



The Study of Language Transfer in EFL Students' Translation Work

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Abstract: Speakers of several native languages now use English as their common language. However, English learners struggle to understand the language, especially when it differs from their mother tongues. We can draw a connection between the aforementioned statement and how accurate language shift requires a solid understanding of English to understand translation. As a result, the study titled "The Study of Language Transfer in EFL Students' Translation Work" was considered. It is crucial to understand that language transfer is the main mechanism through which languages change from the source to the target language when we examine translation. A transfer is an effect brought about by the parallels and discrepancies between the target language and any other language that has already (and possibly inadequately) been learned, according to Odlin (1989: 27). During the process of learning a second language, language transfer is one of the strategies students use to communicate in that language, both consciously and unconsciously. This issue generally arises when learners are unsure about how to properly express themselves, and it may lead to grammatical errors because the two languages' rules do not coincide. Learners' utterances display various types and frequencies of language transfer (L2)

depending on their first language (L1) and level of proficiency in the second language (L2). According to Wanderley & Demmans (2020), proficiency raises a learner's awareness of L2 rules and their application. A learner who is less skilled will employ a transfer more frequently.

Keywords: english, error analysis, language transfer, negative transfer, translation

Introduction

English has developed into a language that people who speak diverse native languages use interchangeably (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000). It should not be surprising considering its popularity and usefulness that English is utilized in the majority of online content, business transactions, and cross-border talks, all of which pique people's interest in learning the language (Hu, 2019; A. L. Jiang, 2019; L. Jiang, 2019; Kaharuddin, 2022; Kanoksilapatham, 2018; Kohnke, 2021; Mavilidi, 2018; Meyerhöffer, 2019; Roudlotun Nurul Laili, 2021; Sag, 2020; Sato, 2019). In spite of this, English learners struggle to acquire the language, particularly when it differs from their mother tongues (Wanderley & Demmans, 2020). We can draw a connection between the aforementioned claim and how effectively executing the language change process necessitates a good understanding of English. It is crucial to understand that language transfer is the main mechanism through which languages change from the source to the target language when we examine translation. Transfer is the effect brought about by the parallels and discrepancies between the target language and any other language that has already (and possibly inadequately) been learned, according to Odlin (1989). The inclusion of the phrase "any other language" was deliberate because it is typical for people to learn not just a second language (L2) but also a third language (L3). As will be shown, crosslinguistic influence (transfer) can manifest itself in a variety of ways even when there are only two languages involved. Furthermore, L1 can influence L2 and vice versa.

In the course of learning a second language, language transfer is one strategy that students use to communicate, both consciously and unconsciously (Costa, 2019; Culpeper, 2018; Elgort, 2018; Gustiningsi, 2022; Hyland, 2019; Mishra, 2022; Norhana Bt Mohamad Saad, 2022; Teimouri, 2019, 2022; Teng, 2018, 2020; Tsai, 2018; Wang, 2021). This issue generally arises when students are unsure about how to properly express themselves, and it may lead to grammatical errors because the two languages' rules do not coincide. In their study, Gass & Selinker (1992) recommended that when examining how a native language affects the learning of a second language, all interactions between linguistic background and response-curve shapes be taken into consideration. This issue raises more questions about how the language transfer procedure will truly impact the written translation as the languages are changed. Professionals in this field frequently translate into their native tongues, which is also the case during training sessions, so it is necessary to have a certain level of proficiency in the target language in addition to having some knowledge of one's own language. As soon as they start their studies, students should be expected to translate more easily from another language to their own (Erton & Tanbi, 2016). The use of the proper language in a translator's work helps communication, which, if hampered, is likely to render it ineffective. From this perspective, being fluent in both the source and target languages is essential since good translation requires comprehension and significant linguistic expertise. When translating, target audiences should be taken into account; for example, if a recipe book is aimed at youngsters, the language must be adjusted. This necessitates linguistic modifications at contrast with the original, including changing certain grammatical

constructions and vocabulary. Since children don't always have the same degree of language proficiency, text modification is crucial.

We also need to evaluate the writer's skills because translation work is often done in writing. The ability to write academically in English is regarded as a prerequisite for higher education. Grammar, structure, and content errors are, nonetheless, regularly seen in student writing due to a variety of factors. First of all, a greater level of writing proficiency is required in order to pass academic writing courses. Additionally, this is due to the fact that there aren't many chances to put this aptitude to use in a real-world situation (Sangeetha, 2020).

Methodology

The article used a qualitative research method with a specific type of library research. This study will examine at how the nature of language transfer process works and why should we be aware of it. The information was gathered from a number of related and relevant journals and books given after the title.

Result and Discussion

a. Language Transfer

When creating utterances in the new language they are learning, learners typically refer to the grammatical structures of their native tongues for guidance. This phenomenon is known as language transmission and it happens at all linguistic levels (Selinker, 1969). Learners' utterances display various kinds and frequencies of language transfer (L2) depending on their proficiency in the second language (L2) and first language (L1). A learner's understanding of L2 rules and ability to use them improves with competency, claim Wanderley & Demmans (2020). A less skilled learner will employ a transfer more frequently. The type of observed transfer—whether positive or negative—depends on how much L1 and L2 regulations overlap. If the rules of the L2 are used when the grammatical rules of the L1 and L2 do not coincide, the transferred language structure may lead to an incoherent utterance. It's characterized as negative language transfer when learners must rely on their L1s because the L2 lacks metalinguistic understanding. We can fairly presume that the grammar is the system of symbols—linguistic representations—that the speaker uses to control both understanding and production. To understand the relationship between linguistic representation and language processing, there may be more than one approach. The sort of transfer observed—positive or negative—will depend on how much L1 and L2 rules overlap. If the L2 rules apply but the L1 norms do not, the transferred language structure can result in an incoherent utterance. The negative language transfer effect is when there is a lack of metalinguistic awareness in the L2, which forces learners to rely on their L1s (Wanderley & Demmans, 2020).

b. Translation

The English term translation, which first appears in writing about the year 1340, is derived from the Latin *translatio* ('transporting,' which itself comes from the participle of the verb *transferre* ('to carry across')). The English term translation, which first appears in writing about the year 1340, is derived from the Latin *translatio* ('transporting,' which itself comes from the participle of the verb *transferre* ('to carry across')). An original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) is converted into an original written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL) during the translation process between two different written languages. The classic ST-TT configuration is the most representative of "interlingual translation," one of the three kinds of translation outlined by the Russo-American structuralist Roman Jakobson (1896-1982) in his key study "On linguistic aspects of translation." The categories defined by Jakobson are: (1) Intralingual Translation; (2) Interlingual Translation; and (3) Intersemiotic Translation. These ideas are founded on semiotics, a broad field of study that examines human communication through signals and sign systems, of which language is only one (Cobley 2001; Malmkjaer 2011). The term semiotics is used in this situation since translation is not necessarily limited to vocal languages. Intersemiotic translation, for instance, occurs when written text is converted into another form of expression, such as music, cinema, or visual art. Intralingual translation occurs when we summarize or otherwise modify a text in the same language, such as an encyclopedia for young readers. It also occurs when we restate something in the same words. In the example that follows, the first part of the sentence, "Revenue nearly tripled," is an example of intralingual translation.

It is claimed that "a translation is something that has to be discussed" based on Newmark's (2003) *Textbook of Translations*. To help translators, this translation theory was created. The method of translation must be "natural" when the text's main purpose is to educate and persuade the reader; however, the method of translation must be "artificial" when the text is an expression of the author's unique, creative (or cliched), and authoritative style (whether it be a lyric, a prime minister's speech, or a legal document). He goes into great detail regarding the nature of "naturalness," which is a breakpoint throughout all levels of texts, from paragraphs to words, from titles to punctuation, in his explanation of the concept of translating. Sandra Halverson (1999) asserts that it is more useful to think of translation as a prototype classification, in which there are some essential qualities that distinguish a prototypical translation from other, more ad hoc, translational forms.

The study of classical Greek and Latin, as well as biblical practice, served as the initial inspiration for a considerable chunk of translation theory that, until recently, was also created from a western perspective. The goal of maintaining close lexical fidelity to an original may not be shared, at least in the practice of translating sacred and literary texts, according to Maria Tymoczko (2005, 2006, 2007: 68–77), who discusses the very different terms and metaphors used to describe "translation" in other cultures. Each sees translation differently and anticipates that the target text will differ significantly from the source text in terms of form.

Translation exercises were considered a technique to learn a new language or read a work in a foreign language before one had the linguistic skills to read the original (Cook, 2010). In agreement with the above remark, Bassnett (2013) noted that all the elements in the (original source) translation could be lost if the reading does not fully evaluate the work's whole structure and its relationship to the time and place of its production. Writing and reading have a lot in common. Numerous research have shown how reading comprehension significantly contributes to writing abilities. Reading enables us to decipher the content's meaning. Unquestionably, it is a meaning-making action. Along with the written content, the reader is also given the context. Reading also has the characteristic of involving plans and goals. A text can have several purposes. On the other hand, a reader has a goal. A text that serves the reader's intended purpose will be read. As a result, a reader should come up with some actionable ideas while reading (Fatkurochman, 2019).

c. Source Language Interference

Although source language interference or transfer has been the subject of numerous investigations, no comprehensive or definitive definition of the phenomena is available. U. Weinreich proposed that interference might manifest itself in several ways in 1953. Learning a foreign language is most usually associated with linguistic interruption. Such interference has been thoroughly studied. However, the current study takes a more comprehensive approach to language interference, defining it as a phenomena that impacts both legal translation and interlanguage communication. The under-publicized nature of this exploratory viewpoint confirms the study's originality.

Language interference creates positive transfer when a pertinent feature in both languages is the same, while being thought of as a potential cause of errors (negative transfer) (Krashen, 1981). An examination of the primary study material reveals several instances of semantic, grammatical, lexical, phraseological, syntactic, and pragmatic language transfer.

1. Semantic interference is brought on by the target and source lexical units' approximate equivalent interpretation overlap (Thorovsky, 2009). The transmission of a "sema," or unity of meaning, occurs when something is semantically borrowed. The translator typically ignores context that would disclose a new interpretation of the phrase in light of another context and instead relies only on the dictionary's first definition or his or her own current understanding (Cruse, 2004).
2. When a translator disregards the differences in grammar structures between two languages or the potential repercussions of the norms of the original language, grammatical interference occurs. Grammatical interference is more usually associated with a destination text's poor quality compared to other types of transfer. Grammatical mistakes indicate that the text is a translation, even though they rarely make understanding difficult. Due to the ease with which the flaws may be found and identified, this type of interference is easily avoidable. Therefore, the final reading of the translation must be treated with care.

3. At the word level, lexical interference takes place. It mostly comprises of situations where a concept was accidentally or poorly translated straight. Researchers and academicians agree that this specific type of interference is one of the most visible (Debyser, 1982; Thorovsky, 2009). There are many different causes of lexical interference.
4. Phraseological interference is frequently seen as a borrowed translation. Phraseological loan translations utilize a collection of words or a phrase, much like lexical loan translations do. Loan translations imply a change in substance. The distinctions between phraseological borrowing and other groups (such as lexical loan translation, syntactic borrowing, and pragmatic interference) are particularly fuzzy (Deroy, 1956; Humbley, 1974).
5. The literal translation of all or a specific section of a syntactic structure is known as syntactic interference. Syntactic interference is a common occurrence in translations and the hardest to avoid. The quality of TT is reduced because translators must give up the explicit phrasing of the source in order to learn how to reformulate words in accordance with the rules of the target language. It calls for substantial training and knowledge. Pragmatic interference is challenging to describe because each of the term's constituent parts has been used with different meanings or with similar meanings but under different names (Paradis, 1998).
6. The pragmatic transfer is the projection of speakers' existing knowledge of native language use and interaction patterns to analogous communicative settings in the target language culture. The most destructive type of pragmatic interference in legal translation is when it diverts the reader from the purpose and content of the relevant legal topic and obstructs legal communication (Odlin 1989; Llórente 1980; Kasper 1992; Riley 1989). The aforementioned facets of the interference theory were taken into account when creating the technique and executing the research.

Language interference occurs frequently when translating the official multilingual discourse on children's rights into the mother tongue. In addition, interference or language transfer frequently results in inaccuracies at various linguistic levels and cognitive errors that make it difficult to understand the original concepts because they do not correspond to the legal context in the final text (Stepanova, 2019).

Conclusion

The manner in which English is taught to university students—particularly the teaching of translation writing—must be considered. Numerous studies have found substantial inaccuracies in translation from English to Indonesia and vice versa, certainly more than the author had anticipated. Therefore, teaching translation writing must be done in conjunction with teaching other English skills, especially the proper way to develop a suitable framework in translation works. Additionally, students should be taught how to spot and fix errors in translation writing. It is suggested that teachers place a greater emphasis on teaching error analysis in translation writing and second language acquisition, particularly the category of faults they may fall into because of how cunning it can

occasionally be. By comprehending them, pupils' knowledge of translating texts accurately may increase, and it would be nice if they could avoid making the same error again.

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