

**THE STUDENTS' PROBLEMS AND STRATEGIES IN TRANSLATING  
ENGLISH COMPOUND WORDS INTO BAHASA INDONESIA**

**SKRIPSI**

*Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
For Degree of Sarjana Pendidikan (S.Pd.)  
English Education Program*

**By**

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MEDAN  
2018**

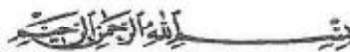


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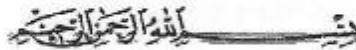
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Tanggal	Hasil Bimbingan Skripsi	Tanda Tangan
20 Mar 2018	ABSTRACT	
22 Mar 2018	CHAPTER I	
26 Mar 2018	CHAPTER II - V	
27 Mar 2018	APPENDIX	
28 Mar 2018	REFERENCE	
		 27/3/18 

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## **ABSTRACT**

**Anni Mutia Harahap. 1402050188. The Students' Problems and Strategies in Translating English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia. Skripsi. English Faculty of Teachers Training and Educaiton. English Education Program. University of Muhammadiyah Suamtera Utara, Medan. 2018.**

This study deals with the students' problem and strategies in transling English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia. The objective of the study are to find out the causes of the students' problems to translate English compound words into bahasa Indonesia and to find out how to solve the students' problems to translate English compound words into bahasa Indonesia.

This research was conducted at Class VII MTS Al-Jami'iyatul Wasliyah Tembung that was located in Jl. Besar Tembung No. 78 Lingkungan IV Tembung Kecamatan Percut Sei Tuan North Sumatra. The reason for choosing this class because the researcher ever mad the interview and observation in this class and it is found that the students have problems in translating translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.

The research found that the total score from the correct answer is 567 and incorrect answer is 233. Then, the average score from the corrected answer is 14,18 and incorrect answer is 5,83. The most dominant problem made by the student was 86 or 69,91% that we can see the table above. It means that so many students made problem of tenses in answering translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia. The percentage for the types of problems were th problem of do knot understand meaning found 80 or 34,33%, then the problem of grammar was found 67 or 28,76%, and the last problem of tenses was found 86 or 36,91%.

**Keywords: Problem, Stategis, Translating.**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS



Assalamu'alaikum wr. wb.

Firstly, in the name of Allah SWT the Most Almighty and the Most Merciful, all of praise be to Allah for the health and ability given to her in finishing this thesis. Secondly, peace be upon to Prophet Muhammad SAW who had brought human beings from the darkness to the brightness in our life.

Thirdly, the researcher would like to dedicate her best gratitude and deep appreciation to her beloved parents Sarwedi Harahap and Tiasli Siregar for their moral and material supports before, during and after the academic years at Muhammadiyah University of North Sumatra.

In writing this study that entitled **“The Students’ Problems and Strategies in Translating English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia “**, the researcher experienced so many difficulties and problems but she did not end her efforts to make it better, and it is impossible to finish without much help from the others.

Therefore, the researcher would like to deliver her thankful to all people mention below:

1. Dr. Agussani, M.AP., as the rector of University of Muhammadiyah Sumatera Utara Medan.
2. Dr. Elfrianto Nasution, S.Pd., M.Pd., as the dean of FKIP UMSU who had given her recommendation to carry out this study.

3. Mandra Saragih, S.Pd., M.Hum., and Pirman Ginting, S.Pd., M. Hum., as the head and secretary of English Education Department of FKIP UMSU who had helped in administration.
4. Prof. Dr. H. Syahron Lubis, M.A., as her supervisor who had given her suggestion, idea criticism and guidance in writing this study.
5. All lectures of FKIP UMSU, especially those of English Education Program who had given the valuable thought and instruction well as the information in teaching English during her academic year in completing her study in UMSU.
6. All friends, especially classmate at VII/A Afternoon, who gave care and supported her in finishing this study.
7. All the people that cannot be mentioned for supporting her a lot.

The researcher realizes that her study is still far from being perfect. So, the researcher expects suggestions and comments from all of the readers or other researchers who want to learn about this study.

Finally, the researcher hoped that her study will be useful for the readers, especially the students of English Education Department who want to do a similar research and also for the researcher herself. May Allah the Almighty bless all of us.

Wassalamu'alaikum wr. wb.

Medan, March 2018  
The researcher,

**Anni Mutia Harahap**  
**NPM: 1402050188**



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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### **A. Background of the Study**

Many people think that translation is not easy to do because we need good vocabulary in doing translation. Generally, translation is known as a process of transferring meaning from one language to another. Translation is very important in order to understand message or knowledge found in the source language. Newmark (2005: 7) says that translation is a two-edged instrument, it has the special purpose of demonstrating the learner's knowledge of foreign language.

Newmark (as quoted by Machali 2002: 1) defines translation as a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and statement in one language by that same message and statement in another language. Nida (2003: 12) states that translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language that natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style.

Translation has many procedures or methods. So, in translating the translator uses procedures that differ in importance according to contextual factors of both of the source language (SL) and target language (TL). Newmark (1988: 81) mentions the difference between translation method and translation procedures. He says that, while translation methods relate to whole texts, translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller unit of language.

Vinay and Darbelnet in Venuti (2000: 84-93) mention that the method or procedure of translation can be divided into two covering procedures, they are (a) literal or direct translation which consists of borrowing, calque, and literal translation, and (b) translating English compound words into bahasa Indonesia as its consists of transposition, equivalent, modulation and adaptation.

Literal or direct translation procedures are used when structure and conceptual elements of the source language can be transposed into the target language. For example, 'all the geese' which is translated into *semua angsa*, it is an example of literal translation procedure because the direct transfer of source language text into a grammatically and idiomatically target text.

Translating English compound words into bahasa Indonesia procedures are used when the structure or conceptual elements of the source language cannot be directly translated without altering meaning or upsetting the grammatical and stylistics elements of the target language. For example, 'crocodiles and cranes' which are translated into *buaya dan burung bangau*, it is the example of transposition, because replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message.

Nowadays, many people are doing translation, for example translating an article. In some cases, some articles are written in two languages such as in bahasa Indonesia language and English. It happens in order to make people understand or follow the contents especially for those who cannot understand English. Beside that the translator wants the message in the Source Language (English) can be

transferred clearly in Target Language (Bahasa Indonesia language). So, there is no miscommunication in transferring the message.

Based on the description above, the writer feels interested in doing a research entitled: **“Students’ Problems and Strategies in Translating English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia”**.

### **B. Identification of Problems**

Based on the background above, there are two problems to disclose, they are:

1. The students of Class VII MTS Al-Jami’iyatul Wasliyah Tembung feel difficult to translate English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia
2. Many students do not have enough vocabulary.

### **C. The Scope of the Study**

In translation there are many aspects that can be discussed, such as translation equivalent, translation shift, and translation procedures. But in this thesis, the scope of the study is focused on translation. The limitation of the study is translation compound words.

### **D. Formulation of the Problem**

The problems are formulated as follows:

1. What causes the students’ problems translate English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia?
2. How to solve the students’ problems to translate English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia?

### **E. Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the chapter as the answers to the problems above can be described as follows:

1. To find out the causes of the students' problems to translate English compound words into bahasa Indonesia.
2. To find out how to solve the students' problems to translate English compound words into bahasa Indonesia.

### **F. The Significance of the Study**

The researcher hopes that this research gives some benefits both theoretical and practical benefit.

#### 1. Theoretically

Related to this research, the researcher hopes that this research can be used as reference (Harmer, 2005) for other researcher who wants to conduct research about translation.

#### 2. Practically

The researcher expects that the results of the study would be useful for:

1. Teachers, to provide the English teachers a plan and to conduct a better and interesting learning process in translation.
2. Students, who want to know how to translate well.
3. The results of this study hopefully will provide information for those who are interested in this study.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### A. Theoretical Framework

##### 1. Description of Translation

With more than five thousands languages spoken all over the world today, the need for translation and educated translators is evident – some might say even crucial. This need is reinforced by the increasing mobility of people and ever growing internationality; never before have we been as much in contact with other cultures and languages as we are today. This phenomenon has resulted in the fact that the importance of translation has also grown greater than ever before. Translations enable communication across cultural and linguistic boundaries and reinforce intercultural understanding.

The very first sign of translation can be traced back to as 3000 BC Newmark, (2005: 3). A popular view is that translation is almost as old as language itself; where has been language, there has always translation. Despite the fact that translation has become increasingly important in recent decades, translation still continues to be somewhat undervalued. The common misconception seems to be that anyone who masters another language in addition to their native one is also capable of producing smooth translations between these languages quite easily and without any considerable effort.

Etymologically, translation is a carrying across or bringing across. The Latin *translatio* derives from the past participle, *translatus*, of *transfere*. The modern Romance, Germanic and Slavic European languages have generally

formed their own equivalent terms for this concept after the Latin model — after *transfere* or after the kindred *traducere* (to bring across or to lead across). Additionally, the Greek term for translation, *metaphrasis* (a speaking across), has supplied English with *metaphrase* — a literal translation, or word-for-word translation — as contrasted with *paraphrase* (a saying in other words, from the Greek *paraphrasis*).

Translation is one of branches of linguistics which analyzes the aspect of language, culture, and communication. Linguistically, translation is for the process of translation the translator consistently attempts to compare and contrast different aspects of two languages to find the equivalents Karimi, (2003: 64). Translation can be defined as the interpretation of the meaning of a text in one language (the source language) and the production in another language, of an equivalent text (the target language or translation) that communicates the same message. Such as the definition of Karimi (2003: 67) states that “translation is converting the source language to the target language so that the TL could convey the intended message in the SL”. In other words, the translator decodes the SL and encodes his understanding of the TL form through a process.

The ideal translation will be accurate as to meaning and natural as to the receptor language forms used Larson, (2005: 127). An intended audience who is unfamiliar with the source text will readily understand it. The success of a translation is measured by how closely it measures up to these ideals. The ideal translation should be:

- a. Accurate: reproducing as exactly as possible the meaning of the source text.

- b. Natural: using natural forms of the receptor language in a way that is appropriate to the kind of text being translated.
- c. Communicative: expressing all aspects of the meaning in a way that is readily understandable to the intended audience.

Newmark, (2005: 7) Translation is a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language. Nida, (2003: 12) Another definition of translation assumed that translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and secondly in terms of style.

These definitions of translation are fairly congruent with each other, and various theorists define translations in relatively similar terms. Although a diversity of perspectives has been articulated within the field of translation theory, there are some view that translation is aimed to transfer the meaning of source language to the target language rather than converting the words and grammatical forms of the original language.

## **2. Translation Principle**

Translation principle is a set of basic references that should be considered by a translator Suryawinata and Harianto, (2003: 57). In line with the translation varieties above, there are two types of translation principles namely translation that is faithful to the author or the source language and the translation that tends to the reader or the target language. In the former, the translator tries to maintain the characteristics of the author that can be seen from the diction or sentence

structures in the target language. Suryawinata and Harianto, (2003: 57) In the later, the translator tries to re-express meanings or message of the source language in the target language to make the translation can be read easily and it is written with easy words.

The principles adopted by the translator who is faithful to the source language texts are as follows (Suryawinata and Harianto, 2003: 59):

- a. The translator should use the source language word.
- b. When the translation is read, it is like a translation.
- c. The translation should show the style of the source language texts.
- d. The translation should show the time of the writing of the texts.
- e. The translation should not add or reduce anything existing in the source language texts.
- f. A literature genre should be maintained in the translation.

Generally, there are four main principles of translation (Sartono, 2002: 11), they are:

- a. The same meaning is more important than the same word.
- b. The same meaning is more important than the same form of the text.
- c. Verbal form is more important than written text.
- d. The translation must be able to be received by the readers or audiences depend on the characteristics of them.

If these principles are adopted, the translator should try to transfer the ideas of the target language into those of the source language. It is not the form, but the ideas or the content that should be rendered. The translation should be read like the original text in the target language. Thus, the translator is permitted to add or reduce elements that may distract the smoothness of the translation. However, for principle 6, it should be noted that the translator should not change the genre of the writing since the idea still can be conveyed without changing the genre.



Based on the quotation above, it shows that a translator should be able to judge whether he should adopt a translation that is faithful to the source language or to the target language according to the types of the text (s) he is translating.

Larson (2005: 13) in his book *Meaning-Based Translation* said that the steps of translation are as the following:

- a. *Preparation*. In this step, there are two main point, they are preparation of how to be a good translation and the preparation relating to the text to be translated. So the translator should study about the text, this study background material will include finding out about author, about circumstances or the writing of the text, the purpose for which it will be written, the culture of the source text, and when the text will be written for.
- b. *Analyzing*. In this step, the translator starts to find out the key words which is the most important in comprehending the text. In this step, there are two things that should be concerned; they are linguistic aspect and the aspect of material.
- c. *Transferring*. In this step, the translator starts thinking about the suitable words for some technical terms in the SL, it is including the semantic analysis.
- d. *First Draft*. In this step, the translator starts writing which is come to the mind in a form of writing or draft. In this first draft, the translator will know what the missing information in the translation is.
- e. *Checking the first draft*. After writing the first draft, the translator should recheck the translation. So, the translator will know well how about their translation.
- f. *Testing the translation*. In this step, the translator compares the translating text to the SL. The test is important to make sure, is the translation convey the same meaning to the SL.
- g. *Completing the translation*. This is an important step because by completing the translation, the translator will really sure that the result of the translation is good.
- h. *Preparation for publication*. It the translation needs to be going on public, so it is becoming the last step in translation.

Many people believe that translation is an easy thing and all you have to do is to change words from the source text into the equivalent words of a target text. However, this is not true since some phrases, if translated literally, would

make no sense. Translation is a very complicated process which has to consider many factors - the genre and the style of the original text, the translator's competence, and the timeline allocated to the project and many more. There are a great number of useful translation tips available online and offline, yet every translator have their own reliable methods and techniques, built on expertise and time. Here, we summarized the most essential translation tips that can come in handy both for the oral translation and the written translation. (<http://www.all-translations.com/index.html>)

#### **a. Oral Translation Tips**

Interpreting - simultaneous, consecutive and whispering - is considered to be the most difficult type of translation. To achieve great results in this domain, an interpreter is expected to (a) have a high level of competence in different areas, (b) understand and critically analyze the translated information, (c) know how to highlight the key elements in the text, (d) constantly enrich their professional vocabulary, etc. The personal features of an interpreter - such as a quick reaction, clear articulation, and bright mind - are also of great importance. (<http://www.all-translations.com/index.html>)

The most essential interpretation tips are as follows:

1. In advance familiarize yourself with the topic of the speech
2. Note down main points of the speech - it'll help you when interpreting
3. Translate and clarify the meaning of special terms and key words prior to interpreting

4. Establish friendly relations between you and the speaker at a consecutive translation
5. Remember to pronounce words distinctly and clearly
6. Produce a brief summary at the end of the speech - it helps to clarify conclusions
7. React quickly and be ready to work under pressure
8. Enjoy what you are doing, there won't be a second chance
9. Transmit a clear message to the target audience

#### **b. Written Translation Tips**

Written translation is completely different from any other type of translation. As a rule, there is no need to react instantly - you can take your time, think, choose a better variant, use a dictionary, consult a specialist, etc. Like any other translation it should convey the meaning and the music of the source language. Also, you need to be very accurate with the language and give proper weigh to stylistic features. (<http://www.all-translations.com/index.html>)

The most important translation tips are as follows:

1. Translate meaning not words!
2. Rely on your wits and savvy - it can prove to be helpful when translating a difficult text
3. Ask a specialist or a native speaker to proofread your translation so that it sounds natural
4. Never accept a project which you know is not within your abilities
5. Skills and translation expertise come with time - remember it!

6. Language nuances do matter when making a professional translation
7. A good translation is worth taking time for!
8. The way documents are organized in one country may not be understood in another
9. Emulate the original style of the author, be it humorous, wordy, with colloquial or scientific language, etc.

### **3. The Concept of Equivalence in Translation**

One of the most central concepts in translation theory is the concept of *equivalence*. A considerable amount of literature has been devoted to it, and, consequently, some confusion and vagueness exists in the very definition of the concept. A number of contradictory statements have been made about translation equivalence and its applicability, and translation theorists have attempted to define equivalence from various points of views. Different kinds of categories of equivalence have also been suggested within the field of translation theory. The complexity and elusiveness of the concept has resulted in the fact that a universally valid, comprehensive definition of equivalence does not exist. Nevertheless, I will now introduce some views on translation equivalence and its different classifications.

Equivalence is a term used by many writers to describe the nature and the extent of the relationship which exist between the SL and TL text. Equivalence nature and conditions is considered as the main objective of translation studies.



#### **4. Translation Strategies**

The term ‘strategy’ in ‘translation strategies’ is often used synonymously with such terms as procedure, technique, method, tactic, approach, etc. Their meanings overlap, and translation researchers define them in various ways. Researchers have attempted to distinguish translation strategy from its synonyms, and to develop their own classifications from different perspectives. For example, Lörscher’s (2002) classification is based on a cognitive approach, while Chesterman’s (2002) differentiation is on a textual approach. Yet, the conceptual confusion has not been dispelled. This entry tries to distinguish translation strategies, techniques and procedures, and to consolidate existing classifications.

It seems that clear-cut definitions of these terms might not work as well as prototype definitions. Most researchers would agree that the two prototype translation strategies are literal translation and free translation. The former focuses on the level of words, while the latter goes beyond the word level and emphasizes the creation of a target text that sounds natural in the target language. These two strategies are described in a variety of oppositions: word-for-word translation vs. sense-for-sense translation, source-oriented translation vs. target-oriented translation, direct translation vs. translating English compound words into bahasa Indonesia (by Vinay & Darbelnet), adequacy vs. acceptability, formal equivalence vs. dynamic equivalence (by Eugene Nida), semantic translation vs. communicative translation (by Peter Newmark), overt translation vs. covert translation (by Juliane House), documentary vs. instrumental translation (by Christiane Nord), foreignization vs. domestication (by Lawrence Venuti), etc.

While these binary oppositions have much in common, they reflect different perspectives and emphasize different translation aims and effects. For instance, word-for-word translation and sense-for-sense translation are text-level or segment-level strategies. Nida's (2003) formal equivalence vs. dynamic equivalence is mainly from a linguistic perspective and involves reader response. The domesticating translation vs. foreignizing translation pair, proposed by Venuti (2004), reflects a cultural interventionist perspective. The two strategies affect the choice of text for translation as well as the translation process. Venuti advocates the foreignizing strategy in order to 'register the linguistic and cultural differences of the foreign text' (2004, p. 81) and combat the cultural dominance of readers in dominant cultures such as the United States.

The 'literal vs. free' debate has been one of the central issues in translation theory and criticism throughout the ages. However, it is now generally believed that this dichotomous debate is relatively sterile, as the two strategies are part of a continuum (Hatim & Munday, 2004, p. 230), and the selection of a strategy is a function of the theoretical assumption of "what is a translation", text type (e.g., serious literature, children's literature, technical texts, print advertisements), domain (e.g., IT, legal), function (e.g., for publication, information, or light entertainment), prestige of the source text (e.g., the Bible, pulp fiction), motivation (e.g., payment), and other factors (or constraints).

Having discussed the two prototype strategies, let's turn to the definitional question: what is a translation strategy? Lörcher (2002), Chesterman (2002) and other researchers agree on a few defining characteristics of a translation strategy:

1) it is goal-oriented; 2) it is problem-centered; 3) it requires making coordinated decisions; 4) it is potentially conscious; and 5) it involves text manipulation. The aforementioned two prototype translation strategies have these characteristics. Since a translation strategy involves problem solving, a categorization of translation problems would correspond to a categorization of translation strategies. The difficulty with this, however, is that there are a number of ways in which problems can be categorized. For instance, the categorization criterion can be the prior knowledge required to solve them, the nature of the goal involved, and the complexity of the problems involved (Robertson, 2001, p. 6).

Vinay & Darbelnet's (1958/2000) taxonomy of translation techniques (which they call 'procedures') has a wide impact. They did a comparative stylistic analysis of French and English, and divided the seven procedures they discovered into two general strategies: direct/literal translation and translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia. The former includes: 1) borrowing (i.e., borrowing a word or expression from the source language, such as the Chinese word Kung Fu in modern English); 2) calque (which is a kind of borrowing whereby the structure of the original word or phrase is maintained but its morphemes are replaced by those of the target language; for example, the Chinese word 'motian dalou', literally 'sky-scraping big building', is a calque of skyscraper); 3) literal translation. Translating English compound words into bahasa Indonesia includes: 4) transposition (i.e., changing the word class or grammatical structure without changing the meaning of the message, as in rendering a noun in the source text into a verb in the target text); 5) modulation

(i.e., changing the point of view or cognitive category in relation to the source text, as in rendering a negative construction into a positive one: ‘not complicated’ becomes ‘easy’); 6) equivalence (e.g., translating ‘to kill two birds with one stone’ into Chinese as ‘to kill two eagles with one arrow’); 7) adaptation (i.e., a shift in cultural reference when the type of situation being referred to by the source text is unknown in the target culture, such as using the word ‘seal’ for sheep when translating the Bible into Inuktitut).

Among local translation strategies, Chesterman (2002) distinguishes between comprehension strategies (for understanding and analyzing the source text) and production strategies (for the production of the target text). From a linguistic perspective, he divides production strategies into mainly syntactic/grammatical, mainly semantic and mainly pragmatic strategies, with each category containing ten techniques. Syntactic strategies involve purely syntactic changes, manipulate form, and include such techniques as calque, transposition, and sentence structure change. Semantic strategies mainly pertain to changes concerning lexical semantics. They manipulate meaning and contain techniques such as synonymy, emphasis change, and paraphrase. Pragmatic strategies have to do with the selection of information in the target text, and often involve syntactic and/or semantic changes as well. Pragmatic strategies include cultural filtering, explicitness change, information change, transediting, etc. Some of these techniques are obligatory during translation in a given language pair, while most are optional.

Many researchers (e.g., Lörcher, 2002) believe that a translation strategy is a procedure or a sequence of actions. However, this is not consonant with the dictionary definitions of strategy. According to Oxford English Dictionary, strategy refers to ‘a plan for successful action based on the rationality and interdependence of the moves of the opposing participants’, while procedure is defined as ‘[t]he fact or manner of proceeding with any action, or in any circumstance or situation; a system of proceeding; proceeding, in reference to its mode or method; conduct, behaviour.’ Strategies involve adopting procedures to solve problems, and the chosen procedure will influence the result.

Now let’s turn our attention to translation procedures (sometimes referred to as translation strategies by some researchers) and procedural steps. Gerloff (2001) identified the following text processing strategies: 1) problem identification, 2) linguistic analysis, 3) storage and retrieval, 4) general search and selection, 5) inferencing and reasoning strategies, 6) text contextualization, 7) editing, and 8) task monitoring. In his empirical studies, Lörcher(2002) recognized twenty two elements constituting translation strategies (or procedural steps) including nine original ones and thirteen potential ones, e.g., realizing a translational problem, preliminary solution to a translational problem, and the mental organization of source language text segments. During the translation process, these elements are combined by translators into *basic structures*, *expanded structures* or *complex structures* of translation strategies. He found that professional and non-professional translators differ in the distribution and frequency of the strategies employed, but do not differ qualitatively, i.e., their

mental processes do not reveal significant differences. He concluded that it is impossible to ascertain '[w]hen faced with problem X, [translators] employ strategy Y', but we can find out '[w]hen several [translators] are faced with a problem X, many or most of them employ similar or the same types of strategy' (p. 280). Darwish (2008) identifies four distinct translation procedures employed in translating: recursive strategy (i.e., a circular and revisional process), waterfall strategy (i.e., a sequential unit-by-unit process), stop-and-go strategy (i.e., a block-by-block process), and mixed strategies (i.e., a combination of the previous three strategies).

In some translation textbooks, 'translation method' is often used as a cover term for 'translation strategy', 'translation technique' and even 'translation procedure'. For instance, there are literal and free translation methods. Compared with translation strategies, which are highly individualistic, translation methods are supra-individual and well tested (Lörscher, 2002, p. 70). However, 'translation method' in English is often associated with such modes as machine translation and computer-aided translation. The term 'translation approach' is often used in a vague sense, while 'translation tactic' is rarely used.

Discussions of translation strategies before the 1980s are primarily prescriptive, and researchers tended to argue for one translation strategy against another. Since the 1980s, empirical research into translation strategies, techniques and procedures has become increasingly common. There are two major empirical approaches in this regard: product-oriented and process-oriented. The former approach mainly refers to corpus-based contrastive analysis, namely, a parallel

corpus consisting of source texts and translations is built for analyzing the frequency of shifts (i.e., textual differences between source text and target text) and the various translation strategies and techniques employed. The factors to be considered can include text type, domain, synchronic and diachronic variation in language features and translation norms, idiosyncrasy, certain language features (e.g., metaphors, allusions), among others. In a process-oriented approach, translators are usually asked to translate a passage while thinking aloud, and the process will be recorded and then analyzed. The factors that might influence the frequency and distribution of translation strategies and procedures may include translation competence (e.g., novice translators vs. professional translators), language direction (i.e., from or into the mother tongue), text type, domain, translation brief, translation difficulty level of the test passage, time pressure, etc. These factors need to be manipulated or kept constant in an experiment in order to make meaningful comparisons.

## **5. Translation Procedure**

Since translation is commonly related to two aspects, i.e. the linguistic aspect and the cultural aspect, the first thing done will be to compare the linguistic characteristics of English and Indonesia to see whether the two languages are different in all aspects or are only different in some important aspects. By knowing the differences of the SL and the TL translation problems could be anticipated. Second, the two cultures are also compared to see whether a translation of a sentence or an expression is acceptable linguistically but is

unacceptable culturally. After the two aspects had been compared, then the ST will be analyzed to see the genre of the text because a different text needs a different translation approach to translate it.

The translation process can be described as decoding the meaning of the text and Re-encoding this meaning in the target language. To decode the meaning of a text, the translator must first identify its component translation units, that is to say, the segments of the text to be treated as a cognitive unit. A translation unit may be a word, a phrase, or even one or more sentences. Behind this, seemingly simple procedure lays a complex cognitive operation. To decode the complete meaning of the source text, the translator must consciously and methodically interpret and analyze all its features. This process requires thorough knowledge of the grammar, semantics, syntax, idioms, and the like, of the source language, as well as the culture of its speakers. The translator needs the same in-depth knowledge to re-encode the meaning in the target language. In fact, in general, translators' knowledge of the target language is more important, and needs to be deeper, than their knowledge of the source language. For this reason, most translators translate into a language of which they are native speakers. In addition, knowledge of the subject matter under discussion is essential (Larson, 2005: 125)

Then the translation process passed through seven steps : 1) transfer of meaning of the ST to TT, 2) writing the first draft, 3) revising the first draft and then writing the second draft, 4) evaluating the second draft, 5) writing the third draft, 6) reevaluating the second draft and 7) writing the final draft. The translation procedures can be seen in the diagram below (Lubis, 2002: 4).



## **6. The Limitation of Translation**

Translation can be described as an expression of a sense from one language to another as well as a transmission of a written or spoken language into another. Translation is since the beginning of human culture an important item of understanding between different countries. So the “Stone of Rosette” made it possible to decipher the ancient Egypt language. But here we already see the limits of translation. We never will be able to understand all their feelings. Later on, the translations of the old Greek and Latin authors have influenced all western Europe countries and have let to the grandiose works of Shakespeare for example. Here we see the great advantage translations have brought to all Europe.

As the statement in the title says, translation offers us the experience and attitudes of another culture or mentality. When for example reading books from typically English authors like Agatha Christie or George Orwell in German or any other language, we learn something about the culture or mentality, because the good description as well as the feeling of being in Britain at the present time, makes this possible.

From this we come to a point which is even more important, the transport of culture and understanding between peoples. A good example for this is the book “Uncle Toms Hut” which had enforced the fight against slavery world wide but will be hardly able to cause political influence. This shows again the limits of translation. On the other side we can not imagine a world without the translation of literary master pieces from all countries, mentioned only the great Russian, German, English and French authors red all over the world. Here we see the

problems and limits of translation very closely. A good translation not only transports the sense but also the choice of words and the way of expressing. Especially for translations of high standing literature the translator should be home in both languages. The translator often finds his limit with poems.

An other example to show the limits of translation are technical items, which are produced in China or Korea. As we do not speak any Chinese or Korean we are not able to understand what we should do before the first use. Here criticism can be made when the translation is not understandable. This happens often for some technical items produced in low cost countries if the translator never has seen the product and has no idea of the product he has to describe, especially if the translation is made in English, where mistakes already have sneaked in and then is translated in several languages from the English, so that people can not understand what actually is meant.

## **7. General Description of Compounds**

Compounding is one of the most productive processes of word formation in many of the world's languages. Compound words are also extremely widespread and represent perhaps the easiest way to form a new cognitive representation from two or more existing ones. Assuming that the purpose of novel word formation is to communicate, compounding offers the easiest and most effective way to create and transfer new meanings. By building new lexical items upon the meanings of existing items, novel compounds can, in principle, be understood upon first presentation (Libben 2006).

If we speculate about the prehistory of the first multi-morphemic words

that a language would possess, we might also imagine that, for humans as well, the first word formation process in language might have been compounding. Although it is unclear whether compounding would have preceded morphological processes such as reduplication, it seems very likely to have preceded derivational affixation. The fundamental capacity of compounding seems to have two sides. On one hand, compound words need to be easily segmented into their constituent morphemes in much the same way as sentences need to be segmented into the constituent words. If this are not the case, new compound forms that children and adults encounter would not be interpretable. On the other hand, the compound sequence as a whole must be stored in memory so that it becomes a new lexical item that can be retrieved as a single entity for production and whose idiosyncratic meaning can be stored in the mind (Libben 2006).

Seen in this light, compound words are structures at the cross roads between words and sentences reflecting both the properties of linguistic representation in the mind and grammatical processing. So how are compounds parsed into their constituents, and what can this tell us about the mind? As is discussed in Jarema (2006), this issue will be addressed for English by Libben (1994) and Libben et al. (1999) who presented evidence that the lexical processing system searches for morphemes in a beginning-to-end fashion. What is relevant here is that this beginning-to-end parse does not simply construct a single compound representation for a series of morphemes, but rather appears to find all available morphemes.

One important line of theorizing pursued by cognitively minded

investigators gave a major role in language acquisition to children's growing conceptual knowledge. This approach held that a critical foundation for language learning is laid during the pre linguistic period, as the infant builds up an understanding of such basic notions as objects, actions, causality, and spatial relations. As children begin to want to communicate, they search for the linguistic forms (content words, grammatical morphemes, word order or intonation patterns, etc.) that will allow them to encode their ideas, initial lexical, morphological, and syntactic development, according to this view, is a process of learning to map linguistic forms to pre-established concepts, and these concepts, in turn, at first serve to guide the children's generalization of the forms to new contexts.

Since compounding is a universally fundamental word formation process, the basic issues related to compounding also need to be discussed. If compounds are seen as the result of a simple merging of two elements, then the study of different relations that operate between the constituents of compounds is one pointer for some investigation and research. Regardless of whether a modifier-noun combination is novel or common, people have relatively little difficulty comprehending it. One way in which people may interpret combined concepts is by drawing on the past experiences with similar combinations (Gagne 2001). Hence a recent exposure to a certain combination of a modifier-noun influences the subsequent combinations of both the same modifier with different heads and the same head with different modifiers. Yet another line of research in the acquisition of compounds is how and when the children acquire the modifier-head relations and also how they subdivide and organize categories in compounds

(Clark et al. 1985). When children know that compound nouns refer to two objects, one ideally interacting with the other is another issue which has been explored by Nicoladis (2003).

This section gave an outline of the general issues regarding compounding, the problems in the acquisition of it and also the research done till date in this area. The following section gives an account of the theoretical foundations on compounds starting with the etymology of the term compounding.

## **8. Theoretical Foundations on Compounds**

The term ‘compounding’ or ‘composition’ goes back to the Latin *vocabulorum genusquod appellant compositivum* ‘the word class which is called composite’ (Varro) and *Figura nominum composita* ‘composed structure of nouns’ of the ancient Roman grammarians Priscianus, Donatus etc. where Latin *com-positum* is a literal translation of Greek *syn-theton*. This focus on noun-noun compounds corresponds to a general preference for this type of compound in most languages. Compounding is part of grammar, governed by non-conscious rules. Thus, we do not consider extra grammatical combinations of so-called expressive morphology, such as echo-word formation, as in English hip-hop or contaminations (blends) as in smog (from smoke and fog) or German *jein* (from *ja* ‘yes’ and *nein* ‘no’) (Dressler 2000).

Compounding represents the fundamental word-formation process across the world’s languages and, as such, it affords a unique opportunity to understand fundamental aspects of mental architecture. It has also been claimed that compound processing allows us to better understand some of the dominant issues

in the psycholinguistic study of the mental lexicon- issues such as semantic transparency, morphological structure, morphological parsing and the interplay between storage and computation (Libben 2006). The contribution of these perspectives is two-fold: on the one hand, they aid us in piecing together how the mind handles the on-line demands of everyday language processing. On the other hand, they reveal to us just how complex that processing may be. Recent advances in the investigation of compound processing, in particular, and of lexical processing, in general, have done much more than help us to evaluate the merits of one hypothesis over another. They have made it possible to reveal mental phenomena that until recently have been completely shielded from scientific scrutiny.

Compounds are important objects of morphological investigations, because compounds are present in all languages of the world as far as described in grammars. Thus compounding is the wide-spread morphological technique. This may be formulated in two transitive implications: if a language has inflection, it also has derivation and compounding, and if a language has derivation, it also has compounding, but not vice versa.

Compounding is lexeme formation, but it is not morphological, at least in the sense of the term; it does not necessarily involve bound morphological realization. Instead, compounding is a type of lexeme formation that operates primarily at the level of syntactic categories, without reference to the morphological content of the construction (Aronoff 1994).

There is no mention of the form of either noun. The same is true for other

compound constructions. Compounding is thus lexeme-internal syntax, as pointed out by Anderson (1992). Lexeme formation including compounding deals with the internal syntax of lexemes. Derivation and inflection are both restricted to morphology in the narrow sense of morphological realization, but they differ from one another on the basis of what they realize: lexeme-internal versus lexeme-external syntactic elements. Lexical concepts are semantically concrete, while grammatical concepts are archetypically abstract and relational (Sapir 1921).

Stekauer and Lieber (2005) distinguish between two types of compounds: synthetic compounds (also called verbal, deverbal or verbal nexus compounds) are ones in which the second stem is derived from a verb, and root compounds (also called primary compounds) are ones in which the second stem is not de-verbal. Synthetic compounds are illustrated in (1); root compounds in (2):

(1) Truck- driver, gift-giving, wind-blown, revenue enhancement, waste disposal;

(2) Dog bowl, file cabinet, red hot, sky blue, black board, babysit.

(3) Synthetic compounding is highly productive in English, as is the root compounding of nouns. Noun- adjective (sky blue), adjective-noun (black board), and adjective-adjective (red hot) root compounds are also relatively productive.

Root compounds of other categories are harder to form and relatively unproductive (for example, verb-verb compounds such as stir- fry or noun-verb compounds such as babysit.)

(4) A 'compound word' is usually understood to be the result of the (fixed) combination of two free forms, or words that have an otherwise independent

existence, as in frostbite, tape-measure, grass-green. These items, though clearly composed of two elements, have the identifying characteristics of single words: their constituents may not be separated by other forms, and their order is fixed. In a 'derived word', at least one element, the affix, is a bound form with no independent existence and, characteristically the more general meaning that one would expect a 'grammatical' element to have. Thus, compounding may be distinguished from derivation both formally, in terms of the presence or absence of a bound form, and semantically, according to whether both elements are 'lexical' or not.

This section talked about the theoretical foundations on compounds beginning with the etymology of the term 'compounding' and how compounds are created in languages. The following section deals with the major psycholinguistic studies done on compounding with special reference to cognition, acquisition, representation and processing of compounds.

## **B. Conceptual Framework**

Translation problems amongst bahasa Indonesia translators may above all and more than anything else widen, enlarge, expand and enhance not only mankind knowledge but also awareness that can potentially trigger a wide range of factual points on this topic. There are a variety of points that are going to be spelled out as this study drags on such as clarification of the notion of translation, semantic obstacles, structure, word for word translation, the use of scientific expression, dealing with literary language, the difficulty of subtitling, and the problem of syntax and so on. In research, will focus on the Students' Problems



and strategies and Strategies in Translating English Compound Words into Bahasa Indonesia.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHOD OF RESEARCH**

#### **A. Location**

This research was conducted at Class VII MTS Al-Jami'iyatul Wasliyah Tembung that was located in Jl. Besar Tembung No. 78 Lingkungan IV Tembung Kecamatan Percut Sei Tuan North Sumatra. The reason for choosing this class is that the researcher once performed on interview and observation in this class and it is found that the students have problems in translating translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.

#### **B. Population and Sample**

##### **1. Population**

Based on the Sugiyono's (2013:117) statement population is generalization area that consists of object/subject which has certain quality and characteristic from the researcher to learned and then make conclusion. So based on this theory, the population of this research will be taken from the students' academic year 2017/2018 of Class VII, MTs Al-Jami'iyatul Wasliyah Tembung, which consists of 111 students.

**Table 3.1**  
**Population of Research**

<b>Class</b>	<b>Population</b>
VII-1	37
VII-2	38
VII-3	36
Total	111

## 2. Sample

Based on Sugiyono's (2013:118) statement sample is part of total characteristic that the population have. So, purposive sampling technique is applied in this research. The sample in this research will be 36 students.

**Table 3.2**  
**Sample of Research**

<b>Class</b>	<b>Sample</b>
VII-3	36
Total	36

### C. Research Design

This study is a descriptive quantitative research. Descriptive research involves collecting data in order to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study Gay, (2003: 220). This study intends to analyze the Students' Problems and strategies and strategies in translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.

### D. Research Instrument

This research used a test to analyze the Students' Problems and strategies and strategies in translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.

### E. Technique of Collecting Data

The data had been collected by giving test to students. The tests consists some questions which relates to the translation compound words. It consists of 10 items and will be used to collect the data. The students will be asked to answer the question.

## **F. Technique of Analyzing the Data**

The data were analyzed by using descriptive technique. The data were analyzed by using some steps as follows

1. collecting the data
2. sorting the data
3. analyzing the data

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **A. Data Collection**

All of the respondents in this research were 36 students of MTs Al-Jami'iyatul Wasliyah Tembung, Class VII. The tests were given to know the students' ability in answering Translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia. The data were derived from students' test. The descriptive qualitative method was used to gather and analyze the data. Translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia in students test was analyzed by researcher and the problem that discuss in this discourse about the type and the dominant using the students in Translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia. So researcher used a test to know the causes of Translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.

#### **B. Data Analysis**

After collecting data from the students answer sheet, then they were analyzed to describe the problem and to know the dominant technique from the students' answer and the table is used to know the dominant from students were used to know where dominant wrong the students in answering WH Questoin. After the data were analyzed, it was found that there what type problem made by students and know the dominant incorrect from the student answer.

**Table 4.1**  
**The Students Correct and Incorrect Answer**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Students Initial</b>	<b>Score</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>
1	TA	9	1
2	MA	10	0
3	KHH	10	0
4	ML	10	0
5	ANA	10	0
6	SR	10	0
7	ISH	10	0
8	SAL	10	0
9	ZAM	10	0
10	DS	10	0
11	SNJ	10	0
12	ANA	10	0
13	S	10	0
14	PAS	10	0
15	WN	10	0
16	DSS	10	0
17	ISL	10	0
18	SM	10	0
19	AZ	10	0
20	NAN	10	0
21	YH	10	0
22	LHR	10	0
23	BN	10	0
24	ASN	10	0
25	UF	9	1
26	NIA	10	0
27	KRA	10	0
28	RAS	10	0
29	SS	10	0
30	FAZ	10	0
31	AJS	8	2
32	RPH	9	1
33	OP	8	2
34	DDY	5	5
<b>Total Scores</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>Average</b>		<b>9,65</b>	<b>0,35</b>

Based on the table above, the total score from the correct answer is 328 and incorrect answer is 12. Then, the average score from the corrected answer is 9,65 and incorrect answer is 0,35.

## B. Data Analysis

**Table 4.2**  
**The Score and the Students Percentage of Correct and Incorrect Answer**

No.	Students Initial	Correct	%	Incorrect	%
1	TA	9	90%	1	10%
2	MA	10	100%	0	0%
3	KHH	10	100%	0	0%
4	ML	10	100%	0	0%
5	ANA	10	100%	0	0%
6	SR	10	100%	0	0%
7	ISH	10	100%	0	0%
8	SAL	10	100%	0	0%
9	ZAM	10	100%	0	0%
10	DS	10	100%	0	0%
11	SNJ	10	100%	0	0%
12	ANA	10	100%	0	0%
13	S	10	100%	0	0%
14	PAS	10	100%	0	0%
15	WN	10	100%	0	0%
16	DSS	10	100%	0	0%
17	ISL	10	100%	0	0%
18	SM	10	100%	0	0%
19	AZ	10	100%	0	0%
20	NAN	10	100%	0	0%
21	YH	10	100%	0	0%
22	LHR	10	100%	0	0%
23	BN	10	100%	0	0%
24	ASN	10	100%	0	0%
25	UF	9	90%	1	10%
26	NIA	10	100%	0	0%
27	KRA	10	100%	0	0%

28	RAS	10	100%	0	0%
29	SS	10	100%	0	0%
30	FAZ	10	100%	0	0%
31	AJS	8	80%	2	20%
32	RPH	9	90%	1	10%
33	OP	8	80%	2	20%
34	DDY	5	50%	5	50%
Total		328	3280%	12	120%
Average		9,65	96%	0,35	4%

Table above shows that the average total scores of the correct answer is 9,65 or 96% and the average total scores of the incorrect answer is 0,35 or 4%.

## 2. Describing the Problems

To find out the students' problems, the item analysis procedures are used. In this analysis, the problems were based on the students response in answering the test. If the students made incorrect response then it is called that he or she made problems.

The following table shows the items analysis of the students response:



**Table 4.3**  
**The Item Analysis**

<b>Item Number</b>	<b>Correct</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Incorrect</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1	9	90%	1	10%
2	10	100%	0	0%
3	10	100%	0	0%
4	10	100%	0	0%
5	10	100%	0	0%
6	10	100%	0	0%
7	10	100%	0	0%
8	10	100%	0	0%
9	10	100%	0	0%
10	10	100%	0	0%
11	10	100%	0	0%
12	10	100%	0	0%
13	10	100%	0	0%
14	10	100%	0	0%
15	10	100%	0	0%
16	10	100%	0	0%
17	10	100%	0	0%
18	10	100%	0	0%
19	10	100%	0	0%
20	10	100%	0	0%
21	10	100%	0	0%
22	10	100%	0	0%
23	10	100%	0	0%
24	10	100%	0	0%
25	9	90%	1	10%
26	10	100%	0	0%
27	10	100%	0	0%
28	10	100%	0	0%
29	10	100%	0	0%
30	10	100%	0	0%
31	8	80%	2	20%
32	9	90%	1	10%
33	8	80%	2	20%
34	5	50%	5	50%
Total	328	3280%	12	120%
Average	9,65	96%	0,35	4%

The table above shows that the average total score of the correct answer from all of the questions is 9,65 or 96,47% and the average total scores of the incorrect answer from all of the questions is 0,35 or 3,53%.

From the table we can see that there were 9 students or 90% have the right answer and 1 students or 10% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer. There were 10 students or 100% have the right answer and 0 students or 0% have the wrong answer.

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There were 8 students or 80% have the right answer and 2 students or 20% have the wrong answer. There were 9 students 90% have the right answer and 1 student or 10% have the wrong answer. There were 8 students or 80% have the right answer and 2 students or 20% have the wrong answer. There were 5 students or 50% have the right answer and 5 students or 50% have the wrong answer.

### **C. Research Findings**

After analyzing all of the data obtained in the students' answer sheet the findings are as follows:

1. The total score from the correct answer is 328 and incorrect answer is 12. Then, the average score from the corrected answer is 9,85 and incorrect answer is 0,35.
2. The average total scores of the correct answer is 9,65 or 96% and the average total scores of the incorrect answer is 0,35 or 4%.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS**

#### **A. Conclusions**

1. The total score from the correct answers is 328 and incorrect answer is 12. Then, the average score from the corrected answer is 9,65 and incorrect answer is 0,35.
2. The average total scores of the correct answer is 9,65 or 96% and the average total scores of the incorrect answer is 0,35 or 4%.

#### **B. Suggestions**

1. To writer and other readers must enrich the knowledge about the mistakes that possibly occur when the students of MTs Al-Jami'iyatul Wasliyah Tembung in answering Translating English compound words into Bahasa Indonesia.
2. English teacher should find effective method in teaching the students and motivating them to learn the material effectively.

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## QUESTION

Please translate the English Compound Words into Indonesian:

1. Armpit
2. Eyeglasses
3. headache
4. stomachache
5. toenail
6. bookworm
7. grandparent
8. stepmother
9. breakfast
10. tablespoon

## Appendix

### Compound Words

#### Adjectives

airtight cutthroat downright earsplitting everlasting eyecatching firsthand farsighted foolproof frostbitten halfhearted handmade hardheaded hardhearted highlighted homesick hotheaded humdrum kindhearted leftover	levelheaded lightheaded lighthearted lukewarm moonstruck newsworthy noteworthy offline offside online outgoing outlying outspoken outstanding outstretched overactive overdue overheated overloaded	overrated overstretched overtaxed overused overvalued overweight praiseworthy purebred scatterbrained secondhand shipshape shortsighted sideways snubnosed somewhat soundproofed straightforward streamlined telltale	thoroughbred thunderstruck trustworthy understated undervalued underweight upbeat upcoming updated upright upstanding waterproof watertight weatherproof wholehearted widespread worldwide worthwhile zigzag
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#### Anatomy and Medical

armpit backbone bellyache bloodletting breastbone earache eardrum earlobe eyeball eyebrow	eyeglasses eyelash eyelid eyesight farsighted fingernail fingerprint fingertip frostbite gallbladder	gallstone headache hangnail hairline heartbeat heartburn heatstroke kneecap nearsighted nosebleed	overdose pacemaker smallpox stomachache sunburn sunstroke thighbone toenail underarm waistline windpipe
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## Animals and Related Words

angelfish	firefly	ladybird	seashell
beehive	fishbowl	ladybug	sheepdog
beekeeper	flatfish	livestock	shellfish
beekeeping	glowworm	lungfish	silkworm
beeswax	goldfinch	mockingbird	songbird
blackbird	goldfish	muskrat	starfish
bluebird	grasshopper	pigsty	stingray
bobcat	greyhound	pipefish	sunfish
bobtail	groundhog	pigpen	swallowtail
bookworm	hammerhead	pigsty	swordfish
bulldog	hedgehog	pitbull	tapeworm
bullfrog	honeybee	polecat	tomcat
butterfly	honeycomb	purebred	triggerfish
catfish	hookworm	racehorse	walkingstick
cobweb	horsefly	reindeer	waterfowl
cottonmouth	housefly	rattlesnake	watchdog
cottontail	hummingbird	ringworm	whitefish
crawfish	humpback	roadrunner	wildcat
dogfish	icefish	rockfish	wildlife
dragonfly	inchworm	sailfish	wolfhound
duckbill	jaybird	seabird	woodchuck
earthworm	jellyfish	seagull	woodpecker
earwig	jitterbug	seahorse	yellowtail
		sealion	

## Astronomy and Space

earthbound	moonlight	spacecraft	sunspot
flyby	payload	spaceship	supernova
liftoff	polestar	stargazer	wavelength
moonbeam	rocketship	starlight	

## Clothing and Accessories

armhole	headdress	overshoe	sunglasses
bathrobe	housecoat	pocketbook	sweatshirt
backpack	jumpsuit	pantsuit	swimsuit
bedclothes	knapsack	pantyhose	threadbare
briefcase	neckline	pullover	topcoat
buttonhole	necktie	raincoat	tophat
clotheshorse	needlework	shoehorn	turtleneck
dressmaker	nightgown	shoelace	underclothing
earmuffs	nightshirt	snowshoe	undershirt
earphone	outerwear	spacesuit	underwear
earring	outfit	sportswear	waistcoat

eyeglasses footwear handbag	overalls overcoat overdressed	suitcase sunbonnet sundress	wardrobe wetsuit windbreaker
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### Directions

clockwise clockwork downhill downstage downstairs downward	earthbound homeward into inside inward northeast	northwest outside outward overhead sideways southeast	southwest throughout uphill upstage upstairs upward
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### Fall (Autumn)

applesauce cornfield cornstalk drumstick	football goalpost hayride haystack	kickoff pinecone quarterback scarecrow	schoolhouse schoolteacher thanksgiving touchdown
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### Family

bridegroom bridesmaid grandchild granddaughter grandfather grandma grandmother	grandpa grandparent grandson groomsman herself himself	myself newborn offspring oneself ourself stepbrother	stepdaughter stepfather stepmother stepsister stepson yourself
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### Flowers

bellflower bluebells bluebonnets buttercup candytuft cornflower	cowslip dogwood flowerbed flowerpot foxglove goldenrod	hollyhock larkspur mayflower rosebud snapdragon	snowdrop sunflower wallflower wildflower wolfsbane
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