

## Translation Errors Caused by Lexical Transfer\*

Chung, Younghan  
(Seoul Women's University)

### 1. Introduction

As political, economic, cultural, and other exchanges among countries around the world are growing, so is the importance of translation. There are many translators, both professionals and amateurs, working in various fields, but most of them would agree that producing a quality translation is quite challenging. Neubert and Shreve (1992: 1) even mentioned that doing translation correctly sometimes “seems impossible.”

Late in the 20th century, the Chartered Institute of Linguists of the UK gave four criteria for assessing translations: (1) accuracy (the correct transfer of information and evidence of complete comprehension); (2) the appropriate

---

\* I am grateful to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments and suggestions, which were very helpful in improving the quality of this paper. This work was supported by a special research grant from Seoul Women's University (2012).

choice of vocabulary, idiom, terminology and register; (3) cohesion, coherence and organization; (4) accuracy in technical aspects of punctuation, etc. (Munday 2001: 31). Among them, the second criterion, the appropriate choice of vocabulary, is an important standard for determining the quality of a translation and also a daunting challenge to many translators. Jiang (2002, 2004) proposed the same-translation effect as a common source of word-choice errors. When a word in the source language (SL) can be translated into two or more words in the target language (TL), people are more likely to make word-choice errors. For example, the Korean word *munje* (문제) can be translated into *problem*, *issue*, *matter*, or *question* in English. Therefore, when a person translates *munje* into English, he or she has to make a choice among the four options, and a wrong choice leads to a translation error.

Regarding the same-translation effect, the present paper aims to answer the following three research questions: (1) How strong is the same-translation effect in Korean-to-English translation? (2) How much can instruction influence the rates of error in translation? and (3) How can the same-translation effect be reduced?

In order to answer these questions, the present author conducted an experiment giving 60 subjects 40 Korean-to-English translation tasks. In 20 of the 40 tasks, the subjects were asked to choose, in each task, between two semantically related English words with the same Korean translation. In the other 20 tasks, the choice was between two semantically related English words with different Korean translations. The rates of correct answers for the two test sets were analyzed, and the effects of instruction on the two sets were compared. Section 3 discusses the participants, materials, procedure, and data analysis of the experiment. Section 4 offers the results of the experiment and pedagogical suggestions. Section 5 concludes the present study with proposals for future research. Now let us begin by examining the effects of lexical transfer on translation, and the same-translation effect.

## 2. Lexical Transfer

### 2.1 Types of Translation and Lexical Transfer in Translation

As ten doctors would give ten different opinions about the same symptom, the same text can be translated in many different ways. Dryden (1992: 7) classified translation into three categories: metaphrase, paraphrase, and imitation. “Metaphrase” refers to “word by word and line by line” translation, which is equivalent to literal translation. “Paraphrase” means “translation with latitude,” which involves changing whole phrases. “Imitation” abandons both words and senses and is similar to adaptation.

Newmark (1988: 45) offered the following distinction between two translation categories.

SL emphasis	TL emphasis
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation
Literal translation	Free translation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicative translation

The translation type that places the most emphasis on the SL is word-for-word translation, and its TL counterpart is adaptation. Semantic and communicative translation are the weakest forms of the two categories, respectively.

In many cases, translators at the beginner’s level use “metaphrase” or the SL-emphasis translation. According to Brown (2000), when language learners face a problem in their communication, they use various strategies such as avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, word coinage, literal translation, and code-switching. For translators, one of the most commonly used methods of dealing with a problem in translation is language transfer,<sup>1)</sup> or “the use of the

---

1) Instead of “language transfer,” Kellerman (1984: 102) proposed the term “cross-linguistic influence.” Since *transfer* is a more generally accepted term in the literature,

first language (or other languages known) in a second language context” (Gass and Selinker, 2001). When translators face uncertainty, they often draw an analogy from their native language (NL) and transfer it to the foreign language.

A frequently used type of transfer is lexical transfer. Lexical transfer refers to the “influence of word knowledge in one language on a person’s knowledge or use of words in another language” (Jarvis and Pavlenko, 2008: 72). For example, when a Korean translator changes the Korean expression *san gageok* (싼 가격) into English, he or she is likely to resort to lexical transfer and translate *san gageok* literally into “cheap (싼) price (가격)” rather than the correct phrase “low price.”

An emerging topic in the research on lexical transfer is *word choice transfer*, which refers to a phenomenon in which a person’s knowledge of one language can influence his or her choice of words in his or her use of another language (Jarvis and Pavlenko, 2008: 88).<sup>2)</sup> In Section 3, we will examine how word choice transfer affects translation and leads to translation errors. Before moving on to Section 3, let us consider Jiang’s (2002, 2004) research on transfer and the same-translation effect in the next subsection, which can serve as a springboard to the discussions in Sections 3 and 4.

## 2.2 The Same-Translation Effect

In her research on transfer, Jiang (2004: 419) proposed the “semantic transfer hypothesis,” which posits that “L2 [second language] words are mapped to existing meanings or concepts when such meanings are available.” According to the hypothesis, the influence of semantic transfer may remain

---

this paper will use the term *transfer*.

2) Byun (2011) analyzed word-choice errors in translation into English made by Korean students based on nine categories (too general, too specific, terminology, register, addition, omission, part of speech, spelling and collocation). It found that the two common sources of error were transfer and insufficient knowledge of vocabulary usage in the TL.

persistent for some words, leading to continued L1 [first language] semantic involvement among advanced learners.

In Jiang's (2002, 2004) research, even advanced L2 learners were found to make word-choice errors, in particular when there is a lexical distinction between a pair of words in the L2 but not in the L1. In those cases, the two L2 words are mapped to the same meaning of the shared L1 translation, and consequently, the L2 users have great difficulty semantically distinguishing the two L2 words and using them correctly. According to Jiang (2002: 620), the two English words *question* and *problem*, for example, are translated into a single Chinese word, *wenti*. In contrast, the English words *interrupt* and *interfere* are translated into two different Chinese words, *daduan* and *ganrao*, respectively.

Same-translation (ST) pairs (e.g. *question* and *problem* = *wenti*) should have highly similar or identical semantic representations in the mind of Chinese learners of English. On the other hand, different-translation (DT) pairs (e.g. *interrupt* = *daduan* and *interfere* = *ganrao*) should appear semantically less related. According to the semantic transfer hypothesis, Chinese ESL (English as a Second Language) learners should consider ST pairs semantically more related than DT pairs, and they should make a judgment about the semantic relatedness faster in the case of ST pairs than in the case of DT pairs. This phenomenon is called the "same-translation effect" in Jiang (2004: 420).

In order to prove the same-translation effect, Jiang (2002) conducted an experiment with 25 advanced-level Chinese - English bilingual speakers and 27 native speakers of English. She chose 40 ST pairs and 40 DT pairs and asked the 25 bilingual and 27 native-speaking participants to rate the semantic relatedness of each pair on a scale of one to five—with five indicating the strongest relation and one the weakest. The results of the experiment are given below in Table 1.

Table 1. Average rating scores for each word-pair type by NNS and NS participants

Pair type	Nonnative speakers	Native speakers
Same translation	3.92	3.25
Different translation	3.42	3.28

(Jiang, 2002: 624)

Native speakers gave similar rating scores for both ST and DT pairs (3.25 and 3.28 respectively), while nonnative speakers gave higher scores for ST pairs than for DT pairs (3.92 vs. 3.42).

In the second experiment, 18 Chinese-English bilingual speakers and 18 native speakers of English participated, and 80 semantically related English word pairs and 80 unrelated pairs were used. The subjects were asked to decide, as fast as possible, whether the two English words shown on a computer screen were semantically related and then indicate their judgment by pressing one of two buttons, each for a positive response and for a negative response. The results of the second experiment are indicated below in Table 2.

Table 2. NNS and NS participants' reaction times and error rates in experiment 2

Pair type	Nonnative speakers		Native speakers	
	Related	Unrelated	Related	Unrelated
Same translation	1076 (8.3)	1319 (12.6)	878 (12.4)	1000 (10.8)
Different translation	1190 (13.6)		919 (7.9)	
Difference	114		41	

*Note.* Reaction times are in milliseconds; error rates are percentages within parentheses.

(Jiang, 2002: 628)

The Chinese ESL speakers responded faster to the ST set than to the DT set. Native speakers of English, however, showed no such same-translation

effect. The results of the two experiments are consistent with the prediction about the same-translation effect.

Jiang (2004) replicated these experiments using Korean data instead of Chinese data with the participation by Korean ESL speakers. The results of the new experiments with Korean ESL speakers were basically similar to those of the previous ones, once again proving the same-translation effect.

Jiang's (2002, 2004) experiments proved the viability of the same-translation effect in ESL students' semantic perceptions of English words. The present study intends to extend the findings of the experiments to translation and reveal how the same-translation effect leads to errors in translation. In the next subsection, we will discuss the significance that the same-translation effect bears in relation to translation.

### 2.3 The Implications of the Same-Translation Effect for Translation

It is worthwhile to ask if the same-translation effect holds in translation as well as in semantic awareness. The same-translation effect suggests that two English words that have the same Korean translation (e.g. *believe* and *trust*, both of which are translated as *mitta* (믿다) in Korean) will be considered by Korean ESL translators to be very closely related semantically or even to be synonymous. This wrong perception may lead to confusion among Korean ESL translators when they translate *mitta* into English. They should translate *mitta* either as *believe* or *trust*, depending on a given context, but because of the same-translation effect, they are likely to make an error in this choice.

In contrast, if two English words have different Korean translations (e.g. *war* and *battle*, which are translated in Korean as *jeonjaeng* (전쟁) and *jeontu* (전투), respectively), Korean ESL translators are less likely to consider them synonyms or near synonyms and more likely to consider them two different words. It is predicted that this awareness will reduce the error rates in translation tasks.

The present paper endeavored to prove these predictions with an experiment. It also tried to answer the questions of how strong the influence of instruction is on the translation error rates and how the same-translation effect can be reduced. Section 3 will explain how the experiment was organized, followed by its results and relevant discussions in Section 4.

### 3. Methodology

#### 3.1 Participants

Translation tasks were given to 60 Korean learners of English translation. They were either university students or graduates and had taken English translation classes for more than six months. Their TOEIC scores were all higher than 900. According to the guidelines on the TOEIC by the ETS (Educational Testing Service), which administers the test, people with a TOEIC score of 900 or higher are judged to have international proficiency, meaning that they can represent their organizations without the help of translators in negotiations with native English-speaking partner organizations. Based on the fact that all the subjects had taken translation classes for more than six months and had a TOEIC score higher than 900, they can be considered to be advanced ESL students with considerable knowledge of English vocabulary and grammar. This suggests that the errors they make in translation tasks are not random but reflect their own systematic linguistic strategies.

#### 3.2 Materials

As in the case of Jiang's (2002, 2004) experiments, both ST pairs and DT pairs were chosen for the present experiment.<sup>3)</sup> However, there are differences

---

3) Jiang's (2004) distinction between ST and DT pairs is somewhat different from that



between Jiang's experiments and that of the present study. In Jiang's experiments, the two members of each pair were synonyms (e.g. *allow* and *permit*), near synonyms (e.g. *liberty* and *freedom*), or ones that are just semantically related (e.g. *vegetable* and *plant*). On the other hand, in the present experiment, all pairs were composed of words that are semantically related but different in meaning. For example, the ST set includes *problem* and *issue*, both of which are *munje* (문제) in Korean, but their meanings are different. A problem is something that should be solved like environmental pollution, but an issue is what should be discussed like environmental protection. In the DT set are *effective* (*hyogwajeokin*, 효과적인) and *efficient* (*hyoyuljeokin*, 효율적인). Being effective means producing intended results, but being efficient refers to doing a job well without wasting time or energy. In the ST set, the semantic relatedness can be assumed by the fact that the two members of each pair have the same Korean translation. In the DT set, the two members of each pair are usually, but not always, related etymologically or morphologically in Korea and/or English. In the case of *effective* and *efficient*, they have the etymologically same morphemes (i.e. *ef* (= out) and *fect/fic* (= to make)), and their Korean equivalents—*hyogwajeokin* and *hyoyuljeokin*—share *hyo* (= to show or to give).

---

in this study. For example, in Jiang's experiment, the pair *disease* (질병) and *illness* (병) belonged to the DT set. Although *disease* and *illness* have slight differences in meaning (e.g. For animals, only *disease* can be used.), the Korean words 질병 and 병 have no noticeable difference in meaning according to several Korean dictionaries I consulted. Therefore, in the present experiment, *disease* and *illness* were included in the ST set. On the other hand, in Jiang's (2004) experiment, both *mistake* and *error* were considered to have the same Korean translation (*silsu*, 실수), but *error* is often translated as *oryu* (오류) in Korean. Therefore, *mistake* and *error* were placed in the DT set. The same applies to the pair *participate* and *attend*, both of which were translated as *chamyeohada* (참여하다) in Korean and were classified as a ST pair in Jiang's research. However, an athlete can participate (*chamgahada*, 참가하다) in the Olympics, but cannot attend (*chamseokhada*, 참석하다) them. This is why *participate* and *attend* were included in the DT set in the present study.

These pairs were shown to five native speakers of English to test their semantic relatedness. They were asked to see 30 ST and 30 DT pairs and rate how closely the two members of each pair were related semantically, on a scale of one to five—with five indicating the strongest relation. From the word pool, those pairs whose average scores were four or higher were chosen, leaving 26 ST pairs and 23 DT pairs. In each of these two sets, 20 pairs with the highest scores were finally selected. Their list is given in Appendix 1.

### 3.3 Procedure

A total of 50 translation tasks were prepared using the 40 ST and DT pairs, plus 10 distracters. For each task, a Korean sentence was given followed by its English translation. Each Korean sentence contained a word from the 40 ST and DT pairs, and the word was underlined. Each English translation had a blank, and the participants were asked to fill in the blank with one of the two English words given below. For example, the fourth Korean sentence in the questionnaire was “그는 재즈에 큰 관심을 가졌다” followed by its English translation with a blank “He took great \_\_\_\_\_ in jazz.” Below the English translation were four choices: ① attention ② interest ③ either one ④ neither one. Both *attention* and *interest* have the same Korean translation *gwansim* (관심). The correct answer is ② interest. The sixth Korean sentence was “경찰은 그 자동차 사고의 원인을 조사하고 있다” and its English translation was “The police are investigating the \_\_\_\_\_ of the car accident.” The four choices were: ① cause ② reason ③ either one ④ neither one. In this case, *cause* and *reason* have different Korean translation equivalents—namely, *wonin* (원인) and *iyu* (이유), respectively. The correct answer is ① cause.

Unlike the 40 ST and DT pairs, 5 of the 10 distracters are each composed of two words that have basically the same meaning and usage and therefore can be used interchangeably. For example, both *enormous* and *tremendous* mean

“extremely large in size or amount.” Therefore, in the first translation task, “그들은 그 사업에 엄청난 양의 돈을 투자했다. → They invested a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ amount of money in the project,” the correct answer is “③ either one.”

The other five distracter pairs each consist of two words that may or may not have basically the same meaning or usage. For semantic or syntactic reasons, neither of the two words is the correct answer. For instance, in the 12th translation task, “그 선생님은 내일 새로운 수업 일정을 통지해줄 것이다. → The teacher will \_\_\_\_\_ a new class schedule,” *notice* cannot be the correct answer because as a verb, it means *pochakhada* (포착하다, to become aware of) but not *tongjihada* (통지하다, to inform). Nor can *notify* be the correct choice because it should take an animate object. In “The teacher will notify a new class schedule,” *a new class schedule* will be an unsubcategory object of the verb *notify*, making the sentence ungrammatical. Therefore, in this task, the correct answer is ④ neither one.

In order to investigate the degree to which instruction can affect the strength of the same-translation effect, the present author asked the participants to indicate whether they had received any lesson before on the similarities or differences between the two English words in each task. In the analysis of the results of the experiment, the success rate of translation tasks on which the participants had previous knowledge was compared with the overall success rate. If the former is found to be significantly higher than the latter, it can be assumed that instruction can help learners reduce their confusion between two semantically related English words.

### 3.4 Data Analysis

Each participant's success rates for the ST set and the DT set were calculated separately. Then, the success rates of all 60 subjects for the first set and those for the second set were added up separately. After that, the success rate of each participant for the first set was calculated, but this time

the calculation included only those translation tasks on which the participant reported he or she had received a lesson previously. The same calculation was done for the second set. Finally, the success rates of all 60 participants were added up for analysis. Meanwhile, the success rates for those translation tasks on which the participant reported he or she had not received a lesson previously were also calculated for each set.

#### 4. Results and Discussions

##### 4.1 Results

In the ST set, the average score of the 60 participants was 12.35 out of 20, while the corresponding figure in the DT set was 15.13. If these figures are converted into percentages, the success rates in the two sets were 61.75 percent and 75.67 percent, respectively. These results are shown in the following two charts.

Figure 1. The Average Scores in the Two Translation Sets

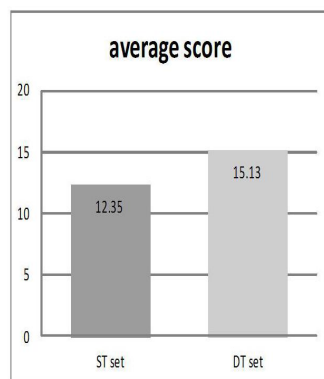
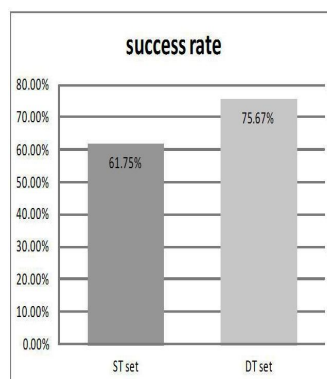


Figure 2. The Success Rates in the Two Translation Sets



The results indicate that the participants had greater difficulty translating a Korean sentence into English when there was a Korean word that could be translated into one of two English words. In order to examine if this contrast is statistically significant, an independent *t*-test<sup>4)</sup> was conducted. The results of the independent *t*-test are given below.

Table 3. Independent *t*-test Results of the Two Translation Sets

Test	N	M	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
ST set	60	12.35	2.82	-7.30	59	.00**
DT set	60	15.13	2.56			

*p* < .01

In the *t*-test, the difference in the success rates between the two sets was found to be significant, *p* < .01.

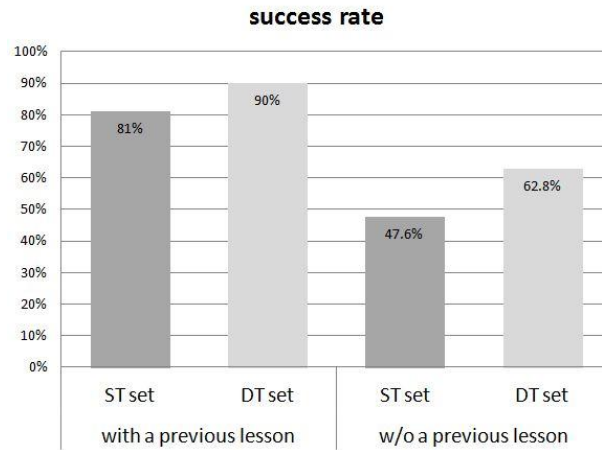
In the next analysis, the effects of the participants' previous lexical knowledge were measured. In the ST set, the subjects reported that they had received lessons before on an average of 7.82 pairs out of 20.<sup>5)</sup> Of those 7.82 pairs, they chose correct answers in 6.33 pairs, yielding a success rate of 81 percent. In the case of the remaining 12.18 pairs on which the participants had not had a previous lesson, they guessed the answers correctly in 5.8 pairs,

- 
- 4) The independent sample *t*-test is an inferential statistical test that determines whether there is a statistically significant difference between the means in two samples. In the present study, the independent *t*-test was used to compare the means in the two translation sets and find out whether the test scores were presented in significantly different mean values.
- 5) For example, they learned the difference between *awareness* and *perception*, both of which have the same Korean translation equivalent, *insik* (인식). A person's awareness of something indicates how much he or she knows about it, and a person's perception of it shows what he or she thinks about it. As the old saying goes, however, learning is one thing, and knowing is another. The fact that a participant learned about the difference between the two words before does not guarantee that he or she can always differentiate them correctly.

with a success rate of 47.6 percent.

In the DT set, there were 8.65 pairs out of 20, on which the participants had previous knowledge, and of the 8.65 pairs, they made a correct choice in 7.78 pairs, leading to a success rate of 90 percent. On the other hand, of the other 11.35 pairs, on which there was no previous knowledge, the subjects guessed the answers correctly in 7.13 pairs, producing a success rate of 62.8 percent. The results are indicated below in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The Success Rates in Translation Tasks with and without a Previous Lesson in the Two Translation Sets

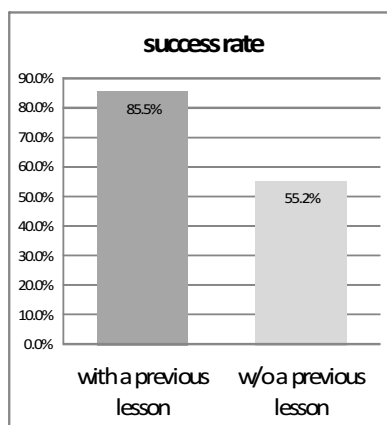


In the ST set, the success rate of translation tasks on which there was previous knowledge was 1.7 times higher than that of those without such knowledge. In the DT set, the former was 1.43 times higher than the latter. The success rate was the lowest when the participants were asked to choose between two English words with the same Korean translation and there was no previous lesson about the difference between them.

The overall success rate of the participants in translation tasks on which they had a previous lesson was 85.5 percent, whether they were in the ST set

or the DT set. Meanwhile, the overall success rate of the participants in translation tasks on which they did not have a previous lesson was 55.2 percent. This contrast is presented in the following chart.<sup>6)</sup>

Figure 4. The Success Rates in Translation Tasks with and without a Previous Lesson



The success rate of translation tasks with previous lessons was 1.55 times higher than that of those without such lessons. In the next subsection, the implications of these results will be discussed, and pedagogical suggestions will be offered.

#### 4.2 Discussions

It has been noted in the literature that the extent to which two languages are related linguistically affects the degree of difficulty in translation. Gutt (1991: 229-30) discussed two major types of limitations that may hamper translation: (1) limitations imposed by the linguistic differences between an SL

<sup>6)</sup> In the second analysis, the number of pairs on which there was previous knowledge was different for each participant, so an independent *t*-test could not be conducted.

and a TL; (2) limitations imposed by contextual background differences. In the case of Korean and English, the translation between the two languages is subject to both of the two major types of limitations, which pose a great challenge to translators.

Russian translation theorist Yakob Retsker (1974: 9) described three types of relationship between an SL and a TL (cited in Fawcett, 1997: 27-33). The first type is “equivalence,” in which there is a one-to-one relationship between the SL and TL terms irrespective of context. An example is the relationship between *wonin* (원인) and *cause* or *iyu* (이유) and *reason*. The second is variant and contextual correspondence, in which there is a one-to-many relationship between the SL and TL terms, e.g. *gwansim* (관심) vs. *attention* and *interest*. The third type is all other types of translational transformation with no one-to-one relationship or readily definable contextual correspondence in the form of a collocation.

When there is a one-to-one relationship between the SL and TL terms, a translator is less likely to make an error than when there is a one-to-many relationship. A good example is the Finnish word *kieli*, which can mean *language* or *tongue*. Instead of the correct English translation “He bit himself in the *tongue*,” a Finnish translator wrote, “He bit himself in the *language*” (Ringbom, 1983: 208).

These phenomena have been borne out statistically in the present experiment. The participants made more errors in the ST set (i.e. in one-to-many relationships) than in the DT set (i.e. in one-to-one relationships).

At the beginning of this paper, three research questions were posed: (1) How strong is the same-translation effect in Korean-to-English translation? (2) How much can instruction influence the error rates? and (3) How can the same-translation effect be reduced? To answer the first question, the present experiment demonstrated that the ST and DT sets had yielded success rates of 67.5 percent and 75.67 percent, respectively, and it was proved that this difference was statistically significant. These results indicate that the



same-translation effect can make statistically significant differences in the commission of errors in Korean-to-English translation.

Regarding the second question, it was revealed that the success rate of translation tasks without previous instruction was 55.2 percent, but that of those with such instruction was 85.5 percent, which means that the presence of instruction made a difference of 30.3 percentage points. It is well known in the literature that instruction can reduce errors, but the results of the present study are significant in that (1) the degree of reduction of errors by instruction was measured statistically, and (2) few studies have dealt with the effects of instruction on reduction of errors caused by the same-translation effect in Korean-to-English translation.

Then, what pedagogical implications can be drawn from this study? The third research question posed in this study was: how can the same-translation effect be reduced? Three ways to minimize the same-translation effect will be offered here. Firstly, Korean ESL students should consult English dictionaries and learn how two or more words that have a similar meaning are different in meaning and usage. Carter and McCarthy (1988: 49) suggested that to understand a word fully and use it appropriately, the learner needs to know “how it relates to others of similar meaning and which other words it can be used with.” For example, the Korean verb *chukhahada* (축하하다) can be translated into *congratulate* or *celebrate*. The fact that the two English verbs have the same Korean translation equivalent does not mean that they have exactly the same meaning and usage. The basic meanings of the two English verbs are similar, but *congratulate* takes a human as the object, whereas *celebrate* is followed by a special occasion, e.g. They *congratulated* him on the birth of his daughter vs. They *celebrated* the birth of his daughter. Without knowing this specific usage, a translator who just knows the fact that both *congratulate* and *celebrate* are *chukhahada* in Korean is likely to make an error in translating the Korean verb *chukhahada* into English.

When they are faced with an unfamiliar word, Korean ESL learners should

refer not just to an English-Korean dictionary, which usually provides Korean translations, but also an English dictionary which offers in-depth explanations about words' meanings and usage. Three semantization (understanding the meaning of new words) strategies were offered in Jiang (2004: 426). First, intralingual strategies involve the use of linguistic means of the TL such as synonyms, definitions, or linguistic contexts. Second, interlingual strategies utilize the LI in the form of a bilingual dictionary or L1 translation equivalents. Third, extralingual strategies use pictures, objects, or physical contexts. The results of the present study suggest that when Korean ESL students learn English words that have a one-to-one relationship with Korean words, including *umbrella* and *usan* (우산), or *democratic* and *minjujeokin* (민주적인), it would be desirable for them to employ interlingual strategies. This is because the English word *umbrella* is almost always translated into the Korean word *usan*. In contrast, when it comes to words in a one-to-many relationship, such as *byeong* (병) and *disease/illness*, intralingual strategies would be more suitable. When studying *disease* and *illness*, Korean ESL students should learn their definitions, linguistic contexts, and differences in meaning or usage.

The second way to reduce the same-translation effect is that in studying English words, especially those that have the same Korean translation, Korean ESL learners should study their syntax, collocation, and association as well as their morphophonology and semantics. When learning a new English word, most Korean ESL learners pay attention to its morphophonology and semantics, but they often neglect its syntax, collocation, and association. In many cases, this negligence leads to translation errors. For example, when Korean ESL learners study the English words *attention* and *interest*, it is not enough to memorize their pronunciations, spellings, and Korean translation *gwansim*. They should also learn the subtle differences in their meanings. *Attention* refers to the act or state of applying the mind to something, whereas *interest* means the feeling of wanting to discover more about something. In addition,

they should know their collocations like *pay attention to*, *attract/catch one's attention*, or *bring something to someone's attention*, on the one hand, and *have/express/take an interest in something*, or *arouse/generate interest*, on the other. In the case of *result* and *consequence*, both of which are translated as *gyeolgwa* (결과) in Korean, we can say, "The *results* of the survey were released," but cannot say, "The *consequences* of the survey were released." If Korean ESL learners just memorize the Korean translation *gyeolgwa* and do not study the specific usage of *result* and *consequence*, they may produce a wrong sentence like "The *consequences* of the survey were released."

Thirdly, for their part, teachers should offer proper instruction on English words that are semantically related but have different meanings or usage. The second part of the experiment of the present study was designed to examine the effects of instruction. As noted above, the help of instruction led to a difference of 30.3 percentage points in the success rates of translation tasks. These results suggest that when Korean ESL learners are faced with a lexical choice between two semantically related English words, it is difficult for them to make a correct choice, whether the two words have the same or different translation equivalents in Korean. However, when they are taught the difference in meaning or usage between the two English words, their success rate dramatically increases. Therefore, teachers should offer would-be translators appropriate instruction on semantically related English words, especially ST pairs, that have different meanings or usage.<sup>7)</sup> For example, the English verb *wear* and the phrase verb *put on* have similar meanings, and they have the same Korean translation equivalent *ipda* (입다). However, *I am wearing a jacket* (referring

---

7) Long (1983) asserted that instruction could counteract unbalanced memory-driven development and pre-emptively reduce the likelihood of fossilization in language development. Johnson (1988) pointed out the importance of corrective feedback in L2 instruction. Gile (1989: 7) emphasized that formal translation training can help would-be professional translators "develop their translation skills more rapidly than through field experience and self-instruction."

to a state) is different in meaning from *I am putting on a jacket* (referring to an action in progress). Since *wear* and *put on* have the same Korean translation, most Korean learners of English think that they are synonyms and as a result commit errors in translating the Korean word *ipda* into English. If teachers provide proper instruction on the difference between the two English expressions, Korean ESL students will make fewer errors with them.

## 5. Conclusion

The aim of this study is to find out how the same-translation effect can influence Korean-to-English translation and how Korean ESL learners can deal with it to reduce errors in translation. To achieve this goal, the present study proposed three research questions: (1) How strong is the same-translation effect in Korean-to-English translation? (2) How much can instruction influence the error rates? and (3) How can the same-translation effect be reduced? This study found that the difference in success rates in Korean-to-English translation caused by the same-translation effect was statistically significant. It also discovered that instruction could significantly raise success rates in translating Korean expressions belonging to the ST or DT sets, with greater effects in the ST set. Then, it discussed some pedagogical methods to reduce the same-translation effect.

Jarvis (2009: 104) discussed the mental connections between words from different languages. He said, “The strength of a connection may be affected by many factors, including frequency and recency of use, as well as the degree of similarity between the two lexical representations that are mentally connected.” The present study examined the influence of the degree of similarity between two lexical representations, so in future research, it would be worthwhile to investigate the effects of the frequency and recency of use.

Jiang (2004: 427) mentioned that when learners were still struggling with

the core meanings of new words, focusing their attention on subtle semantic differences might confuse them. However, if they were not taught the subtle semantic differences (e.g. those between *problem* and *issue*), they may believe that some semantically related words like *problem* and *issue* are actually synonyms and can be used interchangeably, and this mistaken idea may lead to fossilization. Therefore, the appropriate timing of this kind of instruction would be another interesting topic that merits future research.

### References

- Brown, Douglas (2000) *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (4th ed.), White Plains, NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Byun, Gil-ja (2011) "An Error Analysis in Word Choices in Korean-English Translation," *The Journal of Translation Studies* 12(4): 263-89.
- Carter, Ronald and Michael McCarthy (eds.) (1988) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*, London: Longman.
- Dryden, John (1992) "Metaphrase, Paraphrase and Imitation." Extracts of "Preface to Ovid's Epistles" in R. Schulte and J. Biguenet (eds.), *Theories of Translation* (17-31), Chicago and London: U of Chicago P.
- Fawcett, Peter (1997) *Translation and Language: Linguistic Theories Explained*, Manchester: St. Jerome.
- Gass, Susan and Larry Selinker (2001) *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course* (2nd ed.), Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gile, Daniel (1989) *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Gutt, Ernst-August (1991) *Translation and Relevance: Cognition and Context*, Manchester: St. Jerome.

- Jarvis, Scott (2009) "Lexical Transfer." In A. Pavlenko (ed.), *Bilingual Mental Lexicon: Interdisciplinary Approaches* (pp. 99-124), Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Jarvis, Scott and Aneta Pavlenko (2008) *Crosslinguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*, New York: Routledge.
- Jiang, Nan (2002) "Form-Meaning Mapping in Vocabulary Acquisition in a Second Language," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 24: 617-37.
- . (2004) "Semantic Transfer and its Implications for Vocabulary Teaching in a Second Language." *The Modern Language Journal* 88(3): 416-32.
- Johnson, Keith (1988) "Mistake Correction," *English Language Teaching Journal* 42: 89-96.
- Kellerman, Eric (1984) "The Empirical Evidence for the Influence of the L1 in Interlanguage." In A. Davies, C. Criper and A. Howatt (eds.), *Interlanguage* (pp. 98-122), Edinburgh: Edinburgh UP.
- Long, Michael (1983) "Does Second Language Instruction Make a Difference?: a Review of the Research," *TESOL Quarterly* 17: 359-82.
- Munday, Jeremy (2001) *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Application*, London & New York: Routledge.
- Neubert, Albrecht and Gregory Shreve (1992) *Translation as Text*, Kent: The Kent State UP.
- Newmark, Peter (1988) *A Textbook of Translation*, New York & London: Prentice Hall.
- Retsker, Yakob (1974) *Teoria Perevoda i Perevodcheskaia Praktika* (Theory of Translation and Translation Practice), Moscow: Mezhdunarodnii otnoshenia.
- Ringbom, Hakan (1983) "Borrowing and Lexical Transfer," *Applied Linguistics* 4: 207-12.

**Appendix 1<sup>8)</sup>**

<Same-Translation, Different-Meaning Pairs>

- (4) attention vs. interest 관심
- (5) disease vs. illness 병
- (6) believe vs. trust 믿다
- (10) complement vs. supplement 보충하다
- (11) congratulate vs. celebrate 축하하다
- (14) reject vs. refuse 거절하다
- (15) doubt vs. suspect 의심하다
- (23) injure vs. wound 부상을 입히다
- (26) main vs. major 주요한
- (28) meanwhile vs. on the other hand 한편
- (31) perception vs. awareness 인식
- (34) player vs. athlete 선수
- (36) problem vs. issue 문제
- (39) relevant vs. related 관련 있는
- (41) result vs. consequence 결과
- (43) sure vs. certain 확실한
- (44) civic vs. civil 시민의
- (47) trip vs. tour 여행
- (48) university vs. college 대학
- (50) wear vs. put on 입다

<Different-Translation, Different-Meaning Pairs>

- (2) aggravate 악화시키다 vs. deteriorate 악화되다
- (3) attend 참석하다 vs. participate in 참가하다
- (7) cause 원인 vs. reason 이유
- (8) civilian 민간인 vs. citizen 시민

---

8) The numbers given for the pairs indicate the sentence numbers in the translation tasks.

- (13) debate 논쟁 vs. dispute 분쟁
- (16) effective 효과적인 vs. efficient 효율적인
- (18) expense 비용 vs. expenditure 지출
- (19) facilities 시설 vs. equipment 장비
- (20) finally 마침내, 드디어 vs. eventually 결국
- (21) hardly 거의 ~ 않는 vs. rarely 드물게
- (24) kingdom 왕국 vs. dynasty 왕조
- (27) means 수단 vs. method 방법
- (29) mistake 실수 vs. error 오류
- (30) neglect 간과하다 vs. ignore 무시하다
- (33) avoid 피하다 vs. evade 회피하다
- (35) prevent 예방하다 vs. prohibit 금지하다
- (37) process 과정 vs. procedure 절차
- (42) street 거리 vs. road 도로
- (46) however 그러나 vs. nevertheless 그럼에도 불구하고
- (49) war 전쟁 vs. battle 전투

<Distracters (Either one is fine.)>

- (1) enormous = tremendous 엄청난
- (9) company = firm 회사
- (22) terms = conditions 조건
- (25) expert = specialist 전문가
- (32) persuade = convince 납득시키다

<Distracters (Neither one is fine.)>

- (12) notice 포착하다 v. notify 통지하다
- (17) accept 수락하다 v. adopt 채택하다
- (38) temporary v. tentative 임시의
- (40) appoint v. designate 임명하다
- (45) placate v. appease 달래다



**Appendix 2**

주어진 한국어 문장을 영어로 번역할 때 밑줄 친 한국어 표현에 적합한 영어 표현을 고르세요. 선택안 두 가지 중 하나만 맞거나, 둘 다 맞거나 둘 다 틀릴 수가 있습니다. 깊이 생각하지 말고 즉각 떠오르는 답을 고르세요. 각 문제에 대해 선택안 두 가지의 뜻이나 용법이 같거나 다르다는 사실을 배운 적이 있는지 여부를 “Yes ( ) No ( )”에 표시해 주세요.

1. 그들은 그 사업에 엄청난 양의 돈을 투자했다.  
They invested a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ amount of money in the project.  
① enormous ② tremendous ③ either one ④ neither one / Yes ( ) No ( )
2. 그들의 재정문제는 금리 상승으로 인해 더욱 악화되었다.  
Their financial problems were further \_\_\_\_\_ by a rise in interest rates.  
① aggravated ② deteriorated ③ either one ④ neither one / Yes ( ) No ( )
3. 부상 때문에 그 권투선수는 올림픽에 참가할 수 없었다.<sup>9)</sup>  
Due to his injury, the boxer could not (attend v. participate in) the Olympics.
4. 그는 재즈에 큰 관심을 가졌다.  
He took great (attention v. interest) in jazz.
5. 그 병은 그 지역 닭들 사이에서 급속히 번졌다.  
The (illness v. disease) quickly spread among chickens in the area.
6. 그는 운전이 능숙했기 때문에 나는 그의 차를 탈 때 그를 믿었다.  
He was good at driving, so I (trusted v. believed) him when I was riding his car.
7. 경찰은 그 자동차 사고의 원인을 조사하고 있다.  
The police are investigating the (cause v. reason) of the car accident.

---

9) For the sake of brevity, beginning with number 3, the two choices are placed in parentheses with each sentence. However, in the original questionnaire, the question format for all 50 sentences is as in number 1.

8. 반군들은 군인과 민간인 모두를 죽였다.  
The rebels killed both soldiers and (civilians v. citizens).
9. 그는 소프트웨어 회사에서 일하고 싶어 한다.  
He wants to work for a software (company v. firm).
10. 그녀는 밤에 과외를 함으로써 정규 급여를 보충한다.  
She (complements v. supplements) her regular salary by tutoring at night.
11. 그녀는 시험에 합격한 것에 대해 축하를 받았다.  
She was (celebrated v. congratulated) for passing the exam.
12. 그 선생님은 내일 새로운 수업 일정을 통지해줄 것이다.  
The teacher will (notice v. notify) a new class schedule.
13. 복지정책에 대해 열띤 논쟁이 진행 중이다.  
There is heated (debate v. dispute) over welfare policy.
14. 그는 사임 요구를 거절했다.  
He (refused v. rejected) calls for his resignation.
15. 나는 그가 무죄라는 것에 대해 의심하고 있다.  
I (suspect v. doubt) that he is innocent.
16. 이 전구는 기존의 것보다 에너지 면에서 더 효율적이다.  
This light bulb is more energy (effective v. efficient) than the existing ones.
17. 그는 자신이 유죄라고 인정했다.  
He (accepted v. adopted) that he was guilty.
18. 그들은 교육에 대한 정부 지출을 삭감하기로 결정했다.  
They decided to cut government (expenditure v. expense) on education.
19. 나는 컴퓨터를 수리하기 위해 많은 장비를 구입했다.  
I bought a lot of (equipment v. facilities) to repair my computer.

20. 그 시한부 환자는 결국에 사망할 것이다.  
The terminally ill patient will (eventually v. finally) die.
21. 나는 매우 긴장하고 있어서 거의 말을 할 수 없었다.  
I was so nervous that I could (hardly v. rarely) speak.
22. 그들은 그 계약의 조건에 대해 합의하지 못했다.  
They failed to agree on the (conditions v. terms) of the contract.
23. 그는 자동차 사고에서 심각하게 부상을 입었다.  
He was seriously (injured v. wounded) in a car accident.
24. 그 두 왕국은 오랫동안 서로 싸웠다.  
The two (dynasties v. kingdoms) fought each other for a long time.
25. 그는 컴퓨터 장비 전문가다.  
He is a(n) (expert v. specialist) in computer equipment.
26. 미국에는 주요 정당 두 개가 있다.  
There are two (major v. main) political parties in the U.S.
27. 그는 영문법을 가르치기 위한 효과적인 방법을 찾고 있다.  
He is looking for effective (methods v. means) for teaching English grammar.
28. 작년 그는 파산을 했다. 한편 그의 형은 번성하는 사업을 운영하고 있다.  
Last year, he went bankrupt. (On the other hand v. Meanwhile), his brother is running a thriving business.
29. 그와 결혼한 것은 그녀가 그 때까지 저질렀던 가장 큰 실수였다.  
Marrying him was the biggest (error v. mistake) she ever made.
30. 그는 내 조언을 무시하고 직장을 그만 두었다.  
He (ignored v. neglected) my advice and quit his job.
31. 그들은 환경오염에 대한 인식을 높이기 위해 노력했다.  
They tried to raise (awareness v. perception) about environmental pollution.

32. 그들은 대중에게 핵에너지가 안전하다는 것을 납득시켰다.  
They (persuaded v. convinced) the public that nuclear energy was safe.
33. 정부는 금융위기를 피하기 위해 조치를 취해야 한다.  
The government should take measures to (avoid v. evade) a financial crisis.
34. 그 세계선수권대회에는 선수들 약 200명이 참가했다.  
The world championship was attended by some 200 (athletes v. players).
35. 그들은 이 건물에서 흡연하는 것이 금지되어 있다.  
They are (prevented v. prohibited) from smoking in this building.
36. 그들은 범죄, 실업, 교육과 같은 문제에 대해 논의했다.  
They discussed (issues v. problems) like crime, unemployment and education.
37. 학교들은 교육위원회가 정한 징계 절차를 따라야 한다.  
The schools should follow the disciplinary (procedures v. processes) set by the education board.
38. 임시 정부가 다음 달에 수립될 것이다.  
A (temporary v. tentative) government will be set up next month.
39. 그녀는 그 추문과 관련 있는 한 남성을 인터뷰했다.  
She interviewed a man (related v. relevant) to the scandal.
40. 새 대통령이 다음 주에 선출될 것이다.  
A new president will be (appointed v. designated) next week.
41. 그는 법을 어겼고, 자신의 행동의 결과에 직면해야 한다.  
He broke the law, and he must face the (consequences v. results) of his actions.
42. 하루 종일 도로에는 교통량이 많았다.  
All day long, there was heavy traffic on the (road v. street).

43. 그가 경기에서 이길 것이라는 것은 확실하다.  
It is (certain v. sure) that he will win the game.
44. 그 후보는 많은 시민 단체들에게 지지를 받았다.  
The candidate was supported by many (civil v. civic) groups.
45. 그는 자신의 정책에 대한 반대를 달래려고 노력했다.  
He tried to (placate v. appease) criticism against his policy.
46. 어제 서울에는 폭우가 있었다. 그러나 내일은 맑은 날이 될 것이다.  
Yesterday, there was heavy rain in Seoul. (However v. Nevertheless), tomorrow we will have a sunny day.
47. 그는 몇몇 유럽 도시들에 대한 여행을 마쳤다.  
He completed his (trip v. tour) of several European cities.
48. 그는 유명한 대학에서 박사학위를 받았다.  
He took his doctor's degree in a famous (college v. university).
49. 치열한 전투 동안에 군인 천 명 이상이 사망했다.  
During the fierce (battle v. war), more than 1,000 soldiers were killed.
50. 그녀는 빨간 드레스를 입고 저녁 파티에 왔다.  
She came to the dinner party, (putting on v. wearing) a red dress.

[Abstract]

### Translation Errors Caused by Lexical Transfer

Chung, Younghan  
(Seoul Women's University)

When Korean ESL (English as a Second Language) students translate a Korean sentence into English, they often make errors. A common cause of the errors is the same-translation effect. The present study examined to what degree the same-translation effect could lead to errors in Korean-to-English translation. For the experiment, 20 pairs of semantically related English words with the same Korean translation, and another 20 pairs with different Korean translations were prepared. Sixty students were given translation tests with the 40 pairs. Comparing the success rates of translation in each of the same-translation and different-translation sets, the present study found that more errors were committed in the same-translation set than in the different-translation set, and that the difference was statistically significant. In the experiment, it was statistically proved that instruction could reduce errors in both sets, but by a greater margin in the case of the same-translation set than in the different-translation set. At the end of the present study, three ways to reduce the same-translation effect were offered. Firstly, by referring to English dictionaries, Korean ESL students should learn how two or more words with a similar meaning are different in meaning and usage. Secondly, in studying English words that have the same Korean translation, they should study their syntax, collocation, and association, as well as their morphophonology and semantics. Finally, teachers should provide appropriate instruction on English words that are semantically related but have different meanings or usage.

▶ Key Words: the same-translation effect, semantically related words, same-translation set, different-translation set, instruction

정영한

서울여자대학교 교양학부 조교수

meliorvie@hanmail.net

관심분야: 의미론, 화용론, 통번역

논문투고일: 2012년 10월 31일

심사완료일: 2012년 11월 26일

게재확정일: 2012년 12월 14일