AN ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL ERRORS BY DUTCH LEARNERS OF KOREAN
Baard, Nienke

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AN ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL ERRORS BY DUTCH LEARNERS OF KOREAN

Nienke Baard

Student number: s2539853

Student email: n.baard@umail.leidenuniv.nl

Supervisor: Dr. J.H. Park

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Abstract

This study examines the most prevalent lexical errors committed by Dutch learners when they write in Korean. It also examines whether the proficiency levels of learners influence their tendency to make language transfer errors, distinguishing between inter- or intralingual errors. Although error analysis studies are plentiful in the field of second language acquisition, both lexical errors and Dutch learners of Korean have been neglected as research subjects. By making use of error and statistical analysis, this study aims to fill that gap. This results demonstrate that the most prevalent lexical errors among Dutch learners of Korean of all proficiency levels is literal translation, followed by confusion with semantic similarity, paraphrasing or circumlocution, confusion with formal similarity, and omission or incompletion errors. The study further finds evidence for the claim that learners with high proficiency levels of Korean make more intralingual errors than learners with low proficiency levels, but it does not find evidence that learners with low proficiency levels make more interlingual errors than learners with high proficiency levels. These results suggest that instructors might need to focus on helping advanced learners in their understanding and use of complex Korean language structures and vocabulary, whilst not neglecting correction of language transfer errors in general.

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List of abbreviations

EA	Error Analysis
L1	First language; native language
L2	Second language; target language
LE	Lexical Error(s)
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

1. Introduction

Korean is currently one of the fastest-growing languages in the world among second language learners. In the language learning application Duolingo, Korean has moved from seventh (in 2022) to sixth (2023) most-studied language in the world amongst its users (as reported in their Global Language Report). This ranks Korean above languages such as Italian, Chinese, and Portuguese.[1] The continued, and increasing, global interest in the Korean language and its culture is in large part due to the contribution of the *Hallyu* (literally "Korean wave") phenomenon, spurred on by the driving forces of K-Pop and K-dramas. As an article of the BBC published on July 11, 2018, states: "A desire to learn the lyrics of K-Pop hits like Gangnam Style has boosted the Korean language's popularity explode."[2] This is reflected in the makeup of Korean language classes at the university level. Where such classes used to be popular among Asian (heritage) students, they now constitute a minority group.[3] The popularity of Korean language learning is not expected to decline anytime soon, with entertainment company Netflix planning to invest another 2.5 billion dollar in Korean content over the next four years.[4]

A similar trend of increasing interest in popular Korean culture and language has been seen in the Netherlands. According to a recent new article, a Korean language teacher reported that her classes have not only expanded, but the students have also diversified and now span across all age groups.[5] The recent demand for Korean as a second language suggests that research which may enhance the quality and efficiency of the language-acquisition process is a relevant and important endeavor. For learners and teachers of the Korean language in the Netherlands, tailored research can provide valuable insights to help improve the process of second language acquisition.

Identifying common mistakes made through second language acquisition is a critical part of improving language education; and error analysis is a useful tool in doing so. By

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[1] "2023 Duolingo Language Report," Duolingo Blog, December 4, 2023, https://blog.duolingo.com/2023-duolingo-language-report/.

[2] "K-Pop Drives Boom in Korean Language Lessons," July 11, 2018, https://www.bbc.com/news/business-44770777.

[3] Joan MacDonald, "Interest In Learning Korean Grows With The Popularity Of The Hallyu," Forbes, accessed June 26, 2024, https://www.forbes.com/sites/joanmacdonald/2023/12/11/interest-in-learning-korean-grows-with-the-popularity-of-the-hallyu/.

[4] Gawon Bae Toh Michelle, "Netflix to Invest $2.5 Billion in South Korea as K-Content Continues to Dominate | CNN Business," CNN, April 25, 2023, https://www.cnn.com/2023/04/24/media/netflix-south-korea-investment-intl-hnk/index.html.

[5] "Nederlanders in de ban van Zuid-Korea: 'Ik wil er alles over weten,'" RTL.nl, April 25, 2023, https://www.rtl.nl/nieuws/artikel/5380423/korea-netflix-cultuur.

conducting a detailed error analysis to identify common linguistic – particularly lexical – errors made by Dutch adult learners of Korean, patterns and potential sources of difficulty are explored. Though error analysis has been conducted with other target languages (such as English), there has not yet been a study that includes a target group of Dutch learners of Korean. Therefore, this study aims to expand the existing research of error analysis and second language acquisition in general, and thereby hopefully contribute to the improvement of Korean language education for Dutch learners, specifically.

2. Literature Review

Second language acquisition (SLA) is a well-known multi-disciplinary field in academic research, and its main objective is to provide insight into how learners that have already acquired at least one other language (their native language or L1) learn a new language (also the target language). Thereby, the extended objective of SLA is to facilitate in successful second language acquisition through the insights gained by its research. In SLA, the target language is always referred to as the second language (L2) regardless of how many languages the learner already speaks. In other words, it could be the fourth language of a learner, but in SLA research it will be referred to as the L2. The current study follows that convention.

It is well-established in SLA studies that a great number of errors is accounted for by language transfer, that is, when the learner transfers linguistics features from the native language to the target language. Especially when the two languages have a great linguistic distance,[6] that can result in a great(er) number of errors.[7] Because of this phenomenon, it is necessary to distinguish between first- and second language learning, since the errors that are committed are vastly different. Second language learners try to apply the rules of the language system that they have already acquired; they 'test' their existing knowledge in a new situation, whereas first language learners do not possess any (language) skills yet.[8] Pivotal research in SLA include the interlanguage theory of Selinker published in his 1972 article named "Interlanguage," and the error analysis by Corder described in his 1967 article titled "The Significance of Learners' Errors." The next section will briefly discuss these theories.

2.1. SLA Theories: Interlanguage and Error Analysis

Interlanguage refers to a linguistic system that is formed when the speaker moves from the native language to the target language. It is fundamentally different with the language that native speakers speak, because interlanguage is based on five shaping factors: the influence of L1; transfer of learning strategies; acquisition strategies of L2; communication strategies

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[6] Linguistic distance refers to the measure of how different one language is from another. Despite the absence of a standardized method for quantifying linguistic distance between languages, linguists apply the concept to various linguistic contexts, including second-language acquisition.

[7] Manjin Kang and Sunmee Chang, "An Analysis of Lexical Errors of Korean Language Learners: Some American College Learners' Case," *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics* 18, no. 2 (2014): 95.

[8] S. P. Corder, "The Significance of Learners Errors" 5, no. 1–4 (January 1, 1967): 168, https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1967.5.1-4.161.

of L2; and overgeneralization of L2 linguistic elements. Selinker finds evidence for this claim in the fact that learners produce different utterances from native speakers though they intend to convey identical meaning.[9]

Another important concept that Selinker introduces in the interlanguage theory, he coined *fossilization*. The linguistic phenomena that are prone to fossilization include linguistic items, rules, and subsystems that the learner takes from their L1, and that never really eradicate despite the learner's efforts. As an example of fossilization Selinker describes the "German time-place order after the verb in the English interlanguage of German speakers."[10] Adult learners are more likely to fossilize their L2, especially when they are able to convey the message they want to come across, even when it may be error-ridden.

Error analysis (EA) is a method introduced in SLA by Corder in the 1960s. Since its introduction, EA has become one of the most significant disciplines in the field of SLA. Although there is now a greater variety of analyses that are used than there was in the 1960s, EA is still valued as a useful tool in SLA.[11] The main objective of EA is to examine the errors that learners make in the process of L2 acquisition. EA is used to determine areas of difficulty of L2 acquisition and to reveal more about the nature of errors. The foundation of EA lies in the assumption that "the frequency of errors is proportional to the degree of learning difficulty."[12] In other words, EA is based on the assumption that the errors that a learner commits reflect their current language ability.

EA is not free of criticism, and some scholars prefer to use other methods instead.[13] For example, it is very challenging, yet crucial, to differentiate between mistakes and errors. This is because mistakes are not useful in language learning, as they do not reflect the learner's language ability.[14] This distinction is further discussed in the next paragraph. In addition, it is hard to categorize the errors, and the description of errors is sometimes confused with the explanation of errors. Furthermore, EA only provides segments of learner language.[15] Taylor also voices criticism about the generalizability of EA; it is particularly

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[9] Larry Selinker, "INTERLANGUAGE," *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, IRAL* 10, no. 1–4 (1972): 214, https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209.

[10] Selinker, 215.

[11] Kang and Chang, "An Analysis of Lexical Errors of Korean Language Learners," 94.

[12] Kang and Chang, 94.

[13] Gordon Taylor, "Errors and Explanations," *Applied Linguistics* 7, no. 2 (1986): 144, https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/7.2.144.

[14] Corder, "The Significance of Learners Errors," 167.

[15] Hyunoo Joo, "Investigation of Effect of a Concordancer in English Writing Assessment and Error Analysis of Korean Student Writing Samples," *Secondary English Education* 14, no. 1 (2021): 70, https://doi.org/10.20487/kasee.14.1.202102.68.

hard and EA has a somewhat questionable applicability since the participants have usually developed into a new state of learning by the time the analysis is complete.[16] He argues that instead of a large-scale analysis, clinical studies of individuals are more practical.[17] He also criticizes the taxonomic produces of EA and emphasizes the contextual determinants of errors, thereby carefully assessing the meaning of EA.[18] Yet, despite the criticism, EA has prevailed as an important discipline in the field of second language acquisition. Even more, Taylor also recognizes that a correctly performed EA is valuable,[19] because EA can be used to point out the nature of the error and subsequently help teachers with constructing their material and focusing on problem topics.[20]

Error analysis consists of the following procedures: the identification of errors, the description of errors, and the explanation of errors. The explanation is considered to be the most important step in EA by scholars, as this is the part where the cause of the errors can be considered.[21] Yet, Taylor emphasizes that this explanation is a matter of argument and cannot be considered absolute.[22] According to Corder, errors are systematic, and they indicate the lack of knowledge of the target language. On the other hand, mistakes are not systematic, and they are a product of incorrectly applying rules of the target language. They can often be corrected by the learners themselves. Finally, lapses are slips of the tongue that are usually ignored and not serious enough to require correction.[23] In error analysis, only errors are taken into consideration, since they are systematic and serious in the sense that the learner lacks sufficient understanding of the target language. The current study will therefore also distinguish between errors, mistakes, and lapses, and only include the first in its analysis.

2.2.   Types of Errors: Lexical Errors

In EA and SLA, all linguistic branches are relevant; the phonological; the morphological; the lexical; and the syntactic. Thus, EA has been conducted in all these areas and delivered phonological EA, morphological EA, lexical EA, and syntactic EA. Phonology studies how

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[16] Taylor, "Errors and Explanations," 147.
[17] Taylor, 150.
[18] Taylor, 151.
[19] Taylor, 145.
[20] Joo, "Investigation of Effect of a Concordancer in English Writing Assessment and Error Analysis of Korean Student Writing Samples," 86.
[21] Rod Ellis, *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford Applied Linguistics (Oxford [etc: Oxford University Press, 1994); Taylor, "Errors and Explanations."
[22] Taylor, "Errors and Explanations," 158.
[23] Danielle Ooyoung Pyun and Andrew Sangpil Byon, *The Routledge Handbook of Korean as a Second Language* (London, England ; Routledge, 2022), 320.

languages systematically organize their speech sounds; an example of a phonological error is consistently leaving out consonants at the beginning of a word when speaking. Morphology has to do with words, such as how they relate with one another; a morphological error is, for example, a spelling error or an added plural when unnecessary. In linguistics, lexical errors refer to errors that have to do with inappropriate word usage. Finally, syntactic errors happen when the rules of the language are ignored or applied incorrectly. While there has been extensive research on language learners' errors, most studies have focused on syntactic errors. Lexical errors, in particular, have received less attention despite their importance.[24] This study aims to fill that gap by conducting a lexical EA.

According to Richard et al., a lexical error (LE) is committed when a word, speech act, or grammatical item is used in an imperfect way and therefore indicates an incomplete grasp of the target language.[25] Thus, a LE that appears consistently indicates that the learner has not acquired a complete understanding of a particular aspect of the target language yet. Previous research on LE, done by Lee, concluded that most errors were committed with nouns.[26] According to Kang and Chang, most LE were committed under the category 'collocation,' which suggested that L1 interfere can be a deciding factor in lexical choice among Korean learners. A study by Lasaten proved that LE in verb tenses were the most frequent.[27] Alenazi found that the main category of LE was the confusion of sense relations.[28] Hence, it can be said that the literature on LE is quite divided on what can be considered the most prevalent LE. The current study aims to build on the existing knowledge and determine the most prevalent LE.

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[24] Pyun and Byon, 333.

[25] Jack C. Richards, *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, [2nd ed.], Longman Dictionaries (Harlow: Longman, 1992).

[26] Byung Woon Lee, "Pet'ŭnam haksŭpchaŭi han'gugŏ ŏhwisayong oryugyŏnghyang punsŏk 베트남 학습자의 한국어 어휘사용 오류경향 분석 [Lexical Error analysis of Vietnamese learner`s writing]," *Kyosagyoyukyŏn'gu* 51, no. 2 (August 2012): 315, https://kiss.kstudy.com/Detail/Ar?key=3087656.

[27] Ronald Candy S. Lasaten, "Analysis of Errors in the English Writings of Teacher Education Students," *Researchers World - International Refereed Social Sciences Journal* 5, no. 4 (2014): 1, https://www.researchersworld.com/index.php/rworld/article/view/831.

[28] Yasir Alenazi, "Semantic Lexical Error Analysis," in *Exploring Lexical Inaccuracy in Arabic-English Translation*, by Yasir Alenazi, New Frontiers in Translation Studies (Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore, 2022), 101, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6390-2_5.

2.3.   Inter- and Intralingual Errors

LE are often committed by directly translating from the native language into the target language or using inappropriate words in the target language.[29] A distinction can be made between *interlingual* errors; these usually stem from the learner's linguistic background and native language interfere, and *intralingual* errors; these usually occur when learners misuse the rules of the target language. Inter- and intralingual errors are discussed further in the next section. Thus, a distinction between the two can be made:

1. Interlingual errors: results from the influence of the mother tongue
2. Intralingual errors: results within the target language

However, research has shown that language transfer errors (interlingual errors) tend to decrease as learners advance in their command of the second language. Language transfer errors occur when learners apply rules or structures from their L1 to the L2 they are learning, resulting in inaccuracies or deviations from the target language norms. In a longitudinal study conducted by Odlin on the development of interlanguage, it was found that as learners advanced in proficiency, their interlanguage became more target-like, indicating a decrease in interlingual errors.[30] However, it's essential to note that *intralingual* errors may still occur even as learners advance. These errors result from overgeneralization or misapplication of rules within the target language. So, while interlingual errors decrease, intralingual errors may persist until learners refine their language skills further. In the current study, proficiency levels of the learners are considered in the EA, because the literature suggests that there will be a difference in the type of errors Low-level learners and High-level learners commit.

2.4.   Dutch Learners of Korean

Finally, in the field of SLA, especially EA, Korean learners have not been the subject of research very often.[31] In the last thirty years, the Korean language became increasingly popular and there has been an advance in the research published on Korean learners, but it is still not as plentiful as other languages, such as English or Spanish.[32] Shin evaluated 138 past studies on lexical EA of Korean learners and found that most studies have focused on Asian

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[29] Hanna Y Touchie, "Second Language Learning Errors: Their Types, Causes, and Treatment," *JALT Journal* 8, no. 1 (November 1986): 77, https://jalt-publications.org/jj/articles/1571-second-language-learning-errors-their-types-causes-and-treatment.

[30] Terence Odlin, *Language Transfer: Cross-Linguistic Influence in Language Learning*, Cambridge Applied Linguistics (Cambridge: University Press, 1989), 113–16.

[31] Kang and Chang, "An Analysis of Lexical Errors of Korean Language Learners," 94.

[32] Pyun and Byon, *The Routledge Handbook of Korean as a Second Language*, 319.

language native speakers, particularly Chinese learners of Korean (84 studies) followed by Japanese (10 studies) and Vietnamese (6 studies).[33] English-speaking learners followed on the 4th place after Vietnamese. Notably, there was no study on Dutch learners of Korean. The current study aims to fill the research gap on lexical EA and EA of western learners of Korean by conducting a lexical EA of Dutch learners of Korean, and further comparing the LEs committed based on the learners' proficiency level.

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[33] Hyeonmi Shin, "Han'gugŏ haksŭpcha ŏhwi oryu punsŏk yŏn'gu tonghyang 한국어 학습자 어휘 오류 분석 연구 동향 [Research Trend of Korean Language Learner's Lexical Error Analysis]," *Ŏnŏwa munhwa* 14, no. 4 (November 2018): 151, https://kiss.kstudy.com/Detail/Ar?key=3806828.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Objectives

This study was designed with the objective of contributing to the existing literature on Korean language acquisition by foreigners. The purpose of this study is to analyze the lexical errors made by Dutch learners of Korean. In order to do so, only written material was used for the analysis.

Analyzing LE in written material, such as homework, offers several advantages over oral material. Written material provides a tangible record that allows for a more detailed examination of LE.[34] Lu showed that lexical richness in oral narratives can be assessed to gauge the quality of ESL (English as Foreign Language) learners' speaking performance.[35] However, Crossley et al. found that when it comes to analyzing writing proficiency, especially in identifying lexical sophistication, syntactic complexity, and cohesion, written material offers a more comprehensive and structured approach.[36] This is supported by Badilla and Núñez, whom also concluded from their study that the use of written material enables a systematic examination of LE in ESL students' written production, aiding in the identification and categorization of these errors.[37] Additionally, written material allows for a detailed analysis of LE as predictors of writing quality.[38] Furthermore, Coyle and de Larios found that error correction in written material is more effective in improving linguistic acceptability and comprehensibility compared to models in a second language writing task. They found that the learners noticed and later incorporated predominantly lexical features, proving that written material (and its feedback) is a great tool for lexical analysis.[39]

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[34] Wataru Suzuki, "Written Languaging, Direct Correction, and Second Language Writing Revision," *Language Learning* 62, no. 4 (2012): 1113, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00720.x.

[35] Xiaofei Lu, "The Relationship of Lexical Richness to the Quality of ESL Learners' Oral Narratives," *The Modern Language Journal* 96, no. 2 (2012): 190–208, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01232.x.

[36] Scott A. Crossley et al., "The Development of Writing Proficiency as a Function of Grade Level: A Linguistic Analysis," *Written Communication* 28, no. 3 (July 1, 2011): 282–311, https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088311410188.

[37] Damaris Cordero Badilla and Vianey Martin Núñez, "Lexical Errors in EFL Students' Written Production," *Letras (Heredia, Costa Rica)*, no. 68 (2020): 177, https://doi.org/10.15359/rl.2-68.7.

[38] María del Pilar Agustín Llach, "Lexical Errors and Accuracy in Foreign Language Writing," in *Lexical Errors and Accuracy in Foreign Language Writing* (Multilingual Matters, 2011), 2, https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847694188.

[39] Yvette Coyle and Julio Roca de Larios, "Exploring the Role Played by Error Correction and Models on Children's Reported Noticing and Output Production in a L2 Writing Task," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 36, no. 3 (2014): 1, https://www.jstor.org/stable/26330705.

In contrast, oral material may present challenges in accurately capturing and analyzing LE due to the transient nature of spoken language. According to a comparison study by Zaytseva et al., although oral tasks can be beneficial for certain aspects of language learning, such as vocabulary development, written material remains a more reliable source for in-depth lexical EA.[40] Hence, this study also made use of written material for the lexical EA since it offers a more structured and detailed approach than oral material. Thus, the main research question was formulated as follows:

> What are the prevailing lexical errors Dutch learners of Korean commit when they write in Korean and how can these errors be explained?

This question was extended by the following question in order to find out whether there is a difference in the prevailing errors when the learners are categorized according to their level of proficiency of Korean:

> What is the distribution of lexical errors among different proficiency levels (1-6)?

Additionally, a hypothesis was formulated based on the existing literature on intra- and interlingual influence in second language acquisition:

> The Low-level (1-3) learners will commit more interlingual errors and less intralingual errors than the High-level (4-6) learners.

3.2.   Participants and Data

In this study, a combination of qualitative and quantitative research design was employed by analyzing thirty-eight essays written by native Dutch speakers retrieved from the Korean Learners' Corpus Search Engine.[41] The essays were collected by the Korean Learners' Corpus Search Engine over the course of seven years (2015-2022). The levels of the learners varied from the lowest level of 1 to the highest level of 6. Below, in Figure 1 and the accompanying Table 1, the distribution of the essays by level of Korean (1-6) is shown. Of the 38 essays total, 20 essays (52.6%) were written by learners with level 1, followed by 5 essays (13.2%) of the essays written by learners with the level 2 and learners with level 5. Of

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[40] Victoria Zaytseva, Imma Miralpeix, and Carmen Pérez-Vidal, "Because Words Matter: Investigating Vocabulary Development across Contexts and Modalities," *Language Teaching Research : LTR* 25, no. 2 (2021): 179, https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819852976.

[41] "Kungnipkugŏwŏn Han'gugŏ Haksŭpcha Malmungch'i Nanumt'ŏ 국립국어원 한국어 학습자 말뭉치 나눔터 [Korean Learners' Corpus Search Engine]," accessed May 22, 2024, https://kcorpus.korean.go.kr/index/goMain.do.

the remaining essays, 3 essays (7.9%) were written by learners with level 3 and level 6, and finally only 2 essays (5.3%) were written by learners with level 4. In addition, the time they studied Korean varied from one month to three years. Native Dutch speakers but with a Belgian nationality were excluded from this study, leaving only the essays written by learners with a Dutch nationality. The vast majority of 35 (92.1%) essays were written for tests, with the exception of 3 essays (7.9%) that were written as homework assignments. It was expected that these learners would still make lexical errors despite having more materials or help available, and therefore they were not excluded from the study.

Figure 1: Distribution of essays per Level of Korean
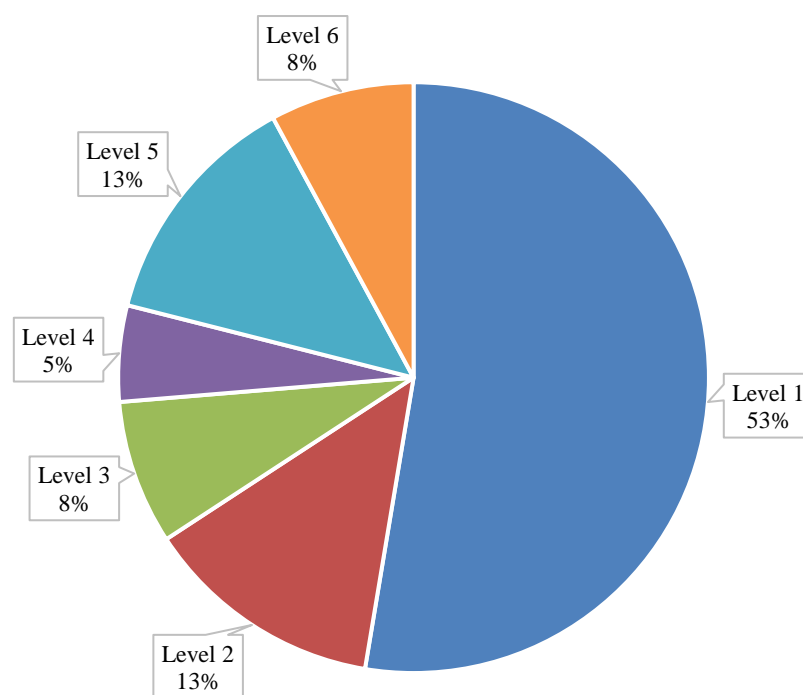

Table 1: Number of essays by Level of Korean

Level of Korean	Number of essays	%
1	20	52.6
2	5	13.2
3	3	7.9
4	2	5.3
5	5	13.2
6	3	7.9
Total	38	100

3.3. Methods

3.3.1. Error Analysis

All thirty-eight essays were analyzed for errors and the errors found were first categorically separated into mistakes and errors. Mistakes included mostly misspellings or when a wrongly used word was used correctly later in the essay, indicating that the learner was aware of the L2 actual rules and nuances. Errors were distinguished by their reoccurring nature, especially in the same essay or when found commonly among all essays, or when the error otherwise indicated a lack of understanding of the L2. Finally, the errors were categorized according to the framework below in Table 2 that summarizes a total of twelve categories which have been classified for the purpose of lexical EA through several studies. The vast majority of these categories and examples are borrowed from the study by Kang and Chang on LE made by American learners of Korean.[42]

Table 2. Lexical error categories

No.	Categories	Descriptions
1	Semantic Similarity	Using synonyms interchangeably though they may not be interchangeable (e.g. long vs. tall)
2	Collocation or Idiomaticy	Wrong choice of collocation or idiomatic expression (e.g. grow knowledge)
3	Inappropriate Honorifics	Misuse of honorifics (e.g. use honorifics for a dog)
4	Level of Diction or Verbosity	Use fancy words to look impressive (e.g. It is 'exorbitant' (= expensive))
5	Lexical Shift	Code switching (e.g. Watasiwa busy tesu)
6	Literal Translation	Misunderstanding of expressions (e.g. Break your leg)
7	Overuse	Overuse of some term (e.g. too many 'good's)
8	Paraphrase or Circumlocution	Using other words one knows when the proper word can't be retrieved
9	Redundancy	Use words with the parts having redundant meaning (e.g. U.S. country)
10	Formal similarity	Misuse of words because of their similar outer features (e.g. veterinarian vs. vegetarian)

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[42] Kang and Chang, "An Analysis of Lexical Errors of Korean Language Learners," 6; Myoung-kwang Kim, "Ŏhwi oryue taehan chindanjŏng ch'awŏnŭi ihae -oegugin haksŭpchadŭrŭl taesangŭro 어휘 오류에 대한 진단적 차원의 이해 -외국인 학습자들을 대상으로 [The diagnostic understanding of lexical errors - in the focus on the foreign learners of Korean -]," *Hanmaryŏn'gu* 44 (2017): 4, https://doi.org/10.16876/klrc.2017..44.33; Seong Cheol Sin, "Hoju han'gugŏ haksŭpchaŭi ŏhwi oryu punsŏk yŏn'gu 호주 한국어 학습자의 어휘 오류 분석 연구 [Australian Students' Lexical Errors in Korean: Type, Frequency and Cause]," *Han'gugŏgyoyuk* 13, no. 1 (June 2002): 16, https://kiss.kstudy.com/Detail/Ar?key=2124955.

No.	Categories	Descriptions
11	Omission or Incompletion	Simplified use of words without specific and essential functional parts (e.g. use 'dish' without 'doing')
12	Sino-Korean collocation	Using the wrong combination of Sino-Korean words, or with native Korean words (e.g. 'medical disease' 醫療病 should be 'disease/illness' 疾病)

3.3.2. Statistical Analysis

In order to examine whether the hypothesis "The Low-level (1-3) learners will commit more interlingual errors and less intralingual errors than the High-level (4-6) learners" is true, statistical analysis was performed. The analysis consisted of descriptive statistics and a Student *t* test supplemented by a Welch *t* test or Mann-Whitney *U* test, and assumption tests for normality (Shapiro-Wilk) and equality of variances (Brown-Forsythe).

According to Richards, interlingual errors stem from the influence of the mother tongue, whereas intralingual errors arise from within the target language.[43] Based on this definition, the current study attempted to make a clear classification of the lexical error categories into inter- and intralingual errors (see Table 3). *Literal Translation* is the only category that falls under interlingual errors, because it stands in direct connection with the mother tongue. *Overuse, Paraphrase or Circumlocution, Redundancy,* and *Sino-Korean collocation* are classified under intralingual errors, because the nature of these errors has to do with a lack of comprehension of the L2 but is not necessarily influenced by the L1. Unfortunately, as Ellis point out, the classification errors into interlingual and intralingual is very difficult as many errors are of ambiguous nature. It is this ambiguity that led to an exclusion of the remaining half of the LE categories (*Semantic Similarity, Collocation or Idiomaticy, Inappropriate Honorifics, Level of Diction or Verbosity, Omission or Incompletion*).

Table 3: Categorization of inter- and intralingual errors

Interlingual	Intralingual	Both (depending on context)
Literal Translation	Overuse	Semantic Similarity
	Paraphrase or Circumlocution	Collocation or Idiomaticy
	Redundancy	Inappropriate Honorifics
	Sino-Korean collocation	Level of Diction or Verbosity
		Omission or Incompletion

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[43] Jack Richards, "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies," *Language Sciences*, February 24, 1971, 11, https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED048579.

After the division of lexical error types by inter-and intralingual errors, they were also grouped according to Low-level (1-3) learners and High-level (4-6) learners. This distinction was made because previous research by Taylor found that elementary learners of English as a second language made more interlingual errors, whereas advanced learners made more intralingual errors. This study can be considered as an extension of Taylor's findings.[44]

In order to examine whether Low-level learners made more interlingual and less intralingual errors than High-level learners, statistical analysis was done by employing a Student *t* test. The Student *t* test is a parametric statistical test used to compare the means of two groups. In this study, that refers to the means of inter- and intralingual errors of the independent groups; group 1 (Low-level learners) and group 2 (High-level learners). The Student *t* test can be deployed on the condition that the following assumptions are true:

1. The data is independent (the groups do not overlap)
2. The data is normally distributed
3. The data has a homogeneity of variance within the groups compared

The Welch *t* test is an adaptation of the parametric Student *t* test and can be deployed even if these assumptions are not met. In other words, even if the data is not normally distributed and has an unequal variances and sample sizes, these tests are able to make a comparison of the means by group. The Mann-Whitney *U* test is a non-parametric statistical test that can be deployed when all the above assumptions for the Student *t* test are violated; it can be used even if the means of the data are not similar, the data is not normally distributed, and the data has unequal variances. Additionally, for the purpose of determining whether a Student *t* test or other statistical test should be considered, assumption checks were used to ascertain the distribution and equality of variances for group 1 and group 2. All statistical analyses were performed using JASP, a free and open-source program for statistical analysis supported by the University of Amsterdam.[45]

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[44] Barry P. Taylor, "The Use of Overgeneralization and Transfer Learning Strategies by Elementary and Intermediate Students of Esl1," *Language Learning* 25, no. 1 (1975): 73–107, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1975.tb00110.x.

[45] "JASP – A Fresh Way to Do Statistics," JASP, June 19, 2024, https://jasp-stats.org/.

4. Results

4.1. Overall Findings

As shown in Table 4, around 92 sentences (15.9%) out of 579 sentences were error-ridden. Since there was more than one error in some of the sentences, the total number of errors accumulated to 101.

Table 4: Overall Findings

Total sentences	%	Sentences with errors	%	Total errors
579	100	92	15.9	101

As shown by the results in Table 5, most errors fall under the category of *Literal Translation*, which accounts for 16 errors (15.8%) of the total errors. This is closely followed by the errors that fall under the four categories: *Omission or incompletion*, *Paraphrase or Circumlocution, Formal similarity,* and *Omission or Incompletion* that each account for 15 errors (14.9%) of the total errors. The third place is taken by the category *Collocation or Idiomaticy* that accounts for 7 errors (6.9%) of the total errors. The fourth place is occupied by *Overuse* which accounts for 6 errors (5.9%). The fifth largest category is *Sino-Korean collocation* which accounts for 5 errors (5.0%). This is followed by *Inappropriate Honorifics* with 4 errors (4.0%), and *Level of Diction or Verbosity* with 3 errors (3.0%). Finally, no error from the analysis falls under the category of *Lexical Shift* or *Redundancy.* In the next chapter, examples of the errors found are presented and discussed.

Table 5: The number and percentage of lexical errors divided by category

No.	Categories	No. of errors	%
1	Literal Translation	16	15.8
2	Semantic Similarity	15	14.9
	Paraphrase or Circumlocution	15	14.9
	Formal similarity	15	14.9
	Omission or Incompletion	15	14.9
3	Collocation or Idiomaticy	7	6.9
4	Overuse	6	5.9
5	Sino-Korean collocation	5	5.0
6	Inappropriate Honorifics	4	4.0
7	Level of Diction or Verbosity	3	3.0
8	Redundancy	0	0.0
9	Lexical Shift	0	0.0
	Total	101	100

Below in Figure 2 the distribution of errors per essay is displayed. On the x-axis, all the learners' essays are listed and sorted from the lowest to the highest level (see the right side of the y-axis). On the left side of the y-axis, the number of errors is recorded. It may be noted that the distribution of errors by category varied greatly per essay. Some essays did not have any errors, whilst others amounted for a great amount of the total errors.

Figure 2: Distribution of Errors by Category per Essay and Level Of Korean
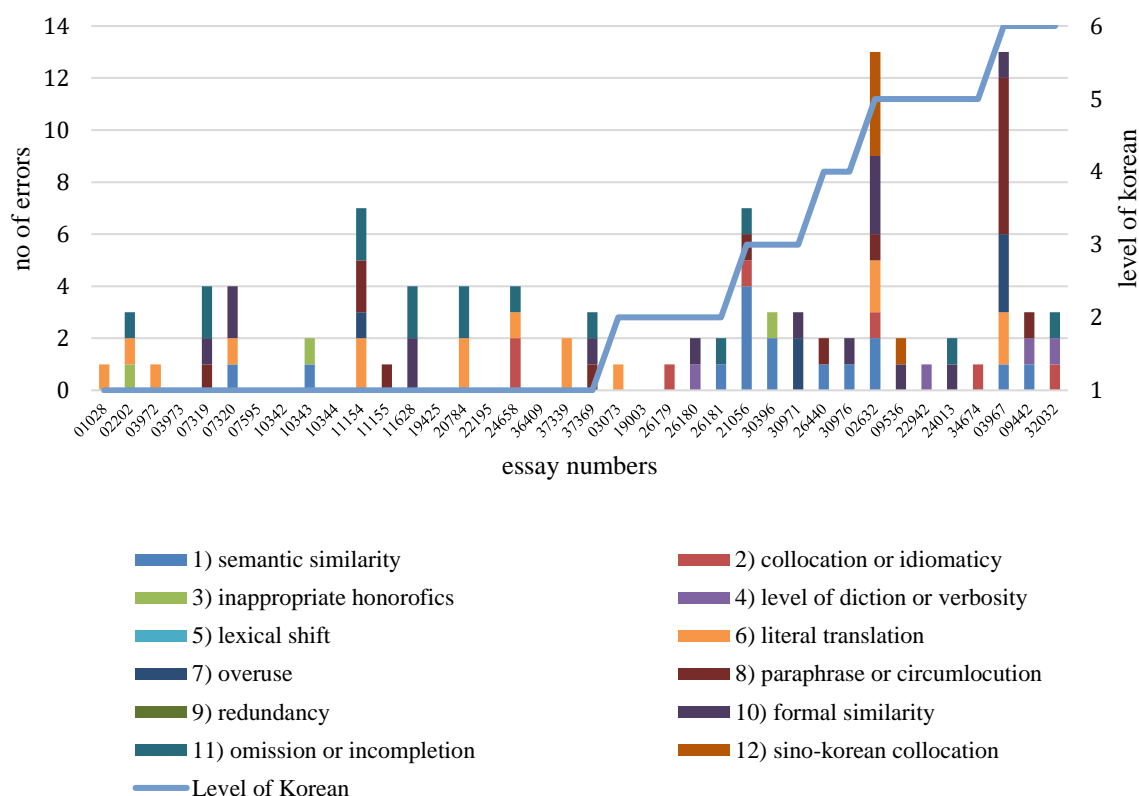
4.2.   Distribution of Lexical Errors by Level of Korean

As shown in Table 6, out of all 6 levels it was the learners from level 6 that relatively had most of the error-ridden sentences out of the total sentences that they wrote; out of the 38 sentences they wrote in total, 14 sentences (36.8%) were error-ridden. Learners from level 5 followed with 16 error-ridden sentences (23.5%) out of 68 sentences total. In third place came learners at level 3 with 12 error-ridden sentences (21.4%) out of 56 sentences total. The fourth place is occupied by level 4 with 4 error-ridden sentences (16.7%) out of 24 sentences total. Then level 1 with 40 error-ridden sentences (12.0%) out of 334 sentences total. Finally, the learners from level 2 had the least error-ridden sentences relatively with only 6 sentences (10.2%) out of 59 sentences containing errors.

Table 6: Distribution of Error-ridden sentences by Level of Korean

Level of Korean	Sum of Total sentences	Sum of Error-ridden sentences	%
6	38	14	36.8
5	68	16	23.5
3	56	12	21.4
4	24	4	16.7
1	334	40	12.0
2	59	6	10.2
Total	579	92	15.9

In Table 7 the relative distribution of errors by total word count and level of Korean shows that learners with level 6 still had the most errors relatively: 19 words with errors (4.9%) out of 391 words in total written by these learners. Learners with level 3 had the second-most words with errors at 13 errors (3.1%) out of 423 words total. Third came both learners with level 1 at 40 errors (2.6%) out of 1510 words, and learners from level 5 with 19 errors (2.6%) out of 727 words total. Second-to-last with the least errors per words were learners with level 4: they had only 4 words with errors (1.6%) out of 246 words total. Lastly, learners from level 2 made the least errors per word with only 6 errors (1.4%) found in 432 words. This results in a total of 101 errors (2.7%) found in all the 3729 words written among all levels.

Table 7: Distribution of errors by word count and Level of Korean

Level of Korean	Sum of Total words	Sum of Total errors	%
6	391	19	4.9
3	423	13	3.1
1	1510	40	2.6
5	727	19	2.6
4	246	4	1.6
2	432	6	1.4
Total	3729	101	2.7

In Table 8, the distribution of all 101 errors committed by the learners in their essays are sorted by category and level of Korean. Level 1 learners made the most errors in two categories: 11 errors in *Literal Translation* and 11 errors in *Omission or Incompletion*. Learners from level 2 did not show significantly more errors in a specific category, rather the errors were spread out equally over six different categories: *Semantic Similarity, Collocation or Idiomaticy, Level of Diction or Verbosity, Literal Translation, Formal similarity,* and *Omission or Incompletion*. Level 3 learners have 6 errors in *Semantic Similarity* compared to 1 or 2 errors in the other categories. Level 4 learners also have most (2) errors in *Semantic Similarity*. Learners from level 5 committed most (5) errors that fall under the category of

Formal similarity. Out of 19 errors in total, learners form level 6 have most (7) errors in the category *Paraphrase or Circumlocution.*

Table 8: Distribution of errors by category and by Level of Korean

No.	Categories	Lv.1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
1	Semantic Similarity	2	1	6	2	2	2	15
2	Collocation or Idiomaticy	2	1	1	0	2	1	7
3	Inappropriate Honorifics	2	0	1	0	0	0	3
4	Level of Diction or Verbosity	0	1	0	0	1	2	4
5	Lexical Shift	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Literal Translation	11	1	0	0	2	2	16
7	Overuse	1	0	2	0	0	3	6
8	Paraphrase or Circumlocution	5	0	1	1	1	7	15
9	Redundancy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	Formal similarity	6	1	1	1	5	1	15
11	Omission or Incompletion	11	1	1	0	1	1	15
12	Sino-Korean collocation	0	0	0	0	5	0	5
	Grand Total	40	6	13	4	19	19	101

4.3.   Hypothesis Testing

In Table 9, the data used for the statistical analysis is summarized. All the essays that were collected were organized into Low or High level of Korean and included the number of inter- and intralingual errors. Table 9 expands on this data by reflecting the percentage of interlingual errors for the total number of errors made by Low-level learners, that amounted to 12 of 59 errors (20.3%) and the High-level learners, that amounted to 4 of 42 errors (9.5%). The intralingual errors resulted to 9 of 59 errors (15.3%) for the Low-level, and 17 of 42 errors (40.5%) for the High-level learners.

Table 9. Summary of Inter- and Intralingual Errors by Level of Korean

Lvl. of Korean	Total errors	Interlingual errors	%	Intralingual errors	%
Low	59	12	20.3	9	15.3
High	42	4	9.5	17	40.5

For the purpose of determining whether a Student *t* test or other statistical test should be deployed, the assumption checks were examined for the following conditions: a) whether the data is normally distributed; b) whether the data has a homogeneity of variance within the groups compared. Additionally, the hypothesis was split into two separate statistical tests for the sake of interpretation. The first test considered whether Low-level learners (group 1) made more interlingual errors than High-level learners (group 2). The second tests conducted

considered whether High-level learners (group 2) made more intralingual errors than Low-level learners (group 1).

H1: Low-level learners make more interlingual errors than High-level learners.

First, the assumption check for normal distribution (Shapiro-Wilk) and the test of equality of variances (Brown-Forsythe) were executed for interlingual errors. The Shapiro-Wilk tests the null hypothesis that the data is normally distributed. The W-value returned by the test is between 0 and 1. A value closer to 1 suggests a normal distribution, whilst a value significantly lower than 1 suggests a deviation from normality. See Table 10 for the results from this study: they indicated a significant deviation from normality for both the Low-level (group 1) and the High-level learners (group 2) with a W-value of 0.646 and 0.509 and a p-value of <.001 (in statistical analysis, a p-value of <.05 is usually considered significant and thus the null hypothesis can be rejected).

Table 10: Test of Normality (Shapiro-Wilk) for Interlingual Errors

		W	**p**
Interlingual errors	Group 1	0.646	< .001
	Group 2	0.509	< .001

Note. Significant results suggest a deviation from normality.

Then, the Brown-Forsythe test was used to test the null hypothesis that the variances of several groups are equal. The F-value returned by the Brown-Forsythe test is the ratio of the variance between the group means of the absolute deviations to the variance within the groups of the absolute deviations. A high F-value suggests that the variances are significantly different among the groups, whilst a low F-value suggests that the variances are not significantly different, implying homogeneity of variances. The results from the Brown-Forsythe test of equality of variances did not suggest different variances with a low F-value of 0.011 and a p-value of 0.916.

Table 11: Test of Equality of Variances (Brown-Forsythe) for Interlingual Errors

	F	**df$_1$**	**df$_2$**	**p**
Interlingual errors	0.011	1	36	0.916

In summary, the data for interlingual errors was not normally distributed, but did have somewhat equal variances. So, based on the results of the assumption checks it was decided to deploy a Welch *t* test to examine the hypothesis that the High-level learners commit less

interlingual errors than the Low-level learners. The Welch *t* test tests whether the null hypothesis that he mean number of interlingual errors is the same for both High-level and Low-level learners is true or not. The alternative hypothesis tested was if the Low-level learners (group 1) make more interlingual errors than the High-level learners (group 2). The test statistic is 0.096, which indicates a very small difference in means between the two groups. The Welch *t* test also returned a p-value of 0.462, which is far greater than the threshold of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and there is also no statistically significant evidence to suggest that High-level learners make fewer interlingual errors than Low-level learners, thus the alternative hypothesis that High-level learners make less interlingual errors than Low-level learners was rejected.

Table 12: Independent Samples T-Test for Interlingual Errors

	Test	Statistic	df	p
Interlingual errors	Student	0.106	36.000	0.458
	Welch	0.096	13.561	0.462

Note. For all tests, the alternative hypothesis specifies that group *1* is greater than group *2* .

H$_2$: High-level learners make more intralingual errors than low-level learners.

The Shapiro-Wilk tested the null hypothesis that the data was normally distributed for intralingual errors and returned a W-value of 0.518 and 0.645, indicating that the data deviated significantly from a normal distribution, with a p-value of <.001 supporting this as a statistically significant claim for both groups; both the Low and High-level learners.

Table 13: Test of Normality (Shapiro-Wilk) for Intralingual Errors

		W	p
Intralingual errors	Group 1	0.518	< .001
	Group 2	0.645	< .001

Note. Significant results suggest a deviation from normality.

Secondly, the Brown-Forsythe test of equality of variances tested the null hypothesis that the variances were equal for intralingual errors. The results from the Brown-Forsythe test suggested unequal variances in the data for intralingual errors with a high F-value of 6.325 and suggested statistical significance with a p-value of 0.017.

Table 14: Test of Equality of Variances (Brown-Forsythe) for Intralingual Errors

	F	df$_1$	df$_2$	p
Intralingual errors	6.325	1	36	0.017

Because the assumption checks suggested abnormal distribution and unequal variances in the data for intralingual errors, it was determined to deploy a Mann-Whitney *U* test to examine the hypothesis that the High-level learners (group 2) make more intralingual errors than the Low-level learners (group 1). The Mann-Whitney tested the null hypothesis that the means for both groups are the same and the alternative hypothesis that the mean for group 2 is higher than the mean for group 1. The test returns a U-value, which is calculated based on the ranks of observations from both groups combined. A smaller U-value indicates that the observations in one group tend to have higher ranks (or larger values) compared to the other group. Larger U-values suggest that the observations in one group tend to have lower ranks (or smaller values) compared to the other group. The U-value returned was 183.000, which is rather high and suggests that the observations in one group tend to have smaller values than the other group. The p-value is 0.039, which is less than the threshold of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Additionally, the alternative hypothesis that the High-level learners commit more intralingual errors was found to be true. This provides statistically significant evidence to suggest that High-level learners make more intralingual errors than Low-level learners.

Table 15: Independent Samples T-Test for Intralingual Errors

	Test	**Statistic**	**df**	**p**
Intralingual errors	Student	-2.313	36	0.013
	Mann-Whitney	97.000		0.039

Note. For all tests, the alternative hypothesis specifies that group *1* is less than group *2* .

5. Discussion

In this section examples of the errors that were found in the data analysis are discussed by following the order of the categories as established in Table 5, with the categories that included most errors that were found (Literal Translation) being discussed first, and concluding with the category that least errors were found to be part of discussed last (Level of Diction or Verbosity). Since there were no errors found to belong to the categories of *Lexical Shift* and *Redundancy*, these categories were excluded from the discussion. The examples taken from the essays were converted from Korean using the McCune-Reischauer romanization system to improve readability, and accompanied by translations into English, and when deemed relevant, a translation into Dutch as well. All translations were done by the author.

5.1. Literal Translation

Table 16: Error examples of Literal Translation

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
1	*uri abŏjiga chinan hyugae mani sajinŭl tchikŭsyŏtsŭmnida*	On our last trip, my father many/a lot took pictures. *Mijn vader heeft afgelopen vakantie veel foto's gemaakt.*	20784	1

In the first example, the learner literally translated the Dutch sentence into Korean which resulted in the use of the adverb *mani* (many/a lot) that would have been fine if it was not wrongly paired with a noun, instead of a verb. It happens to be the case that in this sentence there is a verb; *tchikŭsyŏtsŭmnida* (to take a picture) at the end with which *mani* could be paired. Then, the correct word order is *mani tchikŭsyŏtsŭmnida*. The other possible correction of this error is to conjugate the stem verb *mant'a* correctly; *manŭn* which can be paired with a noun. However, when you write this sentence in Dutch syntax, you should use the adverb for *veel* (many/a lot) but indeed pair it with the noun *foto's* (pictures). Hence, the learner tried to literally translate the Dutch sentence into Korean, but an error was committed because the Korean adverb could not be paired with the following noun, even though that is not an issue in Dutch. This highlights a common occurrence in second language acquisition: the transfer of rules from L1 into L2, resulting in an interlingual error. The level of Korean here is a good clue for the cause of the error that was committed: this learner is still very much a beginner, so it can be expected that they try to apply the L1 rules to the new situation. In this case, that did not work out because Dutch and Korean syntax differ with the placement of adverbs.

5.2.   Omission or Incompletion

Table 17: Error examples of Omission or Incompletion

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
2	*kŏnnŭn [ ] kagerŭl kugyŏnghashipshio*	[Whilst you are] walking, please look around the shops. *[Terwijl je] loopt, kijk dan rond naar/in de winkels.*	07319	1
3	*syop'ingdo [ ] ship'ŏtsŭmnida*	I also [wanted to] shop. *[Ik wilde] ook shoppen.*	11628	1

In the second example from the analysis the learner left out the Korean word for "whilst" in connection to "walking." This error was persistent also in the rest of the essay; the learner consistently left out *tongan* (whilst/during) in all the sentences that it should have been used. Without this addition, the sentence was erroneous and cannot be considered as a functioning expression.

A similar type of error was also found in another essay, where the learner left out the verb-making suffix (see the third example). In this instance, the verbalizer *hata* was left out from the noun *syop'ing* and the sentence became erroneous. A possible explanation is that the learner did not realize the verbalizer is always needed, because this error was also consistent throughout the essay. Even more, in Dutch there is technically no difference between the noun and verb for shopping; this could suggest the learner tried to apply the L1 rules of Dutch into the L2 situation for Korean. But here we see one of the limitations of EA: the error could also indicate an inadequate grasp of the L2 syntax and morphology that resulted in consistent errors, making it more difficult to determine the source of the problem.

5.3.   Semantic Similarity

Table 18: Error examples of Semantic Similarity

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
4	*maennal pame 7shina 8shigan chamyŏn chot'a.*	It is good to sleep seven or eight hours every day [at] night. *Het is goed om elke dag 's nachts zeven tot acht uur te slapen.*	21056	3
5	*sŏnginbyŏng innŭn saram panmyŏne haengbok'age k'in samŭl sal su innŭn sarami toenŭn kŏn chot'a.*	It's good to be someone who can happily live a *long* life instead of being someone with adult disease. *Het is goed om iemand te zijn die lang kan level [in plaats van] iemand te zijn met ouderdomsziekten.*	21056	3

In both of the examples (four and five) above in Table 18, the learner was confused with the semantic nuance of the words. For the sentence in example four, to express "every night" in

Korean you can use a combination of the words *maeil* (every day) and *pam* (night). Although the learner understood that combination, they used a word similar in semantic: *maennal* (every day); but it is not used with *pam* normally, which resulted in an erroneous expression.

Again, in the fifth example a similar error occurred when the learner tried to express a "long life." Instead of using the Korean word *oraen* (long) that indicates a long period of time, they chose the word for "long" that means lengthy. Though the expression that the learner wrote in their essay is also used in Korean (a "lengthy life") it was still marked as an error since the remaining parts of the essay included a number of errors that belong to the category of Semantic Similarity, and it was subsequently judged that this learner had not yet acquired solid command of the semantic nuances in certain words or expressions.

Both of these examples could suggest that the learners are still developing their interlanguage and make an overgeneralization of the L2 vocabulary that they already acquired but applying them in a context that calls for more nuance in the L2. The learners are both of a beginner-intermediate level, which is supportive of the argument that they attempt to use their existing (beginner) knowledge in a new (intermediate) situation. Fortunately, this type of error is easily corrected with an increased exposure and practice to the nuance of the vocabulary and its appropriate context.

5.4. Paraphrase or Circumlocution

Table 19: Error examples of Paraphrase or Circumlocution

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
6	*i ch'in'guwa kach'i chunggung ŭmshikŭl chŏngmal choahaeyo.*	Together with my friend [we] like Chinese food a lot. *Samen met mijn vriend/Net als mijn vriend hou [ik] heel erg van Chinees eten.*	11154	1
7	*ibŏn panghagi chŏnŭn nedŏllandŭihago chunggukto kal kŏyeyo.* <u>*kibuni chŏngmal choayo.*</u> *chunggugi aju arŭmdawŏsŏ kibuni chŏngmal choayo.*	This vacation, I will go to the Netherlands and China. I feel really good. I feel really good because China is very beautiful. *Deze vakantie ga ik naar Nederland en China. Ik voel me heel goed. Ik voel me heel goed omdat China zo mooi is.*	11154	1

In the sixth example, an error was found in part of the sentence that translates to "together with my friend." Although the expression used in Korean could technically have another translation of "just like my friend - I like Chinese food a lot," in the context of the rest of the essay, it could be interpreted that the learner who wrote this meant that both them and their friend like Chinese food a lot. Since this was the case, there is a better way to express this in

Korean by using *uri tulta* (both of us). Hence, it was interpreted that the learner used circumlocution in example six. This is not surprising: the learner in this example is a complete beginner and probably made use of a communication strategy[46] to convey meaning despite limited skill in the target language.

At first glance, the seventh example is not an erroneous sentence. However, it becomes one when the context it was found in is taken into consideration. What the learner meant to express with the error-marked sentence was "I am really excited/looking forward to it." But the learner could not find the proper wording to express this, and thus tried to paraphrase that expression of excitement with *kibuni chŏngmal choayo*. Unfortunately, that did not fit into the rest of the essay because it simply means to feel good, and made this sentence stand out as an error. Again, the learner was a beginner, and used paraphrasing as a strategy of communication.

5.5. Formal Similarity

Table 20: Error examples of Formal similarity

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
8	*nedŏllandŭe pumowa chanyŏdŭlgwa kach'i sanŭn haekkajokŭn yennalbut'ŏ insangjŏgin kajogiŏnnŭnde han'guge haekkajong chŏne taegajokŭn insangjŏgin kajong hyŏngt'aeyŏtta.*	The core family living with parents and children in the Netherlands has long been an impressive family, but before the core family in Korea, the extended family was an impressive family type. *De kernfamilie waar ouders en hun kinderen samenwonen is al sinds vroeger een indrukwekkende familie in Nederland, maar in Korea was voor de kernfamilie eerst de meerdere generatie familie een indrukwekkende familie.*	02632	5
9	*kŭraesŏ chŏnŭn aju syop'ingŭl hamnida.*	So I very shop. *Dus ik veel shoppen.*	37369	1

The eighth example demonstrates an example where the learner confused two words in Korean with each other because of their similar outer features. The words that the learner used was *insangjŏgida* but the word that they meant to use was *ilbanjŏgida*. Instead of describing a common family type, it translated to an impressive family type. This learner was advanced, but probably was confused with the visual and phonetic similarity of the words. Correction of this type of error is best done with increased exposure and practice of the words in different context and situations. Especially reading exercises to understand the context in which the words are used might be helpful to correct this type of error.

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[46] Richards, "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies," 16.

In the ninth example the learner used the word *aju* but they meant to use the word *chaju* which means often or regularly. If the learner had used the correct word, that would have translated to "So I go shopping a lot" instead of "So I a lot/very shop." This learner was a complete beginner, so in order to correct this type of error it can be useful to study vocabulary lists with similar formal similarities.

5.6.   Collocation or Idiomaticy

Table 21: Error examples of Collocation or Idiomaticy

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
10	*kyŏuri issŭmyŏn nuni ol kŏyeyo.*	When there is winter, snow will fall. *Als er winter is, gaat het sneeuwen.*	24658	1
11	*suŏp'an hue chŏnŭn hoegi shiktangesŏ chŏmshimŭl mŏkko k'ŏp'isyobesŏ sukcherŭl hago arŭbait'ŭrŭl hamnida.*	After I have done class, I go to a [ ] restaurant and eat lunch, then I do my homework in a café and I work my side job.	26179	2

The tenth example shows an error of collocation. In Korean, when you talk about the change of a season such as the learner did here, you should use the word of *oda* (to come) thus you would say *kyŏuri omyŏn* (when winter comes). Learners often make collocation error when they have insufficient knowledge of the conventional word pairings in the target language. Focused collocation exercises could be a strategy to correct collocation errors.

In example eleven, the learner meant "After I finish class" in the sense that they finished attending class. However, because he used another verb to go with class then the conventional pairing, the sentence in Korean now implies that they were giving the class instead of attending. It would have been more fitting in this context that the learner used the conventional collocation verb *tŭtta* (to listen) thereby conveying the meaning of "after I attended class." Detailed instruction on the different nuances that are connected to collocation can be a method to overcome this error.

5.7.   Overuse

Table 22: Error examples of Overuse

	Error examples	Translations (English)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
12	*kŭrŏch'iman 18shidaeenŭn nedŏllandŭ saramdŭrŭn taeshin hŭgin noyedŭrŭl shint'ŏk'ŭllasŭ ch'ukcheesŏ i kulttung sojebuŭi yŏk'arŭn yŏn'gihaetta. ...waenyahamyŏn yennare shint'ŏk'ŭllasŭ ch'ukcheesŏ nedŏllandŭ saramdŭrŭn taeshine hŭgin noyedŭrŭn kulttung sojebuŭi yŏk'arŭl*	However, in the 18th century, black slaves played the role of this chimney sweeper in the Sinterklaas Festival instead of the Dutch. Because once upon a time black slaves played the role of chimney sweepers instead of the Dutch at the Sinterklaas Festival, which can be considered	03967	6

Error examples	Translations (English)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
yŏn'gihaessŭmyŏ igŏsŭn ch'abyŏrŭro kanjuhal su itta. *... taeshine chigŭmkkaji shint'ŏk'ŭllasŭ ch'ukcherŭl yŏl ttaemada temorŭl hanŭn saramdŭri tashi nat'ananda*	discrimination. Instead, every time we hold a Sinterklaas festival so far, people who are demonstrating again appear.		

In the twelfth example, the learner overused the word for "instead." In a total of fifteen sentences the learner used that word three times. The overuse of "instead" was unnecessary because in some sentences there were better options to choose from. For example, in the last sentence the learner meant "therefore" so they could have used the word *kŭraesŏ* or *ttarasŏ* that mean "so, therefore, accordingly, consequently." What can be determined with quite certainty, is that this was an *intralingual* error because the use of "instead" would not make sense in Dutch, hence this error did not occur due to language transfer. This learner has an advanced mastery of the L2, but they probably over-relied on familiar words in the L2 because they lacked information of alternatives.

5.8. Sino-Korean Collocation

Table 23: Error examples of Sino-Korean Collocation

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
13	*kedaga namnyŏp'yŏngdŭnggwa kanghangnyŏng chŭngga ttaemune 1in kaguga nŭrŏnago itta.*	In addition, the number of single-person households is increasing due to the increase in gender equality and strong education. *Bovendien neemt het aantal éénpersoons huishoudens toe vanwege gender gelijkheid en een hoog opleidingsniveau.*	02632	5

In example thirteen the learner used a wrong Sino-Korean collocation by putting together the Chinese characters for "strong" and "level of education." What they meant was a high level of education which should have been a collocation of the Chinese character for *ko* 高 (high) instead of *kang* 強 (strong) and *hangnyŏk* 學歷 (level of education) resulting in the Sino-Korean word *kohangnyŏk* 高學歷 (being highly educated). The cause of this error is clear: the learner has an advanced command of the L2 but lacks some understanding of the usage Chinese characters in it. By a deep study of Chinese characters and their usage in Korean, this type of error can be corrected. That Dutch learners are more inclined to make Sino-Korean collocation error is hardly surprising. Learners with a native command of a language that also

uses Chinese characters, such as Japanese, have an advantage over native speakers of other languages.

5.9.   Inappropriate Honorifics

Table 24: Error examples of Inappropriate Honorifics

	Error examples	Translations (English and Dutch)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
14	*kŭresŏ yakŭl tŭrŏssŏyo.*	So I [ate] medicine. *Dus ik [nam] medicijnen.*	02202	1

In the fourteenth example, the learner wanted to express that they had taken medicine. Instead, they used an honorific form *tŭrida* that means "to give." So, whilst technically this sentence was not incorrect, again the context revealed that this is not what the learner intended to say and therefore was marked as an error. It would have been more fitting to use the neutral expression of *mŏkta* which means "to eat." The learner that committed this error is a complete beginner, so honorifics – which do not exist in Dutch – can be quite challenging at this level. As the interlanguage of this learner develops, the better they will become at inserting the correct honorific in a given situation.

5.10.   Level of Diction or Verbosity

Table 25: Error examples of Level of Diction or Verbosity

	Error examples	Translations (English)	Essay no.	Lvl. of Korean
15	*At'einanŭn nŏmu chaemiitko kippŏtsŭmnida.*	Athena was so fun and happy.	26180	2
16	*ch'ŏttchae, kyŏrhonŭl haji annŭn chŏlmŭnidŭri chŭnggahada poni kŭro inhae 1in kaguga chŭnggahago itta. kŭrŏna, yojŭm chŏlmŭnidŭrŭi nuni nop'asŏ kyŏrhonhallaeya hal suga ŏpta.*	First, as the number of young people who do not marry increases, the number of single-person households is increasing. However, the standards of young people these days are so high that they cannot get married even if they want to.	22942	5

In the fifteenth example the learner wanted to express how much they had enjoyed their travel destination. However, they used a fancy word (*kippŏtsŭmnida*) that did not fit properly into the sentence. The word that they used means "glad, happy, pleased, delighted" in Korean, but it was judged that simply *choatsŭmnida* to convey "I felt good/great/happy" would be more fitting in this sentence.

The sixteenth example demonstrates another case where the learner attempted to use a formal/fancy word but could have better used something simpler, because it changed the meaning of the sentence. They used the Korean word *kŭrŏna* for "but, though, however,

nevertheless" but *kedaga* (moreover) or *tultchaero* (secondly) would have better fitted the sum-up explanation they wanted to convey.

Both errors seem to indicate a lack of vocabulary or lexical nuance, leading to confusing in the level of diction.

5.11. Hypothesis

The statistical analysis revealed that the hypothesis "The Low-level (1-3) learners will commit more interlingual errors and less intralingual errors than the High-level (4-6) learners" was partly refuted and partly supported. In other words, it was found that the Low-level learners did not necessarily commit more interlingual errors, but it was supported by the analysis that the High-level learners did commit more intralingual errors.

A possible explanation for the finding that High-level learners do not produce less interlingual errors than their Low-level counterparts can be found in the interlanguage theory of Selinker.[47] Interlanguage is created by the learner of a second language when they progress from the native language towards the target language. According to the theory, interlanguage is distinct from both the L1 and L2, and is very dynamic in nature because it evolves as the learners progresses. L1 influences the interlanguage in both positive and negative ways; L1 structures may facilitate or interfere with the acquiring of L2. This transfer of language is also found in fossilization. Selinker argues that there is a linguistic process called fossilization that occurs in the interlanguage in which some wrong linguistic structures are never really replaced with the correct alternative, leading to a fossilization of errors. [48] The role of language transfer here is very important; Selinker found language transfer to be a necessity or at least a dominant factor in the process of fossilization.[49] Even more, interlingual errors are more likely to fossilize than intralingual errors, because they stem from the L1 which is more deeply ingrained in the learner than the L2, and that makes interlingual errors also harder to correct. So, learners that are more advanced may still commit the same language transfer errors as they did when they were beginners, resulting in the amount of interlingual errors being somewhat similar among Low-level and High-level learners.

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[47] Selinker, "INTERLANGUAGE."

[48] Selinker, 221.

[49] Larry Selinker and Susan M. Gass, *Language Transfer in Language Learning*, Language Acquisition & Language Disorders (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1992), 221, https://login.ezproxy.leidenuniv.nl:2443/login?URL=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=e000xww&AN=385648&site=ehost-live.

Next, the results from the hypothesis testing suggest that Low-level learners do make less intralingual errors than High-level learners. This can be explained by a number of factors in second language acquisition. First, High-level learners attempt to use more complex and nuanced structures and vocabulary, which can lead to more errors because these structures and vocabulary have a more restricted use, thus a higher chance of being used in an erroneous way than more universally applicable simpler language that the beginning learners use. Second, the accumulated knowledge of the learners in the target language may sometimes increase the number of intralingual errors committed because learner is then more likely to overgeneralize with the mastery they already have of the L2 in irregular or exceptional cases, whereas the beginner does not have the information that can be used to overgeneralize yet.[50] Thirdly, more advanced learners will experiment and test the boundaries of their understanding of the L2 because they have to worry less about being able to communicate than the beginning learners. Lastly, the High-level learners have developed an interlanguage that comes closer to the L2 than the beginning learners, so relatively the largest part of the errors committed stem more from within the L2 in comparison with the beginners.

5.12. Significance of the Results

To summarize, the results from this study suggest that literal translation (language transfer) is the most prevailing error among Dutch learners of Korean, closely followed by confusion with semantic similarity, paraphrasing or circumlocution, confusion with formal similarity, and omission or incompletion errors. When we take the proficiency levels of the learners into account and look at the absolute number of errors, the results suggest that literal translation is a prevalent error among beginners, confusion with semantic similarity is the most frequent error of intermediate learners, and confusion with formal similarity and paraphrasing or circumlocution is the most often found in advanced learners. These results teach us that it is important to focus on different sources of difficulty, and deploy different learning strategies as learners progress in their language study.

However, additional statistical analysis revealed that there was no significant difference in the relative number of literal translation (interlingual) errors among Low and High-level learners. Instead, there was a significant difference in intralingual errors in Low and High-level learners. These results suggest that 1) the process of fossilization contributes to High-level learners still committing a similar number of interlingual errors as the Low-

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[50] Selinker, "INTERLANGUAGE," 217–18.

level learners despite a better grasp of the target language; 2) expanded knowledge of the target language for High-level learners contributes to committing more errors within the target language in comparison with the Low-level learners. What do these results tell us? First, the results indicate that the learners should adopt strategies to correct interlingual errors, especially when they enter more advanced stages of their learning. This is because those errors will otherwise fossilize, which makes them even more difficult to rectify. Such strategies may involve immediate feedback by the teacher, as well as keeping error logs in which learners log their errors and corrections to identify reoccurring issues and create awareness of them. Additionally, in a classroom situation it would be ideal to highlight the differences and similarities between the L1 and L2. This is where studies like the current one can make useful contributions; by identifying the common errors made by Dutch speakers, instructors and learners can take note of the difficulties and use exercises and drills that focus specifically on problematic areas. Secondly, the results show that the High-level learners should be made aware of the tendency for overgeneralization and inappropriate use of complex structures and vocabulary. A strategy that may be implanted to battle overgeneralization is to spend extra time on exceptions and irregularities when a general rule is being instructed. Additionally, using a language corpus of authentic examples by native speakers may help in overcoming inappropriate use of structures or vocabulary. Then again, being experimental with language is a natural and positive behavior because the learner is really engaging with the language and making it their own.

6. Conclusion

The current research aimed to identify the most prevalent lexical errors made by Dutch learners of Korean.

The central questions for this research were as follows:

1. What are the prevailing lexical errors Dutch learners of Korean commit when they write in Korean and how can these errors be explained?
2. What is the distribution of lexical errors among different proficiency levels (1-6)?

Thirty-eight essays written by Dutch learners of Korean were analyzed for lexical errors using Corder's error analysis. The results of this qualitative approach revealed that literal translation was the most prevalent error among all learners. The distribution of errors among different proficiency levels was as follows: learners with level 1 made the most errors in two categories: literal translation and omission or incompletion. The errors for learners from level 2 were equally distributed over six different categories; there was no indication for a particular area of difficulty for these learners. Level 3 and 4 learners had most difficulty with semantic similarity. Learners from level 5 were most confused with formal similarity. Learners with level 6 made the most errors with paraphrasing or circumlocution.

The study confirmed the hypothesis that learners with high proficiency levels made more intralingual errors than learners with low proficiency levels. However, the study indicated that there was no evidence for the hypothesis that learners with low proficiency levels tend to make more interlingual errors than their counterparts with high proficiency levels. This unexpected result may be caused by the fossilization of these errors. Elements of the L1 fossilize in the interlanguage – even of advanced learners – causing learners of all proficiency levels to commit language transfer errors.

Although the small dataset of this study limits generalizability, this research has shown that language transfer (literal translation) errors are the most prevalent, and the most serious type of errors for Dutch learners of Korean. These results imply that language teaching should focus on the differences and similarities of Dutch and Korean, because that is the most challenging area for Dutch learners. The limitations of this study call for additional studies to examine what specific elements of Dutch are problematic for learners studying Korean, so language teaching may profit further from the results of SLA studies.

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