

# TRANSLATION II

## COMPLETE HANDOUTS

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TRANSLATION II  
COURSE OUTLINE

TIMETABLE

1. Introduction to the Course
2. Standard Bahasa Indonesia and English; *Membongkar Kamar Baji, The Prologue of the Wyves Tale of Bathe*
3. The Structures of Bahasa Indonesia and English; *Selamat Datang di Taman Margasatwa Ragunan*
4. Translating Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences; *Bunda*
5. Ambiguity in Translation; *Letak Tanah*
6. Tuning to Various Styles in Translation; *Mengenali Kelainan-kelainan Sejak Awal, Aromatherapy*
7. Interpreter: How to Become and How to be a Good One; *On Your Own!*
8. Mid-test
9. Group Presentation (1): School Subjects (*Biology, Physics, Chemistry*)
10. Group Presentation (2): School Subjects (*Math, Economy, Law*)
11. Group Presentation (3): School Subjects (*Fine Art, Music, Traditional Dance*)
12. Group Presentation (4): School Subjects (*Citizenship, History, Religion*)
13. Final-test

ASSESSMENT

Assessment is based on the following items:

Attendance	: 10%
Paper	: 10%
Class Participation	: 15%
Tasks & Assignments	: 20%
Mid-test	: 20%
Final-test	: 25%

## Language and culture

### The control of language for cultural ends Nationalistic influences on language

Deliberate interference with the natural course of linguistic changes and the distribution of languages is not confined to the facilitating of international intercourse and cooperation. Language as a cohesive force for nation-states and for linguistic groups within nation-states has for long been manipulated for political ends. Multilingual states can exist and prosper; Switzerland is a good example. But linguistic rivalry and strife can be disruptive. Language riots have occurred in Belgium between French and Flemish speakers and in parts of India between rival vernacular communities. A language can become or be made a focus of loyalty for a minority community that thinks itself suppressed, persecuted, or subjected to discrimination. The French language in Canada in the mid-20th century is an example. In the 19th and early 20th centuries Gaelic, or Irish, came to symbolize Irish patriotism and Irish independence from Great Britain.

Since independence, government policy continues to insist on the equal status of English and Irish in public notices and official documents, but, despite such encouragement and the official teaching of Irish in the state schools, a main motivation for its use and study has disappeared, and the language is giving ground to English under the international pressures referred to above. For the same reasons, a language may be a target for attack or suppression, if the authorities associate it with what they consider a disaffected or rebellious group or even just a culturally inferior one. There have been periods when American Indian children were forbidden to speak a language other than English at school and when pupils were not allowed to speak Welsh in British state schools in Wales. Both these prohibitions have been abandoned. Since the Spanish Civil War of the 1930s Basque speakers have been discouraged from using their language in public, as a consequence of the strong support given by the Basques to the republican forces. Interestingly, on the other side of the Franco-Spanish frontier, French Basques are positively encouraged to keep their language in use, if only as an object of touristic interest and consequent economic benefit to the area.

### Translation

So far, some of the relatively large-scale effects of culture contacts on languages and on dialects within languages have been surveyed. A continuous concomitant of contact between two mutually incomprehensible tongues and one that does not lead either to suppression or extension of either is translation. As soon as two speakers of different languages need to converse, translation is necessary, either through a third party or directly. Before the invention and diffusion of writing, translation was instantaneous and oral; persons professionally specializing in such work were called interpreters. In

predominantly or wholly literate communities, translation is thought of as the conversion of a written text in one language into a written text in another, though the modern emergence of the simultaneous translator or professional interpreter at international conferences keeps the oral side of translation very much alive.

The tasks of the translator are the same whether the material is oral or written, but, of course, translation between written texts allows more time for stylistic adjustment and technical expertise. The main problems have been recognized since antiquity and were expressed by St. Jerome, translator of the famed Latin Bible, the Vulgate, from the Hebrew and Greek originals. Semantically, these problems relate to the adjustment of the literal and the literary and the conflicts that so often occur between an exact translation of each word, as far as this is possible, and the production of a whole sentence or even a whole text that conveys as much of the meaning of the original as can be managed. These problems and conflicts arise because of factors already noticed in the use and functioning of language: languages do not operate in isolation but within and as part of cultures, and cultures differ from each other in various ways. Even between the languages of communities whose cultures are fairly closely allied, there is by no means a one-to-one relation of exact lexical equivalence between the items of their vocabularies. In their lexical meanings, words acquire various overtones and associations that are not shared by the nearest corresponding words in other languages; this may vitiate a literal translation. The English author and theologian Ronald Knox has pointed to the historical connections of the Greek skandalon “stumbling block, trap, or snare,” inadequately rendered by “offense,” its usual New Testament translation. In modern times translators of the Bible into the languages of peoples culturally remote from Europe are well aware of the difficulties of finding a lexical equivalent for “lamb,” when the intended readers, even if they have seen sheep and lambs, have no tradition of blood sacrifice for expiation nor long-hallowed associations of lambs with loveliness, innocence, and apparent helplessness. The English word uncle has, for various reasons, a cozy and slightly comic set of associations. The Latin poet Virgil uses the words *avunculus Hector* in a solemn heroic passage of the *Aeneid* (Book III, line 343); to translate this by “uncle Hector” gives an entirely unsuitable flavour to the text.

The translation of poetry, especially into poetry, presents very special difficulties, and the better the original poem, the harder the translator's task. This is because poetry is, in the first instance, carefully contrived to express exactly what the poet wants to say. Second, to achieve this end, the poet calls forth all the resources of the language in which he is writing, matching the choice of words, the order of words, and grammatical constructions, as well as phonological features peculiar to the language in metre, perhaps supplemented by rhyme, assonance, and alliteration. The available resources differ from language to language; English and German rely on stress-marked metres, but Latin and Greek used quantitative metres, contrasting long and short syllables, while French places approximately equal stress and length on each syllable. The translator must try to match the stylistic exploitation of the particular resources in the original language with comparable resources from his own. Because lexical, grammatical, and metrical considerations are all interrelated and interwoven in poetry, a satisfactory literary translation is usually very far from a literal word for word rendering.

The more the poet relies on language form, the more embedded his verses are in that particular language, and the harder they are to translate adequately. This is especially true with lyrical poetry in several languages, with its wordplay, complex rhymes, and frequent assonances. At the other end of the translator's spectrum, technical prose dealing with internationally agreed scientific subjects is probably the easiest type of material to translate, because cultural unification (in this respect), lexical correspondences, and stylistic similarity already exist in this type of usage in the languages most commonly involved, to a higher degree than in other fields of discourse. Significantly, it is this last aspect of translation to which mechanical and computerized techniques are being applied with some prospects of limited success.

Machine translation, whereby, ultimately, a text in one language could be fed into a machine to produce an accurate translation in another language without further human intervention, has been largely concentrated on the language of science and technology, with its restricted vocabulary and overall likeness of style, for both linguistic and economic reasons. Attempts at machine translation of literature have been made, but success in this field, more especially in the translation of poetry, seems very remote at present.

Translation on the whole is an art, not a science. Guidance can be given and general principles can be taught, but after that it must be left to the individual's own feeling for the two languages concerned. Almost inevitably, in a translation of a work of literature something of the author's original intent must be lost; in those cases in which the translation is said to be a better work than the original, an opinion sometimes expressed about the English writer Edward Fitzgerald's "translation" of *The Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám*, one is dealing with a new, though derived, work, not just a translation. The Italian epigram remains justified: *Traduttore traditore* "The translator is a traitor."

## The mediums of art

### Differences in the arts related to mediums

#### The translation problem

Because literature consists of conventional symbols, there exists in literature the problem of translation, which does not exist in the other arts. When one seeks to make a work of literature available to a wider audience than that composed of only the native speakers of the language in which the work was written, the process of translation must be resorted to, and, in this process, a great deal of the work's original character is lost. In a poem there are (1) the sounds, (2) the dictionary meanings of the words, and (3) the connotations of the words—the manifold associations that they evoke (sensory, intellectual, and emotional) in the minds of readers. The sounds are the least important of the three, and many a great poem as sheer sound is hardly even pleasing. The finding of like dictionary meanings is usually a simple matter, and when there is a word that has no rough equivalent in the other language, it may be simply retained in the original language (for example, the German word *Weltanschauung*, meaning something like "world outlook," is often retained in English translations of German works).

As for the associations that hover about a word, they may vary from language to language, so that if a work is translated rather literally, the associative values of the

words are lost. Thus, “My God!” is a much stronger expletive in English than “mon dieu” is in French, so that if the French expression is translated into the English one, it is, though literally correct, quite unfaithful to the weaker emotive force of the French expression. Words can often be found in the second language that have a roughly equivalent associative value to the original one, but these will usually not provide a literal translation; thus, the translator is faced with the dilemma of being able to provide a literal-meaning translation or a translation that renders the spirit or “feel” of the original but not both.

## Focal, relic, and transitional areas

Dialectologists often distinguish between focal areas—which provide sources of numerous important innovations and usually coincide with centres of lively economic or cultural activity—and relic areas—places toward which such innovations are spreading but have not usually arrived. (Relic areas also have their own innovations, which, however, usually extend over a smaller geographical area.) Relic areas or relic phenomena are particularly common in out-of-the-way regional pockets or along the periphery of a particular language's geographical territory. An example of a focal area in the U.S. would be the Boston region, while rural Maine and New Hampshire and Cape Cod and Nantucket Island would be typical relic areas (see Figure 2).

The borders of regional dialects often contain transitional areas that share some features with one neighbour and some with the other. Such mixtures result from unequal diffusion of innovations from both sides. Similar unequal diffusion in mixed dialects in any region also may be a consequence of population mixture created by migrations. In regions with many bilingual speakers (e.g., along the border between two languages) dialects of both languages will often undergo changes influenced by the other tongue. This is manifested not only in numerous loanwords but often also in the adoption of phonological or grammatical features. Such phenomena are particularly frequent in a population that once spoke one language and only later adopted the second language. In extreme cases, a so-called creolized language develops. (Creoles are pidgin languages that have become the only or major language of a speech community.)

## Standard languages

Standard languages arise when a certain dialect begins to be used in written form, normally throughout a broader area than that of the dialect itself. The ways in which this language is used—in administrative matters, literature, economic life—lead to the minimization of linguistic variation. The social prestige attached to the speech of the richest, most powerful, and most highly educated members of a society transforms their language into a model for others; it also contributes to the elimination of deviating linguistic forms. Dictionaries and grammars help to stabilize linguistic norms, as do the activity of scholarly institutions and, sometimes, governmental intervention. The base dialect for a country's standard language is very often the original dialect of its capital—in France, Paris; in England, London; in Russia, Moscow. Or the base may be a strong economic and cultural centre—in Italy, Florence. Or the language may be a combination of several regional dialects—e.g., German or Polish.

Even a standard language that was originally based on one local dialect changes, however, as elements of other dialects infiltrate into it over the years. The actual development in any one linguistic area depends on historical events. Sometimes even the distribution of standard languages may not correspond to the dialectal situation. Dutch and Flemish dialects are a part of the Low German dialectal area, which embraces all of northern Germany, as well as The Netherlands and part of Belgium. In one part of the dialectal area, however, the standard language is based on High German, and, in the other part, the standard language is Dutch or Flemish, depending on the nationality of the respective populations. In the U.S., where there is no clearly dominant political or cultural centre—such as London or Paris—and where the territory is enormous, the so-called standard language shows perceptible regional variations in pronunciation.

In most developed countries, the majority of the population has an active (speaking, writing) or at least passive (understanding) command of the standard language. Very often the rural population, and not uncommonly the lower social strata of the urban population as well, are in reality bidialectal. They speak their maternal dialect at home and with friends and acquaintances in casual contacts, and they use the standard language in more formal situations. Even the educated urban population in some regions uses the so-called colloquial language informally. In the German-, Czech-, and Slovene-speaking areas of middle Europe, for example, a basically regional dialect from which the most striking local features have been eliminated is spoken. The use of this type of language is supported by psychological factors, such as feelings of solidarity with a certain region and pride in its traditions or the relaxed mood connected with informal behaviour.

## English: from the Past to the Future

### Old English

also called Anglo-Saxon

Language spoken and written in England before 1100; it is the ancestor of Middle English and Modern English. Scholars place Old English in the Anglo-Frisian group of West Germanic languages. Four dialects of the Old English language are known: Northumbrian in northern England and southeastern Scotland; Mercian in central England; Kentish in southeastern England; and West Saxon in southern and southwestern England. Mercian and Northumbrian are often classed together as the Anglian dialects. Most extant Old English writings are in the West Saxon dialect; the first great period of literary activity occurred during the reign of King Alfred the Great in the 9th century. In contrast to Modern English, Old English had three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter) in the noun and adjective, and nouns, pronouns, and adjectives were inflected for case. Noun and adjective paradigms contained four cases—nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative—while pronouns also had forms for the instrumental case. Old English had a greater proportion of strong verbs (sometimes called irregular verbs in contemporary grammars) than does Modern English. Many verbs that were strong in Old English are weak (regular) verbs in Modern English (e.g., Old English *helpan*, present infinitive of the verb *help*; *healp*, past singular; *hulpon*, past plural; *holpen*, past participle versus Modern English *help*, *helped*, *helped*, *helped*, respectively).

### Middle English

The vernacular spoken and written in England from about 1100 to about 1500, the descendant of the Old English language and the ancestor of Modern English. The history of Middle English is often divided into three periods: (1) Early Middle English, from about 1100 to about 1250, during which the Old English system of writing was still in use; (2) the Central Middle English period from about 1250 to about 1400, which was marked by the gradual formation of literary dialects, the use of an orthography greatly influenced by the Anglo-Norman writing system, the loss of pronunciation of final unaccented *-e*, and the borrowing of large numbers of Anglo-Norman words; the period was especially marked by the rise of the London dialect, in the hands of such writers as John Gower and Geoffrey Chaucer; and (3) Late Middle English, from about 1400 to about 1500, which was marked by the spread of the London literary dialect and the gradual cleavage between the Scottish dialect and the other northern dialects. During this period the basic lines of inflection as they appear in Modern English were first established.

Among the chief characteristic differences between Old and Middle English were the substitution of natural gender in Middle English for grammatical gender and the loss of the old system of declensions in the noun and adjective and, largely, in the pronoun. The dialects of Middle English are usually divided into three large groups: (1) Southern (subdivided into Southeastern, or Kentish, and Southwestern), chiefly in the counties south of the River Thames; (2) Midland (corresponding roughly to the Mercian dialect area of Old English times) in the area from the Thames to southern South Yorkshire and northern Lancashire; and (3) Northern, in the Scottish Lowlands, Northumberland, Cumbria, Durham, northern Lancashire, and most of Yorkshire.

## Characteristics of Modern English

### Syntax

Sentences can be classified as (1) simple, containing one clause and predication: “John knows this country”; (2) multiple or compound, containing two or more coordinate clauses: “John has been here before, and he knows this country”; and (3) complex, containing one or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses: “John, who has been here before, knows this country” or “Because he has been here before, John knows this country.” Simple, declarative, affirmative sentences have two main patterns with five subsidiary patterns within each. Verb and complement together form the predicate. “Complement” is here used to cover both the complement and the object of traditional grammarians (see table). In (1) the complement is the direct object of a transitive verb; in (2) it is a predicative nominal group forming the second component of an equation linked to the first part by the meaningless copula *is*; in (3) it is a predicative noun linked with the subject by the meaningful copula *becomes*; in (4) it is a predicative adjective; and in (5) it is a predicative past participle. In the next table each sentence contains four components: subject, verb, and two complements, first and second, or inner and outer. In (6) inner and outer complements consist of indirect object (without preposition) followed by direct object; in (7) these complements are direct object and appositive noun; in (8) direct object and predicative adjective; in (9) direct object and predicative past participle; in (10) direct object and predicative infinitive.

One can seldom change the word order in these 10 sentences without doing something else—adding or subtracting a word, changing the meaning. There is no better way of appreciating the importance of word position than by scrutinizing the 10 frames illustrated. If, for instance, in (6) one reverses inner and outer complements, one adds “to” and says, “John gives a ring to Mary”; one does not say “John gives a ring Mary.” Some verbs, such as “explain” and “say,” never omit the preposition “to” before the indirect object: “John's father explained the details to his son.” “He said many things to him.” If, in (10), the inner and outer complements are reversed (e.g., “We want to know you”), the meaning is changed as well as the structure. Apart from these fundamental rules of word order, the principles governing the positions of adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions call for brief comment. For attributive adjectives the rule is simple: single words regularly precede the noun, and word groups follow—e.g., “an unforgettable experience” but “an experience never to be forgotten.”

There is a growing tendency, however, to abandon this principle, to switch groups to front position, and to say “a never to be forgotten experience.” In the ordering of

multiple epithets, on the other hand, some new principles are seen to be slowly emerging. Attributes denoting permanent qualities stand nearest their head nouns: “long, white beard,” “six-lane elevated freeway.” The order in multiple attribution tends to be as follows: determiner; quantifier; adjective of quality; adjective of size, shape, or texture; adjective of colour or material; noun adjunct (if any); head noun. Examples include: “that one solid, round, oak dining table,” “these many fine, large, black race horses,” “those countless memorable, long, bright summer evenings.” Adverbs are more mobile than adjectives. Nevertheless, some tentative principles seem to be at work. Adverbs of frequency tend to come immediately after the substantive verb (“You are often late”), before other verbs (“You never know”), and between auxiliaries and full verbs (“You can never tell”). In this last instance, however, American differs from British usage. Most Americans would place the adverb before the auxiliary and say “You never can tell.” (In the title of his play of that name, first performed in 1899, George Bernard Shaw avowedly followed American usage.) Adverbs of time usually occur at the beginning or end of a sentence, seldom in the middle.

Particular expressions normally precede more general ones: “Neil Armstrong set foot on the Moon at 4 o'clock in the morning on July 21, 1969.” An adverb of place or direction follows a verb with which it is semantically bound: “We arrived home after dark.” Other adverbs normally take end positions in the order of manner, place, and time: “Senator Smith summed it all up most adroitly [manner] in Congress [place] last night [time].” In spite of its etymology (Latin *prae-positio* “before placing”), a preposition may sometimes follow the noun it governs, as in “all the world over,” “the clock round,” and “the whole place through.” “This seems a good place to live in” seems more natural to most speakers than “This seems a good place in which to live.” “Have you anything to open this can with?” is now more common than “Have you anything with which to open this can?” The above are principles rather than rules, and in the end it must be agreed that English syntax lacks regimentation. Its structural laxity makes English an easy language to speak badly. It also makes English prone to ambiguity. “When walking snipe always approach up wind,” a shooting manual directs. The writer intends the reader to understand, “When you are walking to flush snipe always approach them up against the wind.” “John kept the car in the garage” can mean either (1) “John retained that car you see in the garage, and sold his other one” or (2) “John housed the car in the garage, and not elsewhere.” “Flying planes can be dangerous” is ambiguous because it may mean either (1) “Planes that fly can be dangerous” or (2) “It is dangerous to fly planes.” Two ways in which “John gives Mary a ring” can be stated in the passive are: (1) “A ring is given to Mary by John” and (2) “Mary is given a ring by John.” Concerning this same action, four types of question can be formulated: (1) “Who gives Mary a ring?” The information sought is the identity of the giver. (2) “Does John give Mary a ring?” The question may be answered by “yes” or “no.” (3) “John gives Mary a ring, doesn't he?” Confirmation is sought of the questioner's belief that John does in fact give Mary a ring. (4) “John gives Mary a ring?” This form, differing from the declarative statement only by the question mark in writing, or by rising intonation in speech, calls, like sentences (2) and (3), for a “yes” or “no” answer but suggests doubt on the part of the questioner that the action is taking place.

## Vocabulary

The vocabulary of Modern English is approximately half Germanic (Old English and Scandinavian) and half Italic or Romance (French and Latin), with copious and increasing importations from Greek in science and technology and with considerable borrowings from Dutch, Low German, Italian, Spanish, German, Arabic, and many other languages. Names of basic concepts and things come from Old English or Anglo-Saxon: heaven and earth, love and hate, life and death, beginning and end, day and night, month and year, heat and cold, way and path, meadow and stream. Cardinal numerals come from Old English, as do all the ordinal numerals except “second” (Old English *other*, which still retains its older meaning in “every other day”). “Second” comes from Latin *secundus* “following,” through French *second*, related to Latin *sequi* “to follow,” as in English “sequence.” From Old English come all the personal pronouns (except “they,” “their,” and “them,” which are from Scandinavian), the auxiliary verbs (except the marginal “used,” which is from French), most simple prepositions, and all conjunctions.

Numerous nouns would be identical whether they came from Old English or Scandinavian: father, mother, brother (but not sister); man, wife; ground, land, tree, grass; summer, winter; cliff, dale. Many verbs would also be identical, especially monosyllabic verbs—bring, come, get, hear, meet, see, set, sit, spin, stand, think. The same is true of the adjectives full and wise; the colour names gray, green, and white; the disjunctive possessives mine and thine (but not ours and yours); the terms north and west (but not south and east); and the prepositions over and under. Just a few English and Scandinavian doublets coexist in current speech: no and nay, yea and ay, from and fro, rear (i.e., to bring up) and raise, shirt and skirt (both related to the adjective short), less and loose. From Scandinavian, “law” was borrowed early, whence “bylaw,” meaning “village law,” and “outlaw,” meaning “man outside the law.” “Husband” (*husbondi*) meant “householder,” whether single or married, whereas “fellow” (*fe-lagi*) meant one who “lays fee” or shares property with another, and so “partner, shareholder.”

From Scandinavian come the common nouns axle (tree), band, birth, bloom, crook, dirt, egg, gait, gap, girth, knife, loan, race, rift, root, score, seat, skill, sky, snare, thrift, and window; the adjectives awkward, flat, happy, ill, loose, rotten, rugged, sly, tight, ugly, weak, and wrong; and many verbs, including call, cast, clasp, clip, crave, die, droop, drown, flit, gape, gasp, glitter, life, rake, rid, scare, scowl, skulk, snub, sprint, thrive, thrust, and want. The debt of the English language to French is large. The terms president, representative, legislature, congress, constitution, and parliament are all French. So, too, are duke, marquis, viscount, and baron; but king, queen, lord, lady, earl, and knight are English. City, village, court, palace, manor, mansion, residence, and domicile are French; but town, borough, hall, house, bower, room, and home are English. Comparison between English and French synonyms shows that the former are more human and concrete, the latter more intellectual and abstract; e.g., the terms freedom and liberty, friendship and amity, hatred and enmity, love and affection, likelihood and probability, truth and veracity, lying and mendacity. The superiority of French cooking is duly recognized by the adoption of such culinary terms as boil, broil, fry, grill, roast, *souse*, and toast. “Breakfast” is English, but “dinner” and “supper” are French. “Hunt” is English, but “chase,” “quarry,” “scent,” and “track” are French. Craftsmen bear names of English origin: baker, builder, fisher (man), hedger, miller,

shepherd, shoemaker, wainwright, and weaver, or webber. Names of skilled artisans, however, are French: carpenter, draper, haberdasher, joiner, mason, painter, plumber, and tailor. Many terms relating to dress and fashion, cuisine and viniculture, politics and diplomacy, drama and literature, art and ballet come from French.

In the spheres of science and technology many terms come from Classical Greek through French or directly from Greek. Pioneers in research and development now regard Greek as a kind of inexhaustible quarry from which they can draw linguistic material at will. By prefixing the Greek adverb *tele* “far away, distant” to the existing compound *photography*, “light writing,” they create the precise term “*telephotography*” to denote the photographing of distant objects by means of a special lens. By inserting the prefix *micro-* “small” into this same compound, they make the new term “*photomicrography*,” denoting the electronic photographing of bacteria and viruses. Such neo-Hellenic derivatives would probably have been unintelligible to Plato and Aristotle. Many Greek compounds and derivatives have Latin equivalents with slight or considerable differentiations in meaning (see table). At first sight it might appear that some of these equivalents, such as “*metamorphosis*” and “*transformation*,” are sufficiently synonymous to make one or the other redundant. In fact, however, “*metamorphosis*” is more technical and therefore more restricted than “*transformation*.” In mythology it signifies a magical shape changing; in nature it denotes a postembryonic development such as that of a tadpole into a frog, a cocoon into a silkworm, or a chrysalis into a butterfly.

*Transformation*, on the other hand, means any kind of change from one state to another. Ever since the 12th century, when merchants from the Netherlands made homes in East Anglia, Dutch words have infiltrated into Midland speech. For centuries a form of Low German was used by seafaring men in North Sea ports. Old nautical terms still in use include *buoy*, *deck*, *dock*, *freebooter*, *hoist*, *leak*, *pump*, *skipper*, and *yacht*. The Dutch in New Amsterdam (later New York) and adjacent settlements gave the words *boss*, *cookie*, *dope*, *snoop*, and *waffle* to American speech. The Dutch in Cape Province gave the terms *apartheid*, *commandeer*, *commando*, *spoor*, and *trek* to South African speech. The contribution of High German has been on a different level. In the 18th and 19th centuries it lay in technicalities of geology and mineralogy and in abstractions relating to literature, philosophy, and psychology. In the 20th century this contribution has sometimes been indirect. “*Unclear*” and “*meaningful*” echoed German *unklar* and *bedeutungsvoll*, or *sinnvoll*. “*Ring road*” (a British term applied to roads encircling cities or parts of cities) translated *Ringstrasse*; “*round trip*,” *Rundfahrt*; and “*the turn of the century*,” *die Jahrhundertwende*. The terms “*classless society*,” “*inferiority complex*,” and “*wishful thinking*” echoed *die klassenlöse Gesellschaft*, *der Minderwertigkeitskomplex*, and *das Wunschdenken*. Along with the rest of the Western world, English has accepted Italian as the language of music. The names of voices, parts, performers, instruments, forms of composition, and technical directions are all Italian. Many of the latter—*allegro*, *andante*, *cantabile*, *crescendo*, *diminuendo*, *legato*, *maestoso*, *obbligato*, *pizzicato*, *staccato*, and *vibrato*—are also used metaphorically. In architecture, the terms *belvedere*, *corridor*, *cupola*, *grotto*, *pedestal*, *pergola*, *piazza*, *pilaster*, and *rotunda* are accepted; in literature, *burlesque*, *canto*, *extravaganza*, *stanza*, and many more are used. From Spanish, English has acquired the words *armada*, *cannibal*, *cigar*, *galleon*, *guerrilla*, *matador*, *mosquito*, *quadroon*, *tornado*, and *vanilla*,

some of these loanwords going back to the 16th century, when sea dogs encountered hidalgos on the high seas. Many names of animals and plants have entered English from indigenous languages through Spanish: “potato” through Spanish *patata* from Taino *batata*, and “tomato” through Spanish *tomate* from Nahuatl *tomatl*. Other words have entered from Latin America by way of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California; e.g., such words as canyon, cigar, estancia, lasso, mustang, pueblo, and rodeo. Some have gathered new connotations: *bonanza*, originally denoting “goodness,” came through miners’ slang to mean “spectacular windfall, prosperity”; *mañana*, “tomorrow,” acquired an undertone of mysterious unpredictability. From Arabic through European Spanish, through French from Spanish, through Latin, or occasionally through Greek, English has obtained the terms alchemy, alcohol, alembic, algebra, alkali, almanac, arsenal, assassin, attar, azimuth, cipher, elixir, mosque, nadir, naphtha, sugar, syrup, zenith, and zero. From Egyptian Arabic, English has recently borrowed the term *loofah* (also spelled *luffa*). From Hebrew, directly or by way of Vulgate Latin, come the terms *amen*, *cherub*, *hallelujah*, *manna*, *messiah*, *pharisee*, *rabbi*, *sabbath*, and *seraph*; *jubilee*, *leviathan*, and *shibboleth*; and, more recently, *kosher*, and *kibbutz*. English has freely adopted and adapted words from many other languages, acquiring them sometimes directly and sometimes by devious routes. Each word has its own history.

The following lists indicate the origins of a number of English words: Welsh—*flannel*, *coracle*, *cromlech*, *penguin*, *eisteddfod*; Cornish—*gull*, *brill*, *dolmen*; Gaelic and Irish—*shamrock*, *brogue*, *leprechaun*, *ogham*, *Tory*, *galore*, *blarney*, *hooligan*, *clan*, *claymore*, *bog*, *plaid*, *slogan*, *sporrán*, *cairn*, *whisky*, *pibroch*; Breton—*menhir*; Norwegian—*ski*, *ombudsman*; Finnish—*sauna*; Russian—*kvass*, *ruble*, *tsar*, *verst*, *mammoth*, *ukase*, *astrakhan*, *vodka*, *samovar*, *tundra* (from Sami), *troika*, *pogrom*, *duma*, *soviet*, *bolshevik*, *intelligentsia* (from Latin through Polish), *borscht*, *balalaika*, *sputnik*, *soyuz*, *salyut*, *lunokhod*; Polish—*mazurka*; Czech—*robot*; Hungarian—*goulash*, *paprika*; Portuguese—*marmalade*, *flamingo*, *molasses*, *veranda*, *port* (wine), *dodo*; Basque—*bizarre*; Turkish—*janissary*, *turban*, *coffee*, *kiosk*, *caviar*, *pasha*, *odalisque*, *fez*, *bosh*; Hindi—*nabob*, *guru*, *sahib*, *maharajah*, *mahatma*, *pundit*, *punch* (drink), *juggernaut*, *cushy*, *jungle*, *thug*, *cheetah*, *shampoo*, *chit*, *dungaree*, *pucka*, *gymkhana*, *mantra*, *loot*, *pajamas*, *dinghy*, *polo*; Persian—*paradise*, *divan*, *pardah*, *lilac*, *bazaar*, *shah*, *caravan*, *chess*, *salamander*, *taffeta*, *shawl*, *khaki*; Tamil—*pariah*, *curry*, *catamaran*, *mulligatawny*; Chinese—*tea* (Amoy), *sampan*; Japanese—*shogun*, *kimono*, *mikado*, *tycoon*, *hara-kiri*, *gobang*, *judo*, *jujitsu*, *bushido*, *samurai*, *banzai*, *tsunami*, *satsuma*, *No* (the dance drama), *karate*, *Kabuki*; Malay—*ketchup*, *sago*, *bamboo*, *junk*, *amuck*, *orangutan*, *compound* (fenced area), *raffia*; Polynesian—*taboo*, *tattoo*; Hawaiian—*ukulele*; African languages—*chimpanzee*, *goober*, *mumbo jumbo*, *voodoo*; Inuit—*kayak*, *igloo*, *anorak*; Yupik—*mukluk*; Algonquian—*totem*; Nahuatl—*mescal*; languages of the Caribbean—*hammock*, *hurricane*, *tobacco*, *maize*, *iguana*; Aboriginal Australian—*kangaroo*, *corroboree*, *wallaby*, *wombat*, *boomerang*, *paramatta*, *budgerigar*.

## **TRANSLATION II PAPER GUIDE**

1. Provide the article that you are going to translate. It must be written in English by a native speaker and in printed version (published in either newspaper, book, journal, or magazine). Translate it into Bahasa Indonesia.
2. Give the Indonesian text to another group and ask them to retranslate the article into English. Make sure they haven't seen the original, so that they work wholly using the only source they had (the Indonesian text).
3. Now compile all versions of the article: the original English, the Indonesian, and the retranslated English version. Compare them and list all important key terms belong to the subject. Are they different? Why?
4. Write a paper on the analysis of the comparison between the original and the retranslated English versions. State the differences (if any) and the possible reasons of the outcome. Explain why such thing happens.  
e.g. a lack of vocabulary on the subject, familiar words with unfamiliar meanings specially belong to the subject, limited amount of time, low grammatical competence, wrong guessing leading to the loss of meaning, etc
5. The organization of the paper:
  - Title page : title, names and student numbers, department and year
  - Introduction : not more than a page; stating the background of choosing the text, the objectives of the research, and also the process of writing the paper
  - Discussion : the analysis of the comparison between all the three versions; list of special key terms belong to the subject
  - Conclusion : not more than a page; the final statement about the causes of the differences between the three versions; summarizes the discussion in shorter paragraphs

- Enclosures : the copy of the original article, the Indonesian and the retranslated English versions; any other sources
  - References : any sources used as reference
6. Technical matters: space 1.5, Times New Roman 12 or Courier/Arial 11, min 12 pages

## Interpreting

(It's not as easy as it may seem!!)

*--- the practitioner who translates orally for parties conversing in different languages or utilizing sign language ---*

### **Job description**

Interpreters convert spoken statements from one language to another in a range of settings. Interpreting involves listening to, understanding and memorizing content, then reproducing statements, questions and speeches in a different language. This is usually from another language into the mother tongue on a one or two-way basis. Researching language-specific vocabulary and terminology forms a part of the role.

Interpreters should convey not only elements of meaning, but also the intention and feelings of the original speaker. In fact, the end result is an intermediate stage of communication which aims to allow listeners of the target language to experience the message in a way the experience of those who understand the original. They facilitate effective communication between clients at: international events and conferences; technical, business, legal or political meetings; court hearings; police interviews, etc.

This is a rewarding but demanding role that requires accuracy, quick thinking and an excellent grasp of sector-specific language and jargon.

### **Typical work activities**

There are two main forms of interpreting:

- *Conference – simultaneous.* Working at a conference or large meeting, the interpreter sits in a soundproof booth (a separate one for each conference language) and translates instantaneously what is being said.
- *Conference – consecutive.* More common in smaller meetings and discussions, the interpreter waits until the speaker has finished before giving an accurate account of what has been said.

The following work activities are common to both forms of interpreting:

- using technology to extract specialist vocabulary and build up specialist vocabulary banks;
- writing notes to aid memory;
- assimilating speakers' words quickly, including jargon and acronyms;
- analyzing sentences expressed in one language and explaining them using another language;
- using microphones and headsets;

- preparing paperwork – considering agendas before meetings, when receiving the lecture/speech in advance;
- organizing workload and liaising with internal departments, agencies and/or employers.

Other forms of interpreting include:

- *Liaison interpreting.* This is for conversations between two or more people who speak different languages and often involves interpreting by telephone. This is an increasingly popular medium, particularly in the public service sector.
- *Whispering.* This is used when the majority of people speak the same language and involves whispering a translation to the non-speakers of the language.

### **Salary and Condition**

- Salaries vary depending on hours worked. It is often difficult to sustain a steady income from interpreting, unless employed by one organization as a conference interpreter. Most interpreters have additional employment, for example, in translation, teaching or training.
- Working hours tend to be nine to five, but can include evening meetings.
- Interpreters can be based inside conference centers for long periods.
- Self-employment is common and interpreters often work freelance. It can take time to become established as a freelancer. Most find work through networking and registration with professional directories or language agencies. Part-time opportunities exist. It is not unusual for interpreters to offer flexible services on retirement or during a career break.
- Social life can be tied in to the job and you may be called upon at short notice to attend evening functions. You may also be in social contact with senior executives, diplomats and politicians.
- Business dress code is usually required.
- The role requires a huge amount of concentration, which can be tiring.
- You may be required to travel overnight or for longer periods abroad.

### **Entry Requirement**

- an excellent command of English and fluency in at least two or three foreign languages;
- a good memory and the ability to learn fast;
- the ability to speak fast and in a organized way
- the skills to interact well with people;
- the ability to use discretion when necessary;
- flexibility to cope with the unexpected and sometimes difficult situations;
- dedication and commitment;
- knowledge of current affairs, politics and different cultures;
- confidence about speaking in public (conference and court interpreters).

### FRAGMENT III

The Prologe of the Wyves Tale of Bathe

'Experience, thought noon auctoritee

Were in this world, is right ynough for me  
 To speke of wo that is in marriage;  
 For, lordynges, sith I twelve year was of age,  
 Thonked be God that is eterne on lyve,  
 Housbondes at chirche dore I have had five, —  
 If I so ofte myghte have ywedded bee, —  
 And alle were worthy men in hir degree.  
 But me was toold, certeyn, nat longe agoon is,  
 That sith that Crist new ante never but onis  
 To weddyng, in the Cane of Galilee,  
 That by the same ensample taughts he me  
 That I ne sholde wedded be but ones.  
 Herkne eek, lo, which a sharp word for the nones,  
 Beside a welle, Jhesus, God and man,  
 Spak in reprieve of the Samaritan:  
 "Thou hast yhad five housbondes," quod he,  
 "And that ilke man that now hath thee  
 is noght thyn housbonde," thus seyde he certeyn.  
 What that he mente therby, I kan nat seyn;  
 But that I axe, why that the fifthe man  
 Was noon housbonde to the Samaritan?  
 How manye myghte she have in marriage?  
 Yet herde I nevere tellen in myn age  
 Upon this nombre diffinicioun.  
 Men may devyne and glosen, up and doun,  
 But wel I woot, expres, without lye,  
 God bad us for to wexe and multiplie;

Translate each of the following sentences into English.

1. **Kedatangannya membuat anak-anak gembira.**
2. **Salinlah kata-kata berikut ini ke dalam bahasa Inggris.**
3. **Mengapa kita harus berjumpa kalau akhirnya akan berpisah?**
4. **Ia datang padaku karena tidak tahu apa yang harus dilakukannya.**

5. Apakah engkau kenal dengan anak kecil yang merangkak di lantai itu?
6. Ia pergi ke Malioboro setelah memberikan sepucuk surat kepada pamannya.
7. Setelah mengerjakan kewajibannya, ia pergi ke rumah temannya di Semarang.
8. Setiap saat aku selalu terbayang parasnya yang cantik dan tutur katanya yang halus.
9. Karena sangat mencintai tanah airnya, ia rela memberikan seluruh kekayaannya pada negara.
10. Tamu tak diundang datang ke rumah kami tadi malam dan mengambil banyak sekali barang berharga.
11. Mendengar berita sangat mengejutkan seperti itu, nenek saya yang memang menderita lemah jantung lalu pingsan.
12. Pasangan yang tampak harmonis itu sebentar lagi akan bercerai karena hadirnya orang ketiga dalam kehidupan mereka.
13. Terdesak oleh keadaan ekonomi yang serba kekurangan, gadis cantik itu terpaksa bekerja sebagai pembantu rumah tangga di Jakarta.
14. Menurut temanku yang bekerja di sebuah perusahaan asing, nilai tukar rupiah terhadap dolar AS akan semakin menguat beberapa pekan ini.
15. Kedua teman saya, Ucok dan Ucrit, yang secara bersamaan dinyatakan sebagai pemenang lomba lari hari Senin kemarin, memang sejak dulu sangat menyukai olahraga.