LEXICAL PSEUDO-EQUIVALENTS IN ENGLISH-LITHUANIAN LEGAL VOCABULARY

FINAL THESIS

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Šiauliai, 2015
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INTRODUCTION

The world is developing fast and there is an increasing need of learning foreign languages. Translators must know the target language almost as well as their own in order to produce a perfect translation. Even though knowing most of the words and phrases is a big advantage, there are some words which can cause many problems even for a translator with much practice. Such words are called lexical “pseudo-equivalents”, “faux amis” or more colloquially “interpreter’s false friends”.

Many linguists, such as Dominguez (2002), Nerlich (2002), Stankevičienė (2005), Pažūsis (2014) and others have studied the field of pseudo-equivalence and the process still continues. Baker (1992:22) states: “False friends are words or expressions which have the same form in two or more languages but convey different meanings. They are often associated with historically or culturally related languages.” This paper will focus on English and Lithuanian languages.

When a part of speech (word, sentence, expression) is brought into another language, it is hard to guess the possible changes it can obtain in the process (e.g. a word can get some other meanings). There are “false friends” which are very difficult to identify because they carry almost the same meaning in two languages. On the other hand, some pseudo-equivalents are easy to find because their meanings differ a lot.

The subject of the paper is English-Lithuanian lexical pseudo-equivalents, found in the legal dictionary Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas (letters G-J) and in the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas1.

The aim is to find and analyze English-Lithuanian lexical pseudo-equivalents, found in the legal dictionary Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas (letters G-J) and in the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas.

To achieve the aim of this paper the following objectives have been set:

1. To reveal the concept of pseudo-equivalence
2. To present different classifications of pseudo-equivalents
3. To present the peculiarities of the legal texts

1http://www.zodziai.lt/
4. To select and explain examples of lexical pseudo-equivalents, found in the legal
dictionary *Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas* (letters G-J) and the online
international dictionary of the Lithuanian language *Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas*.

**Research methods** applied for this paper are as follows:

1. Sampling method has been used to select the examples from both English version of
the legal dictionary and their translations into Lithuanian.
2. Contrastive method has been used to compare the source text with the target text in
order to identify lexical pseudo-equivalents used in the translations.
3. Descriptive method has been used for providing commentaries after the examples.
4. Statistical method has been used in order to systemize the empirical data of this
research.

The **main sources** of this work are the legal dictionary *Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas*
(letters G-J) and the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language *Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas*.

The **scope** of this paper is 58 examples which have been taken from the legal dictionary
*Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas* (letters G-J) and the online international dictionary of the
Lithuanian language *Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas*.

The **structure** of this work consists of major parts: an introduction, a theoretical part, an
empirical part, conclusions and references. Introduction presents the subject, the aim, the
objectives, the methods, the scope and the structure of the paper. The theoretical part defines
pseudo-equivalence in translation, its classification, and the peculiarities of legal texts. Empirical
part deals with the selected examples. In the conclusions the objectives of the paper are discussed
and results are interpreted.

The following abbreviations will be used in order to avoid long wording:

ALKTŽ – Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas

TTŽ – Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas
1. THE CONCEPT OF LEXICAL PSEUDO-EQUIVALENCE

Lexical pseudo-equivalents have been analyzed for many years already and as Stankevičienė (2003:175) claims “they are as old as the languages themselves: they have always been there, either as a result of meaning divergence of cognate words or an indirect borrowing through intermediary languages”. We almost never notice such words unless we start to analyze the language, oral or written.

Dominguez and Nerlich (2002:1834) define lexical pseudo-equivalents as “words that seem to be the same, or at least very similar, in form and meaning, but, in reality, are not”. Stankevičienė (2001:65) gives a very similar description saying that these words are “lexical units identical or similar in form (spelling and/or pronunciation) but different in meaning”. Another definition by Veisbergs (1994:7) is: “False friends or false cognates are word pairs in both languages that have similar spelling and pronunciation but different meaning. False friends are almost always semantically and etymologically connected, which makes their differentiation more difficult and increases the possibility of mistakes in their usage.” Pažūsis (2014:21) defines the concept similarly as well: “false friends or deceptive cognates, i.e. words existing in two languages, are similar in their form, but differ in their meaning, and frequently mislead a translator because of their graphic and phonetic similarity”. Such words are very ubiquitous, thus creating a dangerous situation for a translator who is required to do a thorough analysis of all vague words before even starting the translation.

One more linguist Sheen (1995:1) claims: “Faux amis are words in the target language which because of their similar forms to words in the L1, lead students to believe they have the same meaning.” This definition is from the article about languages, that is why it talks about students. But, unfortunately, not only students, but also people from everyday life and especially translators and interpreters frequently encounter the problem of lexical pseudo-equivalence.

While talking with a foreigner or translating a text, a person should listen carefully and be aware that some words may sound similar to the ones in our language, but they do not mean the same. Translations of pseudo-equivalents may cause some vagueness for the reader, especially if the translation is poor. Such words lead to misunderstandings and other issues. Dominguez and Nerlich (2002:1837) state as well that “mistakes, misunderstandings, and the humorous exploitation of false friends are ubiquitous when learning a second language”. Most often pseudo-equivalents are loan words (internationalisms are included as well). Thus, to avoid bad
translation, we should use the variety of dictionaries, allowing us to check the meanings of words.

Pažūsis (2014:25-28) points out a few different areas where a translator is most likely to misunderstand a word or phrase and translate it by employing false friends: translation of mystery novels, architecture, music world, etc. The author also claims that false friends may encourage a translator to employ an anachronistic equivalent, i.e. a word not corresponding with the historical time being described. That is why before rendering a text a translator should take an interest in the field the text is concerned with.

The growing reckless use of pseudo-equivalents in the last decades shows a strong tendency to expand the meanings of loan words, especially internationalisms, and use them in these additional meanings (mostly similar to these which a word carries in its original language). Often additional meanings are not recorded in the dictionaries but are so widely used and recognized, that they become a part of our language and a translator sometimes does not even think about checking the actual meanings of such words.

According to Pažūsis (2014:31), the phonic and graphic similarity of words existing in two languages is like a trap or pitfall for a translator, reminding him/her not to rely on such similarity and to be very attentive.

Dominguez and Nerlich (2002:1847-1848) identify the fields in which the thorough analysis of false friends is very important:

- translation studies (as pseudo-equivalents probably cause the biggest issues for translators);
- language teaching (the knowledge of various aspects of both native and foreign languages is significant in order to teach students to be aware of false friends in each situation);
- analysis of the various ways in which people of different languages comprehend the real world employing words or phrases that had the same meaning years ago;
- analysis of the different figurative networks and chains which speakers of different languages use to comprehend the real world;
- pragmatics of cross-linguistic understanding and misunderstanding.

We see that the right interpretation of false friends is essential in almost all spheres of life connected with one or another language. It is very significant to learn, teach or speak a foreign
language with an awareness that pseudo-equivalents can be met everywhere and we have to recognize them.

To sum up, a translator should take into account many factors: the time (or era) of the text being written, the possibility that words may have a different meaning, no matter how similar they look or sound, the fact that words which we hear in everyday language may not be originally from our language and may only be derivatives from the foreign language words, and the need of attentiveness when rendering or reading a text.
2. CLASSIFICATION OF PSEUDO-EQUIVALENTS

There are a few kinds of classification of false friends. The most abstract is presented by Sheen (1995:2) who claims that pseudo-equivalents can be of two kinds: grammatical and lexical. In this work we will focus on lexical ones.

Dominguez and Nerlich (2002:1836) point out two more kinds: chance false friends and semantic false friends. They explain: “Chance false friends are those words that are similar or equivalent (graphically and/or phonetically) in two or more given languages, but without there being any semantic or etymological reason for this overlap. <…> Semantic false friends, by contrast, are words that are graphically and/or phonetically similar in various languages, but their meanings have diverged.” Semantic false friends, the same like lexical false friends, can be further divided into: full false friends (meanings of such words are totally different in various languages) and partial false friends (words that have few meanings but only some of them are the same in different languages).

Sheen (1995:2) divides lexical false friends into the same two groups like the previous authors:

- **Absolute** lexical pseudo-equivalents – words that do not share any meaning.
- **Partial** lexical pseudo-equivalents – words that have one or a few different and one or few common meanings.

In the case of the English-Lithuanian languages, partial lexical pseudo equivalents can be further subdivided into separate groups. According to Stankevičienė (2005) there are three groups: 1. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous; 2. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous; 3. words in the pair share some meanings and have a number of different meanings. The relationship between English and Lithuanian partial lexical pseudo-equivalents is visualized in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. The relationship between English and Lithuanian pseudo-equivalents.](Stankevičienė, 2005:527)
One of the sources of absolute/full or partial false friends is borrowings. According to Dominguez and Nerlich (2002:1844), it can occur in three ways: “1. in the target language borrowed words can be restricted to only one of the various, possible meanings of a polysemous word in the source language; 2. the borrowed words can develop polysemies which were absent in the original language; 3. the meaning of borrowed words can deviate from the meaning (or meanings) of the source language because they have been used figuratively.” Borrowings take a rather big place in our language. Some became a part of our speech and we do not even think about them, others we use when we want to sound more scientific, and sometimes, when we do not know the right translation but have a similarly sounding word in our own language, we automatically adopt it without realizing the difference of meanings.

According to Stankevičienė (2005:523), lexical pseudo-equivalents can be classified regarding their formal or external similarity:

1. Word-pairs with a similar or identical root morpheme (*appellation – apeliacija, pasta – pasta*).

2. Words having the same or similar root morpheme and affixes which are understood as regular correspondences in both languages (*detective – detektyvas, dislocation – dislokuoti*).

3. More divergent pairs, having a little different spelling and/or pronunciation, which can still be considered analogous because of their semantic similarity (*paper – popierius, powder – pudra*).

The previous classification is very explicit and uncomplicated. After a translator selected all lexical pseudo-equivalents, indicated by grammatical differences between word-pairs, he/she may continue the analysis and employ other classifications for a further examination.

Classification of false friends is not extensive. The most important for the translator is to recognize all pseudo-equivalents in the text and to translate them in a right way. In order to do this, the main task of the translator is to choose the best bilingual or monolingual dictionaries in order to get all possible meanings and to compare them in both languages. Only a thorough and attentive analysis of the text and all the items in it can ensure a good translation.
3. TRANSLATION OF LEGAL TEXTS

The world is constantly changing and international economic and political relations are developing as well. According to Janulevičienė and Liuolienė (2006), law is quickly penetrating into our lives and even personal relationships, which is why we need to use special legal terms almost every day. Therefore, the need of translating legal texts has increased. It is more complicated than translation of literary or technical texts, because each country has specific laws and a specific legal vocabulary. To ease the translation process there are many bilingual law dictionaries which contain equivalent terms in a target language.

Another challenge for a translator is that many legal terms belong to the category of "culture bound-terms", and as Janulevičienė and Rackevičienė (2011:1074) claim, they “do not have straightforward equivalents in a target language, therefore, their translation poses special challenges to the dictionary compilers”. There are translation strategies used for the translation of legal terms and they also help a translator to do his job easier, faster and more systematically.

Authors (Ibid, 1076) reveal one more obstacle for a fluent translation process, pointing out that the legal language is “very much a system-bound language”. Every country has a particular legal lexicon which is created depending on the legal system of the country, its culture, history, political and economical status. No matter how many countries would have the same language, there would always be differences in their legal system and lexicon as well.

Legal terms are recorded in various documents of the national legal system. The meaning of each term and its function is fixed. Therefore, Janulevičienė and Rackevičienė (2011:1076) quoting Walker (2001) claims that “a legal term may be defined as a title given to a set of facts and circumstances which satisfies certain legal requirements and has certain legal consequences”. From this we can comprehend that even the same term in two different countries may differ in its semantic structure. There may be terms which have the same function in two or more different legal systems, but that does not mean that the terms are absolutely equivalent. Moreover, the difference between most technical or natural history terms and legal terms is that the latter defines not the particular objects but abstract concepts.

The challenges for a good translation, mentioned above, can cause serious problems. Accuracy is one of the most important features in legal texts and there cannot be any ambiguities or obscurities. Before starting a translation process of a legal document, a translator should analyse both source and target legal systems.
4. THE EMPIRICAL PART OF THE RESEARCH

4.1. Methodological assumptions

After a thorough presentation of the theoretical part and before presenting the empirical part with the analysis of lexical pseudo-equivalents found in the legal dictionary (letters G-J), it is necessary to discuss the methods of the present research.

The empirical research is based on the examples selected from the legal dictionary *Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas* (letters G-J) and their lexical pseudo-equivalents from the online international dictionary *Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas*.

Firstly, the part (letters G-J) of the above mentioned legal dictionary was thoroughly analysed, taking all English terms which may have Lithuanian pseudo-equivalents. *Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas* was used in order to check the meanings of the corresponding words in Lithuanian language and to find Lithuanian lexical pseudo-equivalents of the selected examples. The sampling method has been used for selecting the examples. The contrastive method has been employed to compare the English terms with the Lithuanian terms in order to identify lexical pseudo-equivalents.

Secondly, the classification proposed by Sheen (1995) has been selected. For grouping partial pseudo-equivalents Stankevičienė’s (2005) classification was adopted as well. The examples found were classified into absolute lexical pseudo-equivalents and partial lexical pseudo-equivalents. Partial lexical pseudo-equivalents were further subdivided into three groups.

All in all 58 examples were collected, 20 whereof provided in the appendix of the work. As mentioned above, the examples were grouped according to the Sheen’s (1995) classification: 1. absolute lexical pseudo-equivalents (29 examples); 2. partial lexical pseudo-equivalents (29 examples). Types of partial lexical pseudo-equivalents by Stankevičienė (2005) were identified: 1. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous (14 examples); 2. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous (5 examples); 3. words in the pair share some meanings and have a number of different meanings (10 examples). Descriptive analysis was used for providing a comment after each example.

Thirdly, the statistical method has been used in order to systemize the empirical data of this research. The statistical data has been graphically prepared using MS excel program. The statistics of Sheen’s (1995) classification is shown in the Figure 2. and the statistics of the three...
types of partial lexical pseudo-equivalents, provided by Stankevičienė (2005), is shown in the Figure 3.

Having observed the methodology of the study, the following section will investigate English and Lithuanian lexical pseudo-equivalents.

### 4.2. Absolute lexical pseudo-equivalents

The selected word pairs of English and Lithuanian languages do not have any common meaning but are very similar phonetically and graphically, i.e. have a very similar spelling and/or pronunciation. All in all 29 examples were found. These are the following:

1) **Game** (ALKTŽ, 1998:201)

   **Geimas** (TŽŽ)

   According to the ALKTŽ word *game* has two meanings: “a risky game (negatively)” or “birds and animals being hunted”. The Lithuanian word *geimas* means “one part of the tennis game” and has no connection with the two previous meanings.

2) **Grand** (ALKTŽ, 1998:205)

   **Grandas** (TŽŽ)

   In the legal dictionary the word *grand* refers to “great” while the Lithuanian word *grandas* has a totally different meaning and stands for “a title for a great landlord or priest (in Spain) or “a person having this title”.

3) **Ground** (ALKTŽ, 1998:206)

   **Groundas** (TŽŽ)

   The English word *ground* has a few meanings, such as “the solid surface of the earth” or “a cause, reason”. Lithuanian word *groundas*, on the other hand, means “basso ostinato” or “a musical work, based on the basso ostinato” and both meanings are related only to music.

4) **Guerilla** (ALKTŽ, 1998:207)

   **Gorila** (TŽŽ)

   The English word *guerilla* stands for “a member of an irregular armed force” while the Lithuanian word *gorilla* means “a robber, murderer” and has one more meaning “the largest primate (ape)”.

5) **Grace** (ALKTŽ, 1998:204)

   **Gracija** (TŽŽ)
The law dictionary gives three explanations of the word *grace*: “favour, mercy”, “a permission to perform something later” and “Serenity” (a name for a metropolitan or a duke). The Lithuanian word has three meanings as well, but all of them are totally different: “beauty or charm of movement, form”, “a feminine elastic basque” and “a charming woman”.

6) *Guild* (ALKTŽ, 1998:207)

**Gildija** (TŽŽ)

According to the ALKTŽ, *guild* is “an association of people of the same profession”, but the Lithuanian word *gildija* has a very specific meaning and refers to “an association of merchants in medieval times”.

7) *Habit* (ALKTŽ, 1998:208)

**Habitas** (TŽŽ)

The English word *habit* means “a pattern of behaviour”. The Lithuanian word *habitas* has an absolutely distinct meaning and refers to “looks, exterior (of a person, animal, plant, etc.)”.


**Harmonizacija** (TŽŽ)

Even though both words seem very similar phonetically and graphically, they carry a different meaning. The English word *harmonization* means “an adjustment, equalization” and the Lithuanian word *harmonizacija* refers to “providing harmony for a melody” and is related only to music.

9) *Hawk* (ALKTŽ, 1998:210)

**Hokus** (TŽŽ)

The legal dictionary provides such meanings for the word *hawk*: “to sell goods in the street” or “to go to people’s houses to offer goods”. Lithuanian term *hokus* has an absolutely different meaning and refers to “Japanese poetry”.


**Holdas** (TŽŽ)

The English word *hold* has many meanings, such as “to have, to own”, “to organize” or “to keep someone arrested”. Lithuanian word *holdas* has a different meaning and refers to “land area measurement unit (used in Hungary)”.


**Holografija** (TŽŽ)
Both words look very similar but they carry a different meaning. The English word *holograph* means “a method of producing a three-dimensional image of an object”, while the Lithuanian term *holografija* stands for “a handwritten document”.  

12) **Impose** (ALKTŽ, 1998:221)  
**Impostas** (TŽŽ)

The English word *impose* stands for “to establish or apply something as compulsory, to inflict (a penalty)” and “to take advantage of a person”. The Lithuanian word *impostas* has two distinct meanings and refers to “a special stone block (in architecture)” and “transom-bar (construction)”.

13) **Indenture** (ALKTŽ, 1998:227)  
**Indentorius** (TŽŽ)

Even though the two words look very similar, the meanings they carry are distinct. The English word *indenture* means “a contract or agreement between two or more parties” and “a contract between an apprentice and his master”. The Lithuanian term *indentorius*, on the other hand, means “a solid body (physics)”.

14) **Indicative** (ALKTŽ, 1998:228)  
**Indikatyvas** (TŽŽ)

The English word *indicative* stands for “suggestive” and “pointing out”, while the Lithuanian term *indikatyvas* has an absolutely distinct meaning “a verb in the indicative mood”.

15) **Indict** (ALKTŽ, 1998:228)  
**Indiktas** (TŽŽ)

The English term *indict* means “to charge with a crime” and “to commit a defendant for trial”. However, the Lithuanian term *indiktas* refers to “a special period of fifteen years Ancient Rome” and “a time calculation cycle of fifteen years in Byzantine Empire”.

16) **Infant** (ALKTŽ, 1998:229)  
**Infantas** (TŽŽ)

The meanings these two words carry are absolutely distinct. The English word *infantas* means “a baby” or “a person under the age of majority”, while the Lithuanian term *infantas* stands for “a title of a princess or a prince in Spain, Brazil and Portugal”.

17) **Inhibit** (ALKTŽ, 1998:231)  
**Inhibicija** (TŽŽ)
The English word *inhibit* stands for “a prohibition, bar”, while the Lithuanian term *inhibicija* is related only to chemistry and means “the moderation or suspension of chemical processes using inhibitors”.

18) **Initiation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:232)

*Iniciacija* (TŽŽ)

The English term *initiation* refers to “the act of starting something”. The Lithuanian word *iniciacija*, on the other hand, has a few different meanings: “a ceremony or ritual of turning from a youngster to a man”, “a ceremony initiating new members into a secret denomination”, and “stimulation of the chemical process”.

19) **Inquisition** (ALKTŽ, 1998:234)

*Ikvizicija* (TŽŽ)

The English word *inquisition* means “investigation” or “conclusion of an investigation”, while the Lithuanian word *inkvizicija* carries a different meaning and stands for “a legal political institution founded to suppress heresy” and “a cruel torture”.

20) **Inquisitor** (ALKTŽ, 1998:234)

*Inkvizitorius* (TŽŽ)

This example is very similar to the previous one (19). The English word *inquisitor* means “an investigator” while the Lithuanian term *inkvizitorius* refers to “a member of the inquisition trial” and “a cruel man, torturer”.

4.3. **Partial lexical pseudo-equivalents**

The selected word pairs of English and Lithuanian languages share some meaning. All in all 29 examples were found and will be subdivided into three groups: 1. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous; 2. words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous; 3. words in the pair share some meanings and have a number of different meanings.

1. Words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous:

21) **Generate** (ALKTŽ, 1998:201)

*Generuoti* (TŽŽ)
The pair of words share two meanings: “to give rise to” and “to create”. However, the English word *generate* also means “to bring, give”. The Lithuanian word has one meaning and the English word has two, i.e. is more polysemous.

22) *Genetics* (ALKTŽ, 1998:202)

*Genetika* (TŽŽ)

The pair of words share the meaning “the study of heredity and the variation of inherited properties” but the English word has one more meaning “the genetic properties or features of an organism, characteristics, etc.” Lithuanian word *genetika* has no other meanings.


*Gidas* (TŽŽ)

Both words refer to “a person who shows tourists around the places of interest” and “a book, document or display providing the information on a subject or about the place”. However, the English word *guide* has a few more meanings: “a member of a Guide Association” and “a person who advises others, especially in matters of behaviour or belief”. Lithuanian term *gidas* has no other meanings.


*Giljotina* (TŽŽ)

The pair of words share one meaning and refers to “a device to behead a person”, while the English word *guillotine* also means “a suggestion to the House of Commons to finish a discussion till the time fixed”. Lithuanian word *giljotina* has no other meanings.


*Implicitinis* (TŽŽ)

Both words refer to “something implied, but not directly expressed”, while the law dictionary provides one more meaning for the English word *implicit*, which is “absolute, undoubted”. Lithuanian term *implicitinis* has no other meanings.

26) *Impression* (ALKTŽ, 1998:222)

*Impresija* (TŽŽ)

Both words stand for “a strong effect or image produced in the mind”. However, the English word *impression* has one more meaning and means “an imprint, stamp”. Lithuanian term *impresija* has no other meanings.


*Inkorporuoti* (TŽŽ)
The pair of words shares one meaning and stands for “to combine, to merge”, while the English word *incorporate* also means “to establish and register a company”. Lithuanian term *inkorporuoti* has no other meanings.

28) **Inform** (ALKTŽ, 1998:230)

*Informuoti* (TŽŽ)

Both words mean “to give information, to tell”. The English term *inform* also stands for “to report someone (e.g., to the police)” while the Lithuanian term *informuoti* has no other meanings.

29) **Information** (ALKTŽ, 1998:230)

*Informacija* (TŽŽ)

The pair of words share one most common meaning “knowledge or facts learned”. The English term *information* is more polysemous and has a few more meanings: “computer data, records” and “a decision to prosecute a person”. The Lithuanian word *informacija* has no other meanings.

2. Words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous:

30) **Hierarchy** (ALKTŽ, 1998:2012)

*Hierarchija* (TŽŽ)

Both English and Lithuanian terms refer to “a group of people who form an ascending chain of power or authority”, but the Lithuanian word *hierarchija* has one more meaning and stands for “multi-stage structure (in cybernetics)”. English term *hierarchy* has no other meanings.

31) **Identification** (ALKTŽ, 1998:218)

*Identifikacija* (TŽŽ)

Both terms of two languages refer to “the act of identifying or the state of being identified”, but the Lithuanian term *identifikacija* has one more meaning and stands for “the formation of the management object model, measuring the input and output signals”. The English word *identification* has no other meanings.

32) **Imitation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:219)

*Imitacija* (TŽŽ)

Both words mean “a copy or reproduction of a genuine article” and “the act of imitating”. However, the Lithuanian term *imitacija* also means “repetition of a theme or
tune in another voice” and this meaning is related only to music. The English word imitation has no other meanings.

33) **Immunity** (ALKTŽ, 1998:219)

**Imunitetas** (TŽŽ)

The pair of words shares one meaning and refers to “an exemption from certain generally applicable requirements of law, freedom from obligation or duty”. However, the Lithuanian word imunitetas also stands for “the ability of an organism to resist a disease” and “liberties for landlords in the Middle Ages”. The English term immunity has no other meanings.

3. Words in the pair share some meanings and have a number of different meanings:

34) **Generation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:202)

**Generacija** (TŽŽ)

The pair of words shares one meaning and stands for “people born and living about the same time, considered as a group” but the English word generation has one more meaning “production, creation” and the Lithuanian word generacija has another meaning “birth, origin”.

35) **Import** (ALKTŽ, 1998:221)

**Importas** (TŽŽ)

Both English and Lithuanian terms mean “the act of importing goods or materials”. In addition to this, the English word import also means “something that is imported (goods or services)” and the Lithuanian term importas also stands for “the amount and value of goods imported in a particular time”.

36) **Incorporation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:225)

**Inkorporacija** (TŽŽ)

Both terms stand for “combining, merging (documents, companies)”. The English term incorporation has one more meaning which refers to “establishment and registration of a company”, while the Lithuanian term inkorporacija has two more distinct meanings: “a legal material systematization form” and “a sentence formation method”.

37) **Hit** (ALKTŽ, 1998:2013)

**Hitas** (TŽŽ)

The pair of words shares one meaning and refers to “a popular musical work, song”. The legal dictionary provides one more meaning for the English word hit which refers to “an impact,
blow, stroke”. However, the Lithuanian word *hitas* has two more meanings which refer to “horse racing (in Soviet Union)” and “bicycle and motorbike racing”.

38) *Justice* (ALKTŽ, 1998:255)

*Justicija* (TŽŽ)

Both terms refer to “fairness, decency”. The English word *justice* has a few more meanings and refers to “the order of case investigation” and “a judge”, while the Lithuanian word *justicija* also means “the system of judicial institutions”.

The classifications by Sheen (1995) and Stankevičienė (2005) were presented. All examples were analyzed and grouped. The frequency of absolute and partial pseudo-equivalents is shown in the Figure 2.

![Figure 2. The frequency of absolute and partial-pseudo equivalents (Sheen, 1995)](image)

As it is seen in the figure above, absolute lexical pseudo-equivalents (50%) and partial lexical pseudo-equivalents (50%) were identified the same often. Partial lexical pseudo-equivalents were further subdivided into three groups and the proportion of their frequency is presented in the Figure 3.
Partial lexical pseudo-equivalents were subdivided into three groups and the most dominant of them was *words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous* (48%). The group *words in the pair share some meanings and have a number of different meanings* (35%) was also frequent. The least examples (17%) belong to the group *words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous*. 

**Figure 3. The percentage of subdivisions of partial lexical pseudo-equivalents (Stankevičienė, 2005)**
CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the paper was to find and analyze English-Lithuanian lexical pseudo-equivalents, found in the legal dictionary Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas (letters G-J) and in the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas. The concept of lexical pseudo-equivalence have been analysed and the classifications of lexical pseudo-equivalents were presented. The aim of the paper has been fulfilled according to the objectives presented in the introductory part of this work: to reveal the concept of lexical pseudo-equivalents; to present different classifications of lexical pseudo-equivalents; to present the peculiarities of the legal text; to select and explain examples of lexical pseudo-equivalents, found in the legal dictionary Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas (letters G-J) and the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas. The following conclusions have been drawn:

1. The analysis of the theoretical part helped to understand the concept of pseudo-equivalence and to realise that each language is full of translator’s false friends. We need to be very attentive in order to recognise them, especially when translating legal texts, because many international words may look or sound similarly in two languages, but may carry an absolutely different meaning. As the legal system of each country is different, the translation of legal texts is an elaborate and a time consuming task.

2. The classification of lexical pseudo-equivalents is not extent. Sheen (1995), Dominguez and Nerlich (2002) and Stankevičienė (2005) proposed their classifications (classifications by Sheen and Stankevičienė were chosen). It may be claimed that the classifications are of the same nature as all of them deal with absolute and partial lexical pseudo-equivalents. In order to identify them, we can employ monolingual or bilingual dictionaries.

3. All in all 58 examples were selected from the legal dictionary Anglų-Lietuvių kalbų teisės žodynas (letters G-J) and the online international dictionary of the Lithuanian language Tarptautinių žodžių žodynas. The statistics showed that absolute lexical pseudo-equivalents were the same frequent as partial lexical-pseudo equivalents. This warns us to be very careful when translating a text, because the translator’s false friends are found very often in all languages. The examples of partial lexical pseudo-equivalents showed that English words are more polysemous than Lithuanian words, that is why we need to analyse each meaning of every word before choosing one for a translation.
REFERENCES


SOURCES

APPENDIX

Absolute lexical pseudo-equi\-valents

(1) \textit{Inspect} (ALKTŽ, 1998:234) – to examine, investigate.

\textit{Inspektas} (TŽŽ) – a seedbed for vegetables.


\textit{Instrumentinis} (TŽŽ) – 1. related to music; 2. a musical work, performed only by instruments (no vocal).

(3) \textit{Insult} (ALKTŽ, 1998:237) – an offensive remark or action.

\textit{Insultas} (TŽŽ) – 1. a fit, seizure; 2. a lack of blood flow to the brain.

(4) \textit{Integral} (ALKTŽ, 1998:238) – a whole or complete unit.

\textit{Integralas} (TŽŽ) – a unit of measurement, as a result of the action opposite to the differentiation.


\textit{Intencija} (TŽŽ) – an intention, purpose.


\textit{Intermedinas} (TŽŽ) – a hormone, important for the formation of retina pigments.


\textit{Internalinis} (TŽŽ) – infernal, hellish.


\textit{Invalidas} (TŽŽ) – a disabled person.

(9) \textit{Invention} (ALKTŽ, 1998:245) – a new developed device, method, etc.

\textit{Invencija} (TŽŽ) – a form of polyphonic music.
Partial lexical pseudo-equivalents

1. Words in the pair share at least one meaning but the English word is more polysemous:

(10) **Insinuation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:234) – 1. a hint or suggestion, putting someone in doubt; 2. registration of a legal document (USA).

**Insinuacija** (TŽŽ) – a hint or suggestion, putting someone in doubt.

(11) **Instance** (ALKTŽ, 1998:235) – 1. a specified stage of bodies, subordinate to one another; 2. an example.

**Instancija** (TŽŽ) – a specified stage of bodies, subordinate to one another.

(12) **Intelligence** (ALKTŽ, 1998:238) – 1. information; 2. an organization engaged in gathering information (military, business, etc.); 3. good mental capacity, quick understanding.

**Inteligencija** (TŽŽ) – good mental capacity, quick understanding.

(13) **Interest** (ALKTŽ, 1998:239) – 1. curiosity; 2. a matter of concern; 3. a sum of money (banking); 4. property right.

**Interesas** (TŽŽ) – 1. curiosity; 2. a matter of concern;

(14) **Interpret** (ALKTŽ, 1998:243) – 1. to explain; 2. to translate from one language to another (orally).

**Interpretuoti** (TŽŽ) – to explain.

2. Words in the pair share at least one meaning but the Lithuanian word is more polysemous:


**Institutas** (TŽŽ) – 1. an educational organization; 2. a corpus of the legal norms.

3. Words in the pair that share some meanings and have a number of different meanings:

(16) **Institution** (ALKTŽ, 1998:236) – 1. an organization, dedicated to public service; 2. establishment, foundation; 3. initiation.

**Institucija** (TŽŽ) – 1. an organization, dedicated to public service; 2. an association of people (a party); 3. a well established social correlation form.
(17) **Instrument** (ALKTŽ, 1998:236) – 1. document, certificate; 2. a tool used for work.

**Instrumentas** (TŽŽ) – 1. a tool used for work; 2. a device for producing music.

(18) **Intensive** (ALKTŽ, 1998:239) – 1. involving the maximum amount of time, power, etc.; 2. open, adoptive, receptive.

**Intensyvus** (TŽŽ) - 1. involving the maximum amount of time, power, etc.; 2. vivid, deep (colour).

(19) **Interpretation** (ALKTŽ, 1998:243) – 1. explanation, comment; 2. translation from one language to another (orally).

**Interpretacija** (TTŽ) – 1. explanation, comment; 2. a distinctive performance of an artistic work; 3. the totality of meanings.


**Introdukcija** (TŽŽ) – 1. presentation; 2. the initial phase of plant and animal acclimatization.