with inappropriate words.

Addition of Words

The outcomes of respondents' translations that include words that do not exist in the source language are also readily apparent. Fifteen respondents added the verb "*bisa*" to their translated sentences, while 25 respondents added words such as "*langsung,*" "*ketika,*" "*tetap,*" and "*harus*".

> "*Sepulang sekolah, sarung tangannya harus dipakai saat kamu di rumah*" (R43).
> "After school, the gloves must be worn when you are at home."

The use of "*harus*" in the translated sentence above shifts the core meaning of the original sentence, which does not contain the word obligation in the speaker's utterance to the interlocutor.

Formation of Incorrect Sentence Elements (Misinformation)

Translation errors of the particle うちで (*uchi de*) "*di rumah* (at home)" to "*ke rumah* (to home)," or the particle 学校から (*gakkou kara*) "dari sekolah (from school)" to "*di sekolah* (at school)" is seen in 11 translation results from the respondents.

> "*Kaus tangannya dipakai saat di sekolah sampai ke rumah*" (R51).
> "The socks were worn at school to home."

The preposition "*dari* (from)" before the word "*sekolah* (school)" should be translated as "*di sekolah* (at school)," and "*ke rumah* (to home)" should be translated as "*di rumah* (at home)" instead. Another error in the translation is the use of the noun "*kaus tangan* (socks)" when "*sarung tangan* (gloves)" should be used. Regarding the meaning of gloves here, it does not match the context of the four-panel comic, in which the first panel explains that the first character is knitting gloves for the second character; therefore, the word "*Kaus tangan* (socks)" is not appropriate in this

study. This may be due to bilingual sub-competence or mastery of the source language of a translator. If bilingual sub-competence is low, no matter how well the translation theory has been mastered, it will still be challenging to produce an accurate and precise translation (Saragih, 2021).

Incorrect Placement of Sentence Elements (Misordering)

Examples of sentences with misordering errors are as follows.

> "*Aku akan memakainya di rumah sepulang dari sekolah*" (R16).
> "I will wear it at home after school."

The subject of the actor in the translation above is "*aku* (I)," who is the mother's character, whereas the person wearing gloves should be the interlocutor, namely the child. A similar error is the mistranslation of the demonstrative pronouns "*ini* (these)," which should be "*itu* (those)" because the 'gloves' are in the area of the person speaking. An example of a translated sentence with this error is as follows.

> "*Ini sarung tangan digunakan dirumah kalau pulang dari sekolah*" (R3).
> "These are gloves to use at home when coming home from school"

14 respondents made errors in translating demonstrative pronouns.

Lexical Error

Lexicon or vocabulary is the most crucial aspect of translation for conveying the message from the source language to the target language (Halliday & Yallop, 2007). Lexical errors include improper word selection in sentences. Errors in vocabulary (lexical) can fail to convey the intended meaning of a translated message. The selection of appropriate lexical elements determines the success of source language message transmission. In other words, a lexical error is an error in communicating the message of the source language.

This indicates that the message does not effectively reach the target language, resulting in miscommunication (Nida & Taber, 1982). One of the lexical errors that is often seen in respondents' translations is in the translation of suffix expressions. There were ten respondents with improper suffixes.

> "*Setelah pulang sekolah, saat dirumah kamu pakai sarung tanganya ya*" (R9).
> "After school, when you get home, you wear gloves, okay?"

The suffix "*ya*" in Japanese is often expressed with 「〜ね」 (~*ne*). Meanwhile, the suffix used in the source language clause is 「よ」 (~*yo*). In Saigo (2012), it is explained that the provisions for using the suffix 「よ」 (~*yo*) are "*yo*" at the end of a sentence, which functions to inform the person you are talking to about something new. In the context of 4 commas no manga above, the speaker, namely the mother, tells the interlocutor (the child) that the gloves she knitted are for use at home after coming home from school. The translation of the ending that is considered more appropriate is "*lho/loh/kok.*".

Table 3 and Table 4 summarize the forms of errors, both language interference and other forms of errors, that appear in Indonesian sentences translated by respondents. From Table 3 and Table 4, it can be concluded that the most common errors are "Grammatical Errors," namely the frequent omission of the connecting word "*yang*" in target language sentences, resulting in inaccurate translation results. This is in accordance with research conducted

by Budiman (2013) regarding the tendency of Indonesian mother tongue users to omit the connecting word "*yang*" in spoken sentences. Translation by eliminating "which" in sentences is felt to express students' ideas more freely in conveying the message in the source language without eliminating the essence of the message in the source language. Translators prefer to change sentences by replacing them with the prepositional phrase for.

Table 3: Types of Translation Errors (Grammatical errors).

No.	Grammatical Errors	Examples of Errors in Clauses	Number of Respondents (person)	Remarks
1.	Interference 干渉 (*kanshou*)	Omission of the preposition *di-* in "used"	14	Local Language Interference (Javanese)
		Omission of the preposition "from" before adverbs of place (going home "from" school)	25	Indonesian Language Interference
		Make/For which is the linking pronoun "*yang*"	4	Indonesian Language Interference
		Use of the personal pronominal "*~nya*" after the noun object	10	Indonesian Language and Javanese Interference
		Omission of the linking pronoun "*yang* (which)"	51	Indonesian Language and Javanese Interference
		Translation of the particle 「から *kara*」 into "**from – to**"	6	Japanese Language Interference
2.	Omission 省略 (*shouryaku*)	Omission of the verbs "to use," "to go home"	10	Verb
		Omission of location information "at home," "school"	9	Adverbs of Place
		Omission of the object noun "gloves"	10	Nouns
		Omission of the adverb "after" or after returning home	22	Adverbs of Time
		Omission of ending phrases	38	Particle
3.	Addition 添加 (*tenka*)	Addition of the verb "can"	15	Verb
		Addition of adverbs "*doank* (only-slang)", "*saja* (only)", "*tetap* (still)", "*sendiri* (alone)", "*langsung* (directly)", "*pekerjaan* (work)", "*harus* (must)", "*dari sejak* (since)", "*nah*", exclamation called "*Ken*", adverbs time "*pas* (when)", "*saat* (when)', "*ketika* (when)"	25	Adverb Others
4.	Incorrect formation of sentence elements (*Mis-formation*) 誤形成 (*gokeisei*)	14) Mistake in translating the object "gloves" into "handkerchiefs" and "handshirts".	3	Noun (object)
		15) Mistranslation of adverbs of time adverbs when "*masih* (still)."	1	Adverbs of Time
		16) Mistranslation of particles ("at home"→"to house"), Particles ("from school"→"at school")	11	Particle
		17) Mistranslation of the verb 「する *suru*」 to "*melakukannya* (do)"	1	Verb
5.	Wrong placement of sentence elements (*Misordering*) 誤発注 (*gohacchuu*)	18) Wrong placement of the subject sentence elements "I" and "You."	22	Personal Pronouns
		19) Wrong placement of the demonstrative word "this" sentence element	14	Words that indicate objects

Table 4: Types of Translation Errors (Lexical errors).

No.	Lexical Errors	Examples of Errors in Clauses	Number of Respondents (person)	Remarks
1.	Interference 干渉 (*kanshou*)	1) Use of non-standard spelling "*dipake*", "*dibikinnya*"	6	Regional Language Interference (Javanese)
		2) Use of the vocabulary "*buat* (make)," which means "*untuk* (to/for)."	5	Indonesian Language Interference
2.	Incorrect formation of sentence elements *Misformation*) 誤形成 (*gokeisei*)	3) Formation of incorrect sentence elements such as "make", "*buat* (make)," "*kalo* (if)," "*mencoba* (try)."	3	Verb
		4) Incorrect ending phrase	10	Sentence End Particles
3.	Wrong placement of sentence elements (*Misordering*) 誤発注 (*gohacchuu*)	5) Misplaced particles "*dari* (from)" and "*sampai pulang* (to go home)"	7	Particle
		6) Wrong placement of sentence elements for the word "*ibu* (mother)."	1	Person Nouns

Global Error and Local Error

Based on Dulay (1982) and Llach (2011), the errors that appear above are reclassified according to the severity of the disturbance as Global Error and Local Error. Global Error or Global Error is a significant communication disorder caused by overall speech errors that result in the interlocutor's incomprehension or misunderstanding. Meanwhile, Local Error is an insignificant communication disruption caused by an error in just one element of speech that does not have an impact on misunderstanding. According to the error analysis results (as seen in Table 5), thirty of the respondents' translation results were classified as Global Error In contrast, the remaining 26 were classified as Local Error. Based on a comparison of the frequency of error types, it has been determined that "Interference", "Omission of Words", and "Incorrect Placement of Sentence Elements" are not significantly different. In contrast, the type of error "Addition of words and Formation of Wrong Sentence Elements (Misinformation)" demonstrates substantial variation.

Table 5: Data of Global Error and Local Error.

	Interferences	Omission	Addition	Misinformation	Misordering	Total
Global Error	30	30	21	14	19	**114**
Local Error	26	24	8	1	14	**73**

According to Table 5, the type of error is "Incorrect Placement of Sentence Elements (misordering)." In this case, many respondents reported both global and local errors. The translation of the demonstrative word "this" is one of the errors in this category. Because comic panel illustrations accompany the source language, it is possible to conclude that this type of error does not significantly affect the understanding of the translation results.

Meanwhile, the types of errors "Addition of Words" and "Incorrect Formation of Sentence Elements (Misinformation)" show pretty significant differences in number. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that adding words not present in the source language can significantly impede comprehension of the translated text. Incorrect translation of particles is one of the categories of Misinformation errors. It can be said that the respondent's understanding of the function of Japanese particles significantly impacts whether

or not the message is transmitted from the source language to the target language.

Questionnaire Results and Discussion

The following is a recap of the answers obtained from the results of the questionnaires given via Google Forms.

The diagram in Figure 3 below reveals that 46.4% of respondents (26 individuals) had heard the term "relative clause" before. Meanwhile, 33.9% (19 people) were unsure whether they had heard the term "relative clause" or not, and 19.6% (11 people) had never heard the term.

Even though these clauses are frequently encountered in both reading and listening when learning Japanese, relatively few respondents know the relative clauses in Japanese. If Japanese language learners cannot recognize the types of sentences in Japanese reading, they may have difficulty identifying the function of the words in a sentence during translation.

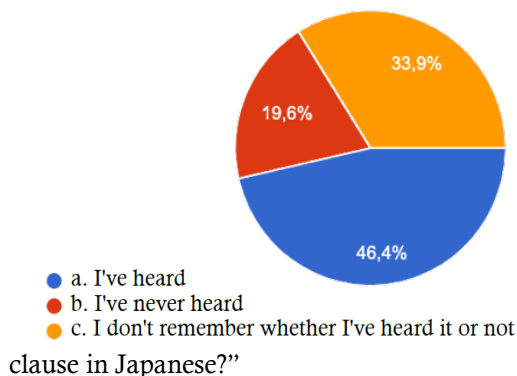Question 1. "Have you ever heard of the relative

- a. I've heard
- b. I've never heard
- c. I don't remember whether I've heard it or not

clause in Japanese?"

Figure 3: Percentage Chart of Answers to Question 1.

Figure 4 below shows students' understanding of relative clauses in the sentence. As depicted in the diagram below, more than half of the respondents, or 55.4% (31 people), indicated that they "do not understand" the relative clause portion of the questioned Japanese sentence. Comparatively, 37.5% (21 people) responded "understand," while 7.1% (4 people) responded "do not understand at all." Based on these results, it can be concluded that there are still relatively few respondents who understand the structure and components of Japanese sentences. This will, of course, contribute to the difficulty in determining which portion of the clause is a generalization and which portion is the main clause.

Question 2. "Do you understand which part of the relative clause is in the sentence below?"
「赤いぼうしをかぶっている人は山田さんです。」(*akai boushi wo kabutteiru hito wa Yamada san desu*) "The person wearing the red hat is Mr. Yamada."

- a. I understand
- b. I don't really understand
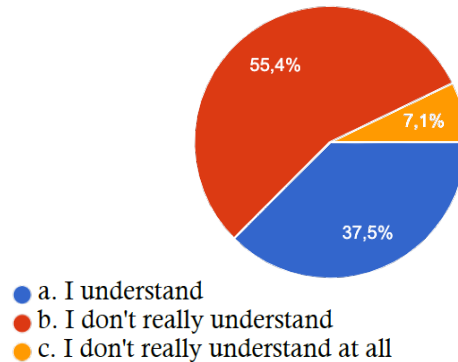- c. I don't really understand at all

Figure 4: Percentage Chart of Answers to Question 2.

The result from question 3 about translating Japanese sentences into English containing relative clauses can be seen in Figure 5.

Question 3. "Do you find it difficult to translate (written) Japanese sentences into English containing relative clauses, such as this previous example (question number 2)?"

- a. Yes, I find it difficult
- b. I didn't really find it difficult
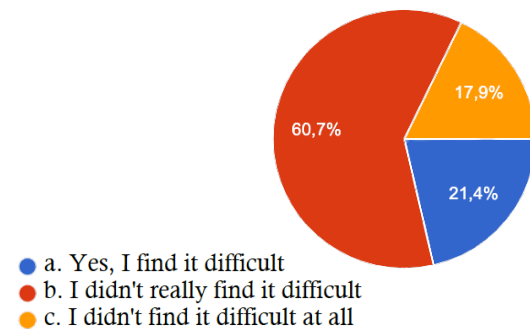- c. I didn't find it difficult at all

Figure 5: Percentage Chart of Answers to Question 3.

According to the diagram, 60.7% of respondents (34 people) felt they had little difficulty translating Japanese sentences with relative clauses. In contrast, 21.4% (12 people) felt difficult, while 17.9% (10 people) reported no difficulty.

Only one-fifth of respondents felt confident that they would have no trouble translating Japanese sentences containing relative clauses, and more than half of respondents lacked confidence in their ability to translate Japanese sentences containing relative clauses.

Question 4. "What makes it difficult to translate (written) Japanese relative clauses?"

In question number 4, the questionnaire provides more than one answer choice as follows.

1. When determining Subject-Predicate-Object-Description (S-P-O-K) in a sentence;
2. When determining the part undergoing generalization:
3. When translating particles の・から・によ る,など(*no, kara, ni yoru, nado*) which is the link for the generalization;
4. When translating demonstrative pronouns この, その, あの (*kono, sono, ano*) which follow the word/part that is experiencing generalization;
5. When determining the order of the translated parts;
6. When understanding the meaning of the whole sentence.

Figure 6 below shows the results of the questionnaires in question 4. The percentage of answers is presented as follows.
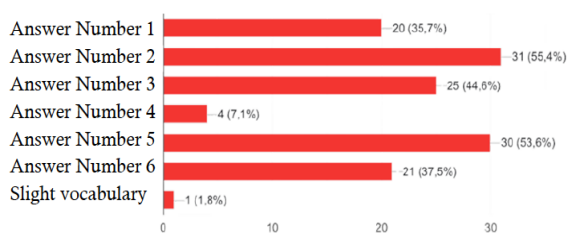

Figure 6: Percentage Chart of Answers to Question 4.

Figure 6 demonstrates that "determining the part that experiences generalization" is the most challenging aspect of translating Japanese sentences containing relative clauses, with a response rate of 55.4% (31 people). Followed by "determine the order of the parts of the translation" with 53.6% (30 people), then "translate the particle that connects the generalization clause" with 44.6% (25 people), then "understand the meaning of the whole sentence" with 37.5% of respondents (21 people), then "determining S-P-O-K in a sentence" which was deemed problematic by 35.7% (20 people), and finally "when translating demonstratives" with 35.7% (20 people). In addition, one respondent cited "little vocabulary" as a factor in the difficulty of translating relative clauses. The conclusion that can be drawn from these results is that the respondents' lack of awareness and knowledge in identifying relative clauses is a significant factor in the number of

interferences that occur when translating Japanese relative clauses into Indonesian.

In question number 5, the questionnaire provides more than 1 choice of answers as follows.

1. I used the help of the Google Translate application without re-checking the translation results.
2. I use the help of the Google Translate application and always re-check the translation results.
3. Translate some of it first.
4. If the translation is a comic/illustrative image, look at the image as a reference/translation help.
5. Put S-P-O-K marks on words in relative clauses before translating.
6. Look at the previous and following sentences (if the relative clause is in the middle of the paragraph).

From the results of question 5, the percentage of answers is shown in Figure 7 below.

Question 5. "How do you translate Japanese relative sentences into Indonesian when encountering difficulty?"
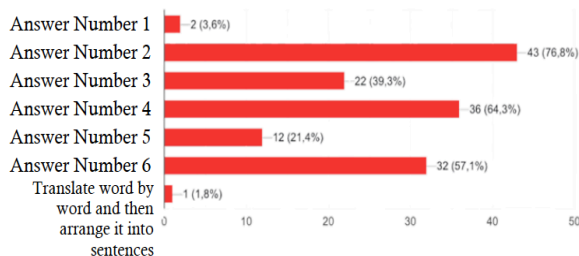

Figure 7: Percentage Chart of Answers to Question 5.

The majority of respondents (76.8%, or 43 people) who find it challenging to translate Japanese sentences containing relative clauses use Google Translate while re-checking the translation results, as indicated by the responses above. 64.3% of respondents (36 people) used "looking at images as a reference/assistance in translation" as the second most common method, and "looking at images as a reference/assistance in translation" as the following most common method. With 57.1% of respondents (32 people), the following strategy is "Considering the previous and subsequent sentences". The following response, "translate a portion of it first", received the fourth-highest number of votes, 39.3% (22 people). The strategy answer "put S-P-O-K markers on words in relative clauses before translating" ranked fifth with 21.4% of responses (12 people). The strategy "using the

Google Translate application without re-checking the translation results" received the fewest responses, totaling only 3.6% (2 individuals). In addition to the six strategies listed above, one respondent selected "translating words and then arranging them into good and correct sentences" as a strategy.

In a technologically advanced era, AI (Artificial Intelligence) in translation applications remains prevalent among students, as shown by the above results. However, nearly all Google Translate respondents admitted that the translation results were not always used directly. The translation results are re-checked to determine if they are appropriate or if there are any deviant parts of meaning. This is where the translator's command of both the source and target languages is crucial, according to Simatupang (1979). In terms of mastery of technology in general, as well as proficiency and skills in navigating online networks and information literacy in the translation training/teaching process, as well as an adequate understanding of the logic (and limitations) of translation using machines in particular (Somers, 2003; Wilks, 2009; Pym, 2011; Aiken & Balan, 2011), need to be reviewed.

CONCLUSIONS

According to the analysis results, the translation errors observed in the respondents' sentences were grammatical interference (morphological interference-word formation) in the form of errors in translating verbs, adverbs, personal pronouns, connecting pronouns, nouns, and mentioning time (time adverbs). Meanwhile, particle translation is inadequate in syntactic interference. The appearance of errors in translating sentence demonstrative expressions and particles is an additional visible interference. Meanwhile, neither phonological interference (sound system) nor lexicon interference (code mixing) was evident in the translation results of the respondents. Meanwhile, 30 translation results were Global Errors, and 26 were Local Errors regarding error severity.

Based on the questionnaires, the difficulties in translating relative clauses are determining the part that experiences generalization, determining the order of the parts resulting from the translation, translating the particle that connects the generalization clause, determining S-P-O-K in the sentence, and when translating words, pointing to the one that follows the generalization part. The most common strategy is using Google Translate while always re-checking the translation results, followed by looking at the image as a reference/translation aid, looking at the previous and following sentences, translating some first, putting S-P-O-K markers on the words in relative clauses before translating, using the Google Translate application without re-checking the translation, and translating the words and then arranging them into good and correct sentences.

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