

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **4.0 Introduction**

This chapter provides an analysis of the lexical errors found in the 50 compositions written by 50 upper secondary Malay students. The students are second language learners of English. This chapter includes an analysis of the classification of lexical errors and a discussion of the causes of the lexical errors in terms of intralingual and interlingual errors.

#### **4.1 Summary of Findings**

From the 50 scripts, a total of 20,229 words are produced. The average length of a student's composition is 405 words. On average, there are 23 lexical errors produced in each script. From these scripts, as many as 1104 errors at word level are identified.

The research reveals that the lexical errors produced by the subjects can be divided into 2 main categories based on their plausible sources, namely intralingual and interlingual errors. Out of the 1104 lexical errors identified as many as 725 are intralingual errors and 379 are interlingual errors. In other words, intralingual errors make up 66.13 % of the total number of errors identified and interlingual

errors constitute the remaining 33.87 %. The findings of this study are tabulated as follows:

Sources of Lexical Errors	No	%
Intralingual errors	725	66.13
Interlingual errors	379	33.87
Total	1104	100.00

Table 4.1- Distribution and Sources of Lexical Errors

Table 4.1 shows the distribution of the sources of lexical errors in terms of intralingual and interlingual errors. From Table 4.1, it is clear that the total number of intralingual errors is double that of interlingual errors. This shows that the lexical errors produced by the subjects are mainly due to the difficulties arising within the English language system and the learning strategies employed by the learners to cope with the target language rather than the result of native language interference. In other words, the difficulty faced by the subjects is because of their inability to differentiate between the meanings, nuances, forms and usage of lexical items in the target language.

The breakdown of the types of intralingual and interlingual errors is presented in Table 4.2. Table 4.2 shows a total of 11 subcategories of lexical errors, with 7 types of intralingual errors and 4 types of interlingual errors.

Lexical Errors	No	%
<b>A. Intralingual Errors</b>		
1. Confusion of Sense Relations	266	24.09
2. Distortions	143	12.95
3. Confusibles	115	10.42
4. Word Class Conversion Errors	96	8.70
5. Redundancy	76	6.88
6. Collocation Errors	22	1.99
7. Lapses	7	0.82
<b>Sub total</b>	<b>725</b>	<b>66.13</b>
<b>B. Interlingual Errors</b>		
1. Calque	309	27.98
2. Code Switching	38	3.44
3. Confusion Over Verbs of Movement	18	1.18
4. Loan Words	14	1.27
<b>Sub total</b>	<b>379</b>	<b>33.87</b>
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b><u>1104</u></b>	<b><u>100.00</u></b>

Table 4.2 – Distribution of Types Lexical Errors

Table 4.2 illustrates that calques are the most frequent lexical errors produced by the learners. Calques, which result from interlingual interference, account for 309 errors or 27.98 % of the total number of lexical errors. This is followed by confusion of sense relations, which results from intralingual influence, with 266 errors or 24.09 %. Although intralingual errors constitute a higher percentage of lexical errors compared to interlingual errors, the majority of lexical errors produced by the subjects are due to direct translation from the mother tongue.

A further analysis and discussion of each subtype of intralingual and interlingual errors will be presented under the following headings.

#### 4.2 Classification and Explanation of Intralingual Errors

#### 4.3 Classification and Explanation of Interlingual Errors

In these sections, the erroneous sentences are written exactly as found in the data. No modifications have been made to the errors. The errors are explained in terms of their erroneous nature. The (\*) signals an erroneous sentence. The underlined word or phrases in italics are the errors being explained and discussed. The lexical items within the parentheses [ ] are the correct and appropriate substitute for the errors.

#### **4.2 Classification and Explanation of Intralingual Errors**

A total of 725 intralingual errors are identified in the data. The intralingual errors produced by the subjects can be categorised into 7 subtypes of errors. They are errors due to confusion of sense relations, distortions, confusibles, word class conversion errors, redundancy, collocation errors and lapses.



#### 4.2.1 Confusion of Sense Relations

Sense relations refer to the meaning relations existing between pairs of words constituting of synonym, assumed synonym, hyponym and superonym. 24.09 % of the total number of lexical errors is made up of this type of error. The following are some errors due to confusion of sense relations found in the data :

- a. \* It was so hurt I began to cry. [ painful ]
- b. \* My now school is the best. [ present ]

The above sentences show that the subjects have chosen to use inappropriate lexical items in the given contexts. The errors committed are generally due to semantic confusion between pairs of words which are synonyms, and assumed synonyms. In example (a), the adjective “hurt” and “painful” do share a common meaning of “being in pain”, but “painful” is more appropriate to be used in this context. This is because this sentence requires an adjective and not a verb as represented by “hurt”. In sentence (b), the chosen lexical item “now” is considered erroneous because it is an adverb and the sentence requires an adjective, i.e. “present”.

The following are sentences found in the data which are due to semantic confusions which involve nouns:

- c. \* On the first day of school, I woke up early in the morning and wore a new dress to school. [ uniform ]

- d. \* It's because we were taking the same bus and the same journey. [ route ]
- e. \*One day, I decided to go to my grandfather's house. I quickly ran home to tell my parents about my opinion. [ decision ]
- f. \*Besides, there were not many cars on this way. [ road ]
- g. \* I entered the class and sat on an empty place in the second line. [ row ]

In example (c), the word “uniform” should have been used instead of “dress” as it is a special kind of clothing or dress code obligatory to students. On the other hand, “dress” refers to a one-piece woman's garment consisting of a bodice and skirt. This error occurs probably because the learner is confused. The learner may have learned the phrase “get dressed” and intended to incorporate the phrase in the sentence. The learner, however, has failed to use the phrase accurately, hence the error. In example (d), the word “journey” refers to the idea of travelling from one place to another, usually a long one. The word “route” suggests a path or a road. Thus, in this example, “route” is a better choice as it clearly indicates the idea of using the road. In example (e), though the words “opinion” and “decision” share the idea of having a view on a particular matter, the word “decision” is more suitable in this context as it also suggests the idea of reaching a conclusion and acting upon it.

The word “road” in sentence (f) is more suitable because it refers to a path with a specially prepared surface that can be used by people or vehicles. In example (g) the word “row” is a better choice of word because it explains a line of seats for example in a theatre or in a classroom. The word “line” is not as precise as “row” in this context.

Below are examples of erroneous sentences, resulting from semantic confusion taken from the data, which involve verbs:

- h. \* It was my parents. I hold my mother because I so happy to see her after so long. [ hugged ]
- i. \* We just run and run without see back and arrived to our house. [ looking ]
- j. \* After that, Marlina and Zuraidah approached me and identify themselves. [ introduced ]

In example (h), the correct lexical item should be “hugged” as this refers to the act of embracing someone. The word “hold” on the other hand, does not carry this idea. It can just mean “holding hands”. In sentence (i), the word “looking” is more appropriate because it suggests the idea of turning one’s eyes in some direction. The word “see” on the other hand, means to discern or perceive by the use of the eyes. In sentence (j), the subject’s choice of the word “identify” is inappropriate as the given context requires a word that gives the idea of making oneself known to others. Hence, the word “introduced” should be used instead.

The confusion of sense relations also involves the use of a more general term where a more specific one is required, that is superonym for hyponym. Below are some examples from the data.

- k. \* The teacher in the school is very good. [ hardworking ]
- l. \* The food at the canteen was nice. [ delicious ]

m. \* Then I saw a small thing . [ object ]

Examples (k), (l) and (m) illustrate the subjects' choice of a more general term for a more specific one, i.e superonym for hyponym. In example (k), "good" is too general as it does not explain the characteristic of the teacher. The word "hardworking" is more appropriate as the word implies that the teacher is good because he is diligent. In example (l), "delicious" is more appropriate because it means enjoyable or delightful to the taste and, thus, explains the taste of the food. "nice" on the other hand, is not appropriate because it is defined as pleasant. The word "thing" in ( m ), however, is rather vague . "Object" is more appropriate as it refers to a material thing that can be seen or touched, thus giving the idea of a concrete entity.

The confusion of sense relations also involves the use of too specific a term in place of a general lexical item, that is hyponym for superonym. Below are some examples from the data.

n. \* On the first day at school, I was happy because I can face my friends.

[ see ] ~

o. \* That time, Sarah, Salmah, Zaki , Fatimah , Ali and all my friends in the class interviewed me about my family. [ asked ]

p. \* So my sister and I had to stay here to secure our house. [ look after ]

In examples (n), (o) and (p), the learners have used specific terms in place of a more general lexical item. Example (n) suggests the idea of meeting people or friends (as suggested in this context). Therefore, the word “see” is more appropriate to be used in this example. The word “face”, on the other hand, implies a negative connotation because it gives the idea of confronting someone, which does not match the situation implied in this sentence. In example (o), “interviewed” is inappropriately used because the sentence in which it is used is not formal in context. Thus, the word “asked” is more suitable to be used in this context. In example (p), a better choice of lexical item is “look after” because it means to attend to someone or to take care of someone. The word “secure” is too specific.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the subjects have insufficient knowledge about sense relations of words which are synonyms, assumed synonyms, hyponyms and superonyms as they are not able to choose the appropriate lexical items.

#### **4.2.2 Distortions**

Errors in this category refer to the creation of lexical items that are non-existent in the target language. This kind of error constitutes 12.95 % of the total sum of errors identified from the data. Distortions are mainly due to spelling errors resulting from omissions, overinclusions, misselections and misorderings of a letter or letters. Examples of such errors found in data are as follows :

- a. \* I was wearing blous not 'baju kurung'. [ blouse ]
- b. \* I quickly ran to my room and packed my stuf. [ stuff ]
- c. \* I stoped the taxi and ask the driver to send me to my home. [ stopped ]

The errors in (a), (b) and (c) are due to omissions of letters. In example (a), the letter 'e' is missing thus creating a deviant form. In example ( b ) the second 'f' is omitted resulting in an erroneous lexical term. In sentence ( c ), the letter 'p' is omitted. This is probably because the subject assumes that 'stopped' should be spelt with only one 'p' as its root word "stop" requires a single 'p'. So, when it is used in the past tense, only '-ed' is added to the word as the subject has learned that '-ed' signifies the past tense.

The following are erroneous sentences which are the result of overinclusions as found in the data.

- d. \* "I like you all too," I said and smilled. [ smiled ]
- e. \* At my school have a thounsand students and 70 teachers. [ thousand ]
- f. \* Really wieard sound. [ weird ]

Examples (d), (e) and (f) are distortions resulting from additional letters. An additional 'l' is added in the word "smiled" in example (d) to create a deviant form. In example (e), the letter 'n' is added to make a new form of the word "thousand". Example (f) illustrates a deviant form of the word "weird" with an additional 'a'.

Below are examples of distortions resulting from misorderings found in the data.

- g. \* They were able to catch me since my weight didn't allow me to run any fuster. [ faster ]
- h. \* I felt very suspecious about him. [ suspicious ]
- i. \* At last, I dicided to eat at Mc Donald's . [ decided ]

In sentences (g), (h) and (i) , the subjects have produced deviant forms of lexical items because they have used the incorrect vowels. The vowel 'a' is substituted with 'u' for the word 'faster' in sentence (g). This is probably due to mispronunciation or overgeneralisation. The subject may have assumed that word 'faster' is pronounced with a short vowel as in "bus" and "cup" instead of a long vowel. The subject, thus, assumes that "faster" should be spelt with a 'u' just like 'cup' and "bus". In sentence (h), instead of choosing the letter 'i' for "suspicious", the subject has used the letter 'e'; thus, creating a deviant form of the lexical item. As for the word "decided" - sentence (i) – the vowel 'i' has been chosen in place of the correct vowel 'e', thus the error "dicided". This is probably due to overgeneralisation as 'di' in the word "diligent" is pronounced the same as 'de' in the word "decision".

The following errors are distortions caused by misorderings of a letter or letters found in the corpus.

- j. \* At the same time, my mother goes to the kitchen for cooking brakefast.  
[ breakfast ]
- k. \* I wear my new school uniform, new shose and new bag. [ shoes ]
- l. \* In the canteen, I geueu up to buy my food. [ queue ]

The examples of misspelt words in (j), (k) and (l) are the result of misordering of a letter or letters. In these instances, the subjects have misordered the letters in the lexical items, thus, creating erroneous forms. In sentence (j), the deviant form is probably because “break” and “brake” sound similar; thus, the subject has incorrectly spelt “breakfast”. In example (k), the subject has wrongly spelt “shoes” because he or she has reversed the positions of the letters ‘e’ and ‘s’. In sentence (l), the subject committed this error due to the confusion of the positions of the letter ‘u’ and ‘e’ in “queue”.

It is found that errors of distortions can be due to mispronunciation as well as confusion of the positions of the letters in the spelling of lexical items. This is perhaps due to the fact that the subjects have overgeneralised sounds and the spellings of some English vocabulary items.

#### 4.2.3 Confusibles

Confusibles are lexical errors involving confusion between words which are orthographically and phonologically similar. Unlike distortions, confusibles are words that exist in the target language and have meanings of their own. 10.42 % of



the lexical errors found in the corpus are confusibles. Examples of such errors as identified in the written data are as follows :

- a. \* The fat, bold man is our headmaster. [ bald ]
- b. \* The black shadow wants to kill me than I scream. [ then ]
- c. \* The first day, I was happy because can sea friends after very long holiday. [ see ]

Examples (a), (b) and (c) illustrate errors as a result of the subjects' confusion of the vowels in the pair of words. The subjects have mistakenly chosen the incorrect vowels, thus, producing inappropriate lexical items in the given contexts. The subjects have overgeneralised the spelling of these words as the pairs of words sound the same and, hence, they have assumed that this is the correct spelling. To them (the subjects), since all those words sound the same, the spelling should be similar as well.

The following sentences found in the data illustrate confusibles which are caused by confusion of the consonant.

- d. \* Three of us the attacked the enemy port and asked them to surrender .  
[ fort ]
- e. \* It wakes me very scared and not comfortable. [ makes]
- f. \* I just go and life in Ipoh because my father has work at this town. [ live ]

Instead of using the consonants /f/, /m/ and /v/ the learners have chosen to use the consonants /p/, /w/ and /f/ for the respective lexical items in sentences (d), (e) and (f). This is perhaps due to the fact that these lexical items are almost identical in spelling. In example (d), the words “fort” and “port” may look similar to the subjects. In example (e), both “wakes” and “makes” may also look the same to the subjects as the words share similar spelling except for the initial consonant. In sentence (f), the confusion is probably due to the similar pronunciation. Furthermore, both lexical items are semantically related to each other.

Below are erroneous sentences found in the data which involve words which share the same prefixes.

- g. \* I light up the candle and I so shocked because in that time lighting flashing in the sky. [ lightning ]
- h. \* You must gave her supposed. [ support ]
- i. \* My father said, “ Good bye and behalf yourself at school.” [ behave ]

The lexical errors in examples (g), (h) and (i) are probably committed because the subjects are confused about the similar prefixes that the words share. In (g), both “lighting” and “lightning” share a common prefix <light>. In (h), the words “supposed” and “support” share the same prefix of <sup>. The words “behalf” and “behave” in example ( i ) have a similar prefix, <be>. The similarity of the prefix, hence, causes learners to make errors of this kind.

The sentences below, found in the data, illustrate lexical items which have similar suffixes .

- j. \* She explained to me that she would tell my father about the incident and ask my father to pay for it as it was an incident. [ accident ]
- k. \* I ask myself weather the teacher is moody. [ whether ]
- l. \* I saw my mother all ready waiting for us. [ already ]

The sentences in (j), (k) and (l) indicate errors that are attributed to similarity of the suffixes of the chosen lexical items. The subjects are confused because the lexical items have the same suffix; “in<cident>” and “ac<cident>” in example (j), “wea<ther>” and “whe<ther>” in sentence (k) , and “all <ready>” and “al<ready>” in example ( l ).

The following examples, which are found in the data, involve words which are orthographically similar.

- m. \* Every student have many story on holiday expect students in Form Five.  
[ except ]
- n. \* The pupils in the class were quite when I came. [ quiet ]

The errors in (m) and (n) are probably due to orthographical similarity. Thus, the subjects have produced “expect” when meaning “except” as illustrated in sentence

( m ), and used “quite” instead of “quiet” in example ( n ). The subjects are, perhaps, confused with the positions of the letters in the lexical items.

It can be concluded that the subjects make errors of this nature because they are confused with some shared features of these confusibles. Most of the time, the spelling of these confusibles is almost identical, thus, posing difficulty to the subjects in differentiating the lexical items.

#### 4.2.4 Word Class Conversion Errors

Word class conversion errors are errors committed because of the use of the incorrect forms or parts of speech of the chosen lexical items. This type of error makes up 8.70% of the total sum of lexical errors produced by the subjects. Below are the examples found in the data which are considered word class conversion errors.

- a. \* I've tried my best to give an explain but he said he didn't want to hear any excuse. [ explanation ]
- b. \* It doesn't seem to be the same as my mom's cook. [ cooking ]
- c. \* We had a discussed about this problem. [ discussion ]
- d. \* Now, I am in dangerous. [ danger ]

The above examples indicate that the subjects have attempted to produce words in the second language. However, because of insufficient exposure and knowledge of

the language, they have chosen the incorrect forms and parts of speech of the lexical items. In example (a), the subject has wrongly used the verb “explain” instead of the noun form “explanation” which the sentence requires. In sentence (b), the subject has also chosen the verb or noun form “cook” instead of the noun “cooking”. In example (c), the word “discussed” is erroneous because the sentence needs the noun form, “discussion”. In example (d), the subject wrongly used the adjective, “dangerous” instead of the noun, “danger”, thus creating an error.

The following sentences, which are found in the data, involve adjectives.

- e. \* She is a beauty person with oval face. [ beautiful ]
- f. \* Sungai Bil is a recreation park at Slim River. [ recreational ]
- g. \* I told them that there were many interesting places in Perak like Taiping Lake Garden, ‘labu sayong’ factory, Pasir Salak the history place and others. [ historical ]
- h. \* You know why last week was an enjoy week ? [ enjoyable ]
- i. \* I was very happily. [ happy ]

The lexical items in examples (e),(f) and (g) are erroneous because the subjects have used the noun forms instead of the adjective forms. In example (e), the subject has used the noun “beauty” instead of the adjective “beautiful” which the sentence requires. In example (f), the noun “recreation” is incorrectly used as this sentence needs an adjective. The noun “history” in example (g) is also incorrectly used because the adjective “historical” should be used instead.

Sentence (h) indicates an error in which the verb “enjoy” is chosen in place of the adjective “enjoyable”. The error in (i) is committed because the subject has wrongly chosen the adverb “happily”. The correct lexical item should have been “happy”.

The erroneous sentence below, which is found in the data, involves a verb.

j. \*We frozen on the spot. [ froze ]

The word “frozen” in example (j) is erroneous as the sentence requires a verb and not an adjective.

Word class conversion errors can be said to be the result of the subjects’ insufficient knowledge of the various forms and parts of speech that English lexical items have. The subjects may not have mastered the use of different parts of speech existing in the second language.

#### **4.2.5 Redundancy**

These erroneous forms represent a needless repetition of an idea using a different word or phrase. The use of lexical items, in such instances, is merely repetitious. Redundancy constitutes 6.88% of the total number of lexical errors. Examples of such errors found in the data are as follows:

- a. \* The first day was very best. [ the ]
- b. \* I say agree.
- c. \* We started our journey at 11 a.m and my uncle used the shortcut way.
- d. \* I felt fainted.
- e. \* The canteen was very clean without any rubbish.

In example (a), the word “very” is redundant as “best” is already a superlative. In sentence (b), the word “say” is redundant as “agree” encompasses the intended meaning. As for sentence (c), “shortcut” is sufficient to convey the idea of taking a shorter route, thus, the word “road” is redundant. The word “fainted” in (d) is a transitive verb, thus, it can stand on its own. The word “felt” is not required in this sentence. In example (e), the phrase “without any rubbish” is not necessary because the word “clean” already means free from dirt or rubbish.

The following are also examples of redundancy found in the data.

- f. \* There were trees, big trees everywhere that made me confuse and also afraid too.
- g. \* Then after that, the teacher started to teach us the alphabets words.
- h. \* But her mother said she can't not cry.
- i. \* I don't know what to do anything because I feel tired and then I fall down and close my eyes.
- j. \* My group was the first group and the first in front of another group.

In example (f), the words “too” and “also” implies the idea of adding on to something that has been mentioned. Hence, using either one of these words is sufficient to convey the intended meaning in the sentence. In example (g), the subject should have used either one of the sentence connectors, “then” or “after that”, as the words can stand independently in a sentence. In this sentence, the word “words” is redundant, as well. In sentence (h), the subject has used a double negative. The word “can’t” means cannot, so the following “not” is totally redundant. The word “anything” in sentence (i) is not necessary as the phrase ‘don’t know what to do’ is enough to express the subject’s intention. In example (j), the phrase “the first group” already suggests that the group is in the lead. Hence, further explanation as presented in “the first in front of another group” is not required.

Redundancy is probably due to language transfer. This is because redundancy is a common aspect of the Malay language. Learners make such errors as the need to explain has been fossilized in their interlanguage.

#### **4.2.6 Collocation Errors**

Collocations are words that normally keep company with other words. Second language learners sometimes fail to use these special lexical items as they have yet to learn the correct word-combinations. Consequently, they make erroneous structures. From the corpus, 1.99% of the total sum of lexical errors is collocation errors. Examples of collocation errors from the corpus are as follows :



- a. \* But now, I had burnt my promise. [ broken ]
- b. \* When I woke up, I heard a burst of tears. [ laughter ]
- c. \* They give me a group of great soldiers, the best weapons and the best warships. [troop]
- d. \* Once in a while, we heard a wolf shouting. [ howling ]
- e. \* Just when I stand up to make my way to the telephone box, I heard a boy shouted "Bus !". [ booth ]

The examples above indicate that the subjects have wrongly paired the words. In sentence (a), the word "promise" is always accompanied by "broken" and not "burnt". The commonly accepted phrase is "a burst of laughter" and not "a burst of tears" as in sentence (b). An assembled company of soldiers is called "a troop" and not "a group" as illustrated in example (c). In example (d), the word "shouting" is totally out of place because only humans shout, whereas a wolf "howls". Example (e) is erroneous because the correct lexical item is "booth" as in telephone booth.

Other examples of collocation errors found in the data are as follows.

- f. \* I ask my mind, maybe I was dreaming that night . [ myself ]
- g. \* After that, many teachers talked their speech at the assembly. [ delivered ]
- h. \* Last school holidays, my family and I took a visit to our relatives.  
[ paid ]
- i. \* I introduced my name to him. [ myself ]

In sentence (f) , the subject has chosen an incorrect lexical item. In this context, the word “myself” is more apt. As for example (g), a speech is “delivered” and not “talked”. The word “visit”, in example (h), normally keeps company with “paid” or “pay” as in the phrase “pay a visit”, and not “took a visit”. In example (i), one normally introduces “oneself” and not one’s “name”.

The cause for this type of error can be due to incomplete application of rules. The subjects may have learned the meanings of the individual words but have not mastered the use of collocations of these words.

#### 4.2.7 Lapses

These are erroneous sentences which involve omissions of lexical items. The learners may have faced difficulties in finding the correct word to convey their intended meanings. Hence, they leave empty spaces or blanks to represent the words that they do not know. This kind of error only contributes a low percentage of error ( 0.82% ) to the total number of lexical errors. Below are examples found in the data :

- a. \* Teachers and students        to school everyday.    [ go ]
- b. \* I was very                    because it was a sweet memory. [ happy ]
- c. \* After reach at one junction, he didn't                    straight to school but he turn left. [ go ]
- d. \* I and my friends study very                    for our test.    [ hard ]

- e. \*I miss my school because the            are too long. [ holidays ]

From the corpus, seven errors have been identified as lapses. This kind of error may be attributed to the learners' limited vocabulary. They have probably chosen to leave out the lexical items because they cannot find suitable lexical items. Hence, the sentences make very little or no sense at all.

### 4.3 Classification and Explanation of Interlingual Errors

A total of 379 interlingual errors are identified in the data. The interlingual errors produced by the subjects can be categorised into 4 categories. They are calque, code switching, confusion over verbs of movement and loan words.

#### 4.3.1 Calque

James ( 1998 : 150 ) defines calque as the kind of error which is the result of literal translation from the mother tongue. In this study, the erroneous lexical items are literally translated from Malay. Calques contribute a high percentage of lexical errors with as many as 309 errors or 27.98%. Examples from the data collected are as follows:

- a. \* I tried my best to open the tied and luckily the tied had loosen. [ untie ,  
the rope ]

- b. \* I story all of my experiences on the first day to my father and mother.

[ informed ]

In (a) , the learner has mistakenly used the word “open” to mean “untie”. This is because in the Malay language “open” means “buka” which can also mean “untie”. The subject also has used “tied” to mean “the rope”. This happens because in Malay the root word “tie” when literally translated is “ikatan” or “knot” in English. “Story” means anecdote, tale or narration. Its Malay equivalent is “cerita”. So, in (b) the learner has opted to use the word “story” in order to tell or inform his parents about what had happened to him. The learner probably assumes that the word “story” means “menceritakan” which is equivalent to “to inform or to tell a story” in English. There is, of course, the sense of narration involved but the word “story” is a noun and should not be used in this context. The sentence requires a verb.

Below are other examples of calques found in the data.

- c. \* But the driver angry me and ask me to shut up. [ scolded ]

- d. \* I school at SMK Buyong Adil. [ study ]

The words “angry” and “scold” both convey the same meaning as the Malay equivalent “marah”. However, in English “angry” is an adjective and “scold” is a verb. In example (c), the learner, therefore, has chosen the incorrect lexical item because he probably feels that both words are of the same part of speech and, thus,

can be used interchangeably. In (d), the subject has chosen “school” instead of the word “study” because the word “school” when literally translated into Malay, means “sekolah” or “bersekolah”. In the Malay language, it is all right to say:

*Saya bersekolah di SMK Buyong Adil.*

This sentence when literally translated to English becomes

\* I school at SMK Buyong Adil.

The sentences below are also erroneous due to calquing.

e. \* I just follow what my parents say. [ obey ]

f. \* I had closed the tap. [ turned off ]

In sentence (e), the word “follow” can be translated as “ikut” in Malay. The word “ikut” also can be mean “obeying one’s instructions” as in the phrase “ikut arahan”. The confusion in the meaning of the words is probably the cause of this error. In sentence (f), the subject has wrongly used the word “closed” instead of “turned off”. The word “closed” can be translated as “tutup” as in “tutup paip”. Thus, the learner assumes that the word “closed” can be used in this context.

Other examples of lexical errors from the data which are categorised as calques are as follows.

- g. \* But I was false because when I go to school in the first day, I'm very happy because many things had happened to me. [ wrong ]
- h. \* At the first day, I also cannot give my mother go home. [ allow ]
- i. \* After half an hour, I met a road. [ saw / came across ]

In example (g), the lexical item “false” is incorrectly used instead of “wrong”. The word “false” can mean “not according to fact”, “wrong” or “incorrect”. In Malay “false” can be interpreted as “tidak benar” and, hence, students may have overgeneralised the meaning of “false” to mean “wrong”. However, in this instance, the word “wrong” is more suitable as it suggests the idea of “mistaken” which is not implied by the word “false”. In sentence (i), the subject wishes to convey the idea of not allowing his mother to go home. Thinking that “give” shares a similar meaning with “allow”, he has indiscriminately used this lexical item. He does not know that “give” is a transitive verb and requires an object. In his opinion, “give”, which means “beri” in Malay, is a suitable word in this context. The last example, (j) also implies a word-for-word translation as the word “met” when literally translated means “jumpa” in colloquial Malay. The student has probably translated “jumpa” to mean “met” hence the error in example (j).

The cause of calque is word-for-word translation from the Malay language. Errors of this nature probably occur because the subjects probably assume that English and Malay lexical items are equivalent in meaning.

#### 4.3.2 Code Switching

Code switching may be said to represent the last resort of second language learners seeking to express intended meanings. In this case, the subjects switch to their mother tongue without resorting to translation to express their intended meanings. This kind of error makes up 3.44% of the total number of errors identified from the corpus. Below are examples found in the data:

- a. \* Many teachers in my school are teach the subjects of Sejarah, Mathematics, Bahasa Melayu, Bahasa Inggeris and anything . [ History, Malay Language, English language ]
- b. \* I like go to school because I have many friends , Indian, Melayu, Cina , Punjabi and many more. [ Malay , Chinese ]
- c. \* The school has a strict undang-undang. [ regulation ]
- d. \*That morning, we were asked to stay in the school dewan. [ hall ]
- e. \* I and my friend eat chicken rice and tea 'o' ais . [ iced tea ]

In all the examples above, the subjects have used mother tongue equivalents in place of English lexical items. In sentence (a), for example the subject uses the Malay words, “Bahasa Melayu”, “Bahasa Inggeris” and “Sejarah” because those lexical items are commonly used at school. In example (b), the subject has chosen the Malay word “Melayu” and “Cina” probably because they are not aware of the suitable English words. In (c), the subject may have used the word “undang-undang” instead, because the word “regulation” is non-existent in his vocabulary. The word “dewan” in sentence (d) means “hall”. In this case, the subject is

probably not aware of the lexical item, “hall”. Besides, in the school environment, the word “dewan” is widely used. The signage for the school hall usually reads “Dewan Sekolah” and not “School Hall”. The subject is then, more likely to be influenced by the use of this Malay word. In (e), the subject has failed to change the word “ais’ to “ice”. If not, his sentence would have been correct for he has managed to use the word ‘tea’.

Below are erroneous sentences taken from the data which involve verbs.

f. \* He called my mother and father and mengugut me. [ threatened ]

g. \* At the house I diikat at one room. [ was tied ]

In example (f), the subject probably resorts to using the Malay word “mengugut” meaning “threatened” because the word “threatened” does not exist in his vocabulary. In sentence (g), the learner has switched to the Malay equivalent “diikat” instead of “was tied” probably because he is not familiar with the suitable lexical item “was tied”.

Other examples of word-for-word translation error found in the data are as follows.

h. \* Everyone in school was takut of me, because I have a big brother.

[ afraid ]



- i. \* I like this school because this school dekat hospital. [ near ]

In sentence (h), the learner may have made used the Malay word “takut” to explain “afraid” probably because he does not know the word “afraid”. In example (i), the subject may have committed this error because he does not know the equivalent of “dekat” which is “near” in English.

The cause of these errors may be due to the subjects' limited English vocabulary. As they cannot find the suitable English lexical items, the subjects have fallen back on their mother tongue to express their intended meanings.

#### 4.3.3 Confusion Over Verbs of Movement

This category of errors depicts the inappropriate use of verbs of movement for example, the use of “go” and “come”. The subjects, in this study, are confused over the directions involved in the verbs of movement. 1.18 % of the total sum of lexical errors committed by the subjects is the result of this kind of error. The following examples are found in the corpus:

- a. \* But when I came to the hall, there's nothing there. [ went ]  
b. \* I came back to my bedroom. [ went ]  
c. \* When it's time to come back, I go back with Shamanee. [ go ]

- d. \* We left about 5-6 seniors and teacher to cook and prepare for our lunch when we went back from the jungle trekking. [ came ]

In examples (a) and (b) the subjects should have used the verb “went” because it suggests the idea of moving from one place to another. The ‘journey’ starts at one point or place, then begins to progress towards the designated destinations – in sentence (a) the destination is the hall, and in sentence (b) the destination is the bedroom. The verb “came” suggests being brought towards and it is not appropriate to be used in both instances. In sentence (c), the same principle applies as the pronoun “I” is said to be moving from the starting point to a certain destination, probably “home”. In example (d), the pronoun “we” begin the journey from the starting point, perhaps their camp and later “came back” to where they started. So, here, the correct lexical item ought to be “came” and not “went”.

In English there are different verbs of movement to indicate various directions. Examples of such verbs are “go”, “come”, “arrive”, “reach” and “return”. The subjects, owing to their incompetence in the target language, cannot differentiate the meanings of these verbs. Besides, the subjects may have assumed that “go” and “come” carry the same idea and can be used interchangeably. Consequently, they become confused and make errors of such nature.

#### 4.3.4 Loan Words

Loan words also pose problems to the subjects. There are numerous words of English that have been loaned and adapted into the Malay language. The confusion usually lies in terms of spelling as the words which are loaned to the Malay language sound similar. A small percentage of 1.27 % of the lexical errors is due to loan words. Below are some examples found in the data :

- a. \* I decided to find a shop or restoran. [ restaurant ]
- b. \* My school has two sessi, morning and afternoon . [ sessions ]
- c. \* This is orientasi day. [ orientation ]
- d. \* I have got gred 1 and agregat 10. [ grade , aggregate ]
- e. \*My sister is studying at a universiti in Kedah. [ university ]

In such instances, the subjects usually resort to the Malay spelling of the particular lexical items. This is perhaps because they are more confident and familiar with the mother tongue version of the words. In example (a), the subject has used the Malay word “restoran” instead of the English word “restaurant”. In example (b), the word “sessi” is used perhaps because the subject is confused about the spelling of its English counterpart. In sentence (c), the Malay version “orientasi” is used instead of the correct English equivalent “orientation”. The errors in examples (d) and (e) may be probably due to the fact that lexical items are phonologically similar, for example “universiti” with “university”, “gred” with “grade” as well as “agregat” with “aggregate”.

To conclude, the subjects have committed this kind of error due to the influence of the mother tongue. Another possible explanation for this kind of error is that all these words are loan words from English and have been adapted to the Malay language system. The subjects may not be aware of this fact and, thus, committed the errors.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

To summarise, the lexical errors identified in the written data can be traced to intralingual and interlingual influences. Based on the analysis carried out, it is found that intralingual errors outnumber the interlingual errors. This indicates that the subjects' main problem in learning the second language is due more to the difficulties arising within the second language itself than interference from the mother tongue. Besides, the reasons for their errors can also be due to the learning strategies that the subjects have employed in coping with the target language.