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in Collaboration with
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EDITORS’ NOTE

This international seminar on Language Maintenance and Shift IV (LAMAS IV for short) is a continuation of the previous international seminar with the same theme conducted by the Master Program in Linguistics, Diponegoro University on 18 November 2014.

We would like to extend our deepest gratitude to the seminar committee for putting together the seminar that gave rise to this collection of papers. Thanks also go to the Head and the Secretary of the Master Program in Linguistics Diponegoro University, without whom the seminar would not have been possible.

The table of contents lists all the papers presented at the seminar: The first four papers are those presented by invited keynote speakers. They are Dr. Sugiyono (Badan Pengembangan dan Pembinaan Bahasa, Jakarta, Indonesia), Dr. Zane Goebel (La Trobe University, Melbourne, Australia), Prof. Yudha Thianto, Ph.D. (Trinity Christian College, Illinois, USA), Dr. Deli Nirmala, M.Hum (Diponegoro University, Semarang, Indonesia).

In terms of the topic areas, there are 21 papers in applied linguistics, 20 papers in sociolinguistics, 14 papers in theoretical linguistics, 18 papers in discourse/pragmatics, and 13 papers (miscellaneous).

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THE ACQUISITION OF UNIVERSAL QUANTIFIERS IN INDONESIAN (ISO 639-3: IND): A PRELIMINARY REPORT

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Abstract

Current study specifically concerns with the acquisition of universal quantifiers in Indonesian, e.g., masing-masing/setiap “each/every”, semua “all”. Previous studies, e.g., Vendler (1967), Ioup (1975), Brooks & Braine (1996), Brooks et al. (2001), showed that all and each/every have innate collective, e.g., All the boys are riding an elephant, and distributive, e.g., Each boy is riding an elephant, representations respectively. This study mainly aims to reinvestigate the innateness of the two meanings. The study used picture selection tasks. Five different sets of stimuli were employed. Three different groups of subjects participated: 20 younger children (4-to-6-year old), 30 older children (7-to-12-year old), and 30 adults (17-to-22-year old). The results indicated that there was no evidence that the younger children were able to restrict the use of quantifiers to its domain, i.e., the noun it modifies. Furthermore, there was even no evidence that they could assign the distributive and collective meanings to masing-masing “each” and semua “all” respectively. In contrast, over 95% of the older children’s and adults’ use of the quantifiers was correct. Additionally, their assignment to the distributive meaning of masing-masing “each” was over 90% correct. For semua “all”, nevertheless, only about 50% of their responses represented the canonical meaning, i.e., collective. Moreover, the results from quantifier spreading tests informed that half of the younger children preferred a symmetrical relation between masing-masing “each” and its domain, while the other half preferred an asymmetrical relation. Thus, their preference to the symmetrical response, as suggested by Philip (1995), is not observed here. To conclude, all the evidence suggests that children’s universal quantifier acquisition is delayed until they are approximately at age 7. The learning process, in the sense of Bowerman (2001), and Borer and Wexler’s Maturation Hypothesis (1987) might factor in the delay. In other words, the innate collective and distributive meanings of all and each/every are not confirmed in this study.

Keywords: acquisition, universal quantifiers, innate, distributive, collective

Background

Current study specifically concerns with universal quantifiers in Indonesian, e.g., semua “all”, setiap/masing-masing “each/every”. Two classical studies on the universal quantifiers by Vendler (1967) and Ioup (1975) inspired this study. Vendler (1967) says that there are two basic representations of the universal quantifiers *all*, *each*, and *every* in English. The first one is *collective* where the predicate applies to all group members as can be seen in *All the boys are riding an elephant*. The meaning of this sentence is that all boys are riding the same elephant. The second one is *distributive* where the predicate applies to each of the group members as in the sentence *Each boy is riding an elephant*. The interpretation of the sentence is that every boy is riding a different elephant. Vendler further explains that the collective representation of *all* and the distributive representation of *each* are canonical.

Ioup (1975), in his universal quantifier study on fourteen languages, claimed that all languages have universal quantifiers with the same meanings as *all* and *each* in English. Basically, Ioup’s study points out that all languages distinguish the collective meaning from the distributive one in which each of the meanings is marked with different universal quantifiers.

One crucial point of the claims of the two studies just mentioned is that the collective and distributive meanings of the universal quantifiers are primitive or *innate* in nature. The claim is further supported by other studies (e.g., Brooks and Braine, 1996; Brooks et al., 2001, etc.).

This study mainly aims to further examine the innateness of universal quantifier representations in Indonesian by testing three research questions (1) can children and adults restrict the use of a quantifier to its domain (i.e., the noun it modifies)?, (2) are the collective and distributive meanings of *all* and *each/every* innate in nature?, and (3) do children prefer a symmetrical relation in using *setiap/masing-masing* “each”?

Methods

Definition of Data

Since this study deals with quantifiers, I should provide working definitions on quantifiers and data that will be included in the analysis. Following Guasti (2002: 314), what it means by quantifiers is “those expressions that combine directly with a noun, have no adverbial use, and cannot modify pronouns, e.g., *every, all, few, a, there*”.

There are two different kinds of quantifiers: universal (*all, every/each*) and existential (*some, a/an*). This study only concerns with the universal quantifiers. Thus, the data used in this study are sentences containing the universal quantifiers in Indonesian, e.g., *Semua anak sedang membuat sebuah layang-layang* “**All** children are making a kite”, *Setiap/masing-masing anak sedang membuat sebuah layang-layang* “**Every** child is making a kite”).

Data Collecting

The experiment was conducted in Bali. I worked with Indonesian native speakers, both children and adults. Data were elicited using Indonesian sentences containing universal quantifiers. The data was recorded on a work-sheet for each participant. *Picture selection tasks* were used. In the tasks, participants have to select an appropriate picture based on the stimuli given to them. More explanation on the stimuli and the procedure of experiment will be provided in the experiment section below.

Research Participants

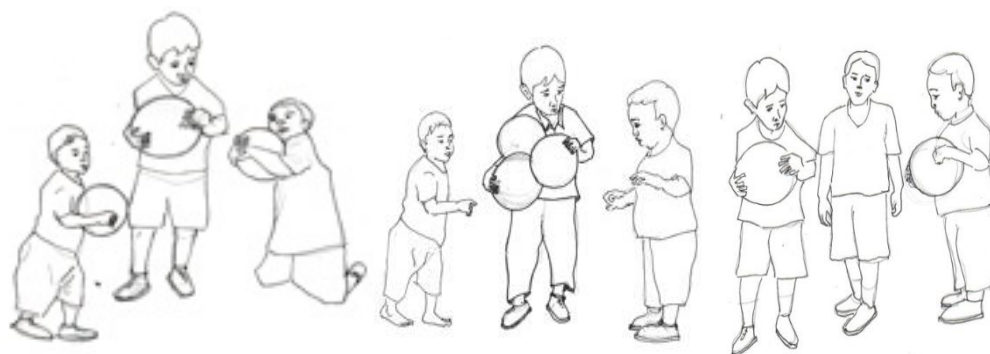
There were three groups of participants: 20 play group and kindergarten children at the Swadarma School (4-to-6-year old), 30 elementary students (1-6 graders) at the Bali Public Schools (7-to-12-year old), and 30 undergraduate students at the English Department, Universitas Udayana (17-to-22 year old). Regarding children socio-economic background, they are from middle class families based on parental education and occupational prestige. In addition, they are normally developing children. The information is from schools’ teachers and my direct observation, e.g., personal talk with each child. For example, in my talk with them (especially to the younger children) we conversed about their hobbies, breakfasts, foods, etc. In this fashion, I expected that I would be able to test their ability to produce simple sentences, i.e., sentences that at least have a SVO, i.e., Subject-Verb-Object, word order.

To recruit the participants, written consent forms, i.e., the study proposal, containing the general idea and the detailed procedure of the study, was sent to the Principals of the schools. After the permission from the schools was obtained, meetings between the Principals, the teachers and the experimenter were administered to further explain about the experiments and to give them a chance to ask questions about the study. The experiments were administered at the schools.

Stimuli

Stimuli in the form of pictures¹ describing children doing certain activities were employed in this study. There were 5 sets of stimuli. Each stimuli consists of pictures describing different activities from the other stimuli. One example of the stimuli is presented below.

¹ Thanks to Dewa Diasana Putra for assisting me create the pictures used in the stimuli



Picture A

Picture B

Picture C

Stimuli 2

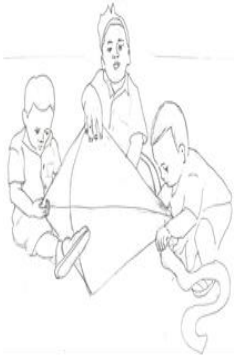
Each stimuli employed in this study contains three pictures. Methodologically, a set of stimuli having three pictures is reliable since it has a smaller guessing factor by participants compared to that with two pictures, for example. Thus, with a stimuli having three pictures can it be expected a more reliable representation of universal quantifiers by participants since the representation should be processed through more careful computing in their mind.

To elicit participants' knowledge on the universal quantifiers, sentences containing Indonesian universal quantifiers such as *semua* “all”, *masing-masing* “each” along with a stimuli were given. Based on the stimuli and the sentences, the participants provided their responses by selecting an appropriate picture in the stimuli.

Findings and Discussion

The findings show that there is no evidence that the younger children are able to restrict the use of quantifiers to its domain. Furthermore, there is no evidence that they can assign the distributive meaning to *masing-masing* “each” and the collective meaning to *semua* “all”. In contrast, the older children and adults are able to restrict the quantifiers to the nouns. Specifically, over 90% of the older children responded correctly to the use of *masing-masing* “each” and *semua* “all”. For the adults, their use of *masing-masing* “each” was 100% correct and almost 100% correct in responding to *semua* “all”.

The last two groups of subjects can also assign the canonical distributive meaning to *masing-masing* “each” convincingly. More concretely, 80% of the total 90 responses of the older children and almost 100% of the total 90 responses of the adults represented canonical meaning (i.e., distributive) to *masing-masing* “each”. For *semua* “all”, nevertheless, the representation of collective meaning is not so clear as that of *masing-masing* “each”. About 53% of the older children's responses represented the canonical meaning (i.e., collective), only almost 30% marked the non-canonical meaning (i.e., distributive) and about 27% indicated the other irrelevant meaning. For the adults, almost 50% of their responses represented the canonical meaning (i.e., collective), only 45% represented the non-canonical meaning (i.e., distributive) and about 5% represented the other meaning. In other words, across the boards, the use of *semua* “all” (*Semua anak sedang membuat sebuah layang-layang* “All children are making a kite”, which should be appropriate to express the collective meaning described in Picture B, is spread out to describe the distributive meaning indicated in Picture C below.



Picture B



Picture C

Thus, the findings inform that only the canonical distributive meaning of *masing-masing* “each” was highly assigned by both the older children and adults, not the canonical collective meaning for *semua* “all”.

To find out that the use of *semua* “all” has a collective meaning, a further test was administered. In the test, a sentence using the quantifier *semua* “all” and a scope adverb *bersama-sama* “together” that occurs at the end of a sentence (*Semua anak sedang makan sepotong ayam bersama-sama* “All the children are eating a piece of chicken **together**”) describing the following stimuli was used. The word *bersama-sama* is to promote the collective meaning.



Picture A

Picture B
Stimuli 4

Picture C

The experiment indicates that the use of *bersama-sama* “together” does not show the collective effect for the younger and older children. However, it does affect the adults.

The question now is, how to account for the facts that the subjects do not assign the canonical collective meaning to *semua*? The explanation from Brooks and Braine (1996) might be relevant to state here. Their explanation says that the sentence *Semua anak sedang membuat sebuah layang-layang* “All the children are making a kite” is ambiguous in the sense how many kites are being made. Specifically, if we look at the syntactic position of *semua* “all” and the noun *sebuah layang-layang* “a kite”, it means that there is more than one kite that is being made by the children (the distributive meaning is inferred). However, if we look at the semantics or lexical features of *semua* “all”, we can infer that there is only one kite that is being made (the collective meaning is inferred). Thus, the explanation seems to be relevant to explain the inability of the subjects to assign the canonical collective meaning to *semua* “all”.

The results from the quantifier spreading tests indicated more interesting facts: only 35% of the younger children preferred one-to-one/symmetrical relation between *masing-masing* “each” and its domain, the other 35% preferred non one-to-one/asymmetrical relation, while the other 30% selected other irrelevant information. It means that younger children’s preference to the symmetrical response as suggested by Philip’s (1995) is not observed.

How to explain the younger children’s findings? There are three different proposals might be relevant to explain the findings. The linguistic account (Philip, 1995) says that children take *masing-masing* “each” like the adverb of quantification *always* (*John always drinks orange juice*). In this context, there is consistency of time in drinking juice (i.e., for younger children, to be able to use

masing-masing “each” there should be one-to-one relation between the quantified subject and the object with the existential quantifier *a/an*). The non-linguistic account (Crain et al., 1996) seems also relevant to explain the results. The non-linguistic account says that the experiment is pragmatically inappropriate. Specifically, the presence of extra objects might affect the children selection of pictures. Or, Drozd’s (2001) weak interpretation of children on universal quantifiers might be relevant to mention here. The weak interpretation says that children might interpret *masing-masing* “each” like the meaning of *some, many* that does not necessitate one-to-one relation.

In short, all the evidence suggests that the use of universal quantifiers and the acquisition of their meanings by children are delayed until they are approximately at age 7. In other words, the evidence informs that the innate meanings of universal quantifiers are not confirmed.

What factors play a role in the acquisition delay? Learning process in the sense of Bowerman (2001, p. 497) and linguistic maturation in the sense of Borer & Wexler’s Maturation Hypothesis (1987, p. 123-130), which generally correlates with age, might factor in. The learning process explains that linguistic inputs (i.e., the use of universal quantifiers from surrounding) is important for the younger children to use the universal quantifiers. And the Maturation Hypothesis says that the inability of younger children in using the universal quantifiers may be due to the fact that the linguistic concept of the quantifiers is not matured yet in their mind. When they get older, their quantifier concept should be matured. When this happens they are able to use the quantifiers as can be seen from the older children and adults’ results.

Conclusion

The findings show that there is a delay in the acquisition of universal quantifiers in Indonesian, meaning that the innate meanings of *semua* “all” and *masing-masing* “each” are not confirmed in this study.

The findings bring an implication to previous studies on quantifier raising claiming that children do have knowledge and perform well on it. Given current evidence, the topic needs further testing in Indonesian (and in other languages as well). The findings might contribute to teaching how to make inferences using natural languages in class room settings.

However, this study is still preliminary. Methods, e.g., stimuli, need further revisions and further examination in other Indonesian local languages involving more subjects using other comprehension techniques, e.g., truth-value judgment tasks and also production tasks, to confirm current results.

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LEXICAL ERRORS IN THE ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS WRITTEN BY ENGLISH DEPARTMENT STUDENTS OF AIRLANGGA UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

This article is concerned with lexical errors found in the writing produced by English Department students of Airlangga University. It is based on the result of a study that examined 31 argumentative essays. Using error analysis, the study found that most errors occur in the uses of verbs, indicating that this word class is the most problematic for the students. In terms of grammatical aspect, incorrect use of word form is also dominant in the argumentative essays. Along with incorrect use of verb, this suggests that most students are faced with difficulties in learning English grammar. Finally, the study also found that diction is a problem for some students. Therefore, the study recommends that teaching writing, especially argumentative writing, need to integrate extensive reading and discussion of problematic grammar points such as verb patterns.

Keywords: *lexical errors, semantic errors, word classes, word forms*

Introduction

Much research has been conducted to analyze writing in English, ranging from writing process, writing product, learners or studentstoteaching process. In relation to writing process, Lin (2006)examined the role that text models play in writing instruction, andRadiand Stapleton (2008)analyzed the influence of the Internet genres onwriting process experienced by undergraduate students as learners of English as a second language (ESL). Regarding writing products, Zang(2004)using English writing by Chinese undergraduate students analyzed interactive relationships between the influence of topic, individual writers' stance, and text types produced.Espada-Gustilo(2009)analyzed diagnostic essays of college freshmen and identified errors in sentence level.

Research focusing on learners includes, for instance, Lee's study (1997) that discussed students' performance in error correction and found that students often fail to recognize errors in their writing. Nelson and Carson (1998)studied students' perceptions of response group effectiveness in writing class. Focusing on writing instruction, Gomez, Parker, Lara-Alecio, and Gomez (1996)compared free writing and structured writing instruction. Shehadeh(2011)examined effects and students' perceptions of collaborative writing and found that collaborative writing gives a significant effect on their writing in a second language.

This study focused on writing product, which is argumentative essays written by English Department students, Faculty of Humanities, Airlangga University, at the odd semester of 2012/2013. It was aimed at identifying and explaining lexicalerrors found in the argumentative essays.

Literature review

It is not uncommon that second or foreign language learners produce errors in their language use. Errors in language learning are natural and considered inseparable part of learning process (Lightbown&Spada, 2006; Brown, 2007), and.in fact, they need to be tolerated as a natural ingredient in language development (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 120). Linguists often distinguish between *mistake*and*error*. Mistakesrefer to "errors of performance", while errors represent "systematic errors of the learner from which we are able to reconstruct his knowledge of the language" (Corder, 1981, p. 10). Mistakes such asslips of the tongue tend to be non-systematic and are often caused by physical factors like tiredness and excessive emotions. Mistakes are usually quickly recognized easily and corrected by the learner. On the other hand, errors indicate the learner's knowledge of the language

they are learning, which Corder (1981) refers to as “transitional competence.” In the study reported here, errors found in students’ argumentative essays are treated as errors for two reasons. First, the essays are writing products of the students learning English, meaning they as learners have a certain level of knowledge of the language they are learning. Second, the argumentative essays were not students’ spontaneous work written in the classroom, but a writing task completed in a period of time (a month), allowing the students to revise and edit their work. Therefore, it is assumed that the errors the students made in their essays seem to represent their current knowledge of English.

To date there seems to have been no uniformity in classifying errors produced by language learners. Saville-Troike (2006, p. 39) suggests that error classification is usually made on the basis of the levels of language study (phonology, morphology, syntax), of general linguistic categories such as negative constructions and passive sentences, or of specific linguistic elements like verbs, prepositions, and nouns. Brown (2007, p. 260), distinguishes errors only in two levels: word-level errors and discourse-level errors. In addition, language learner errors can also be grouped into two fundamental components of language, which are grammar and lexicon. Of these two categories, it is lexical errors that frequently occur in English writing (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). Lexical error can be defined as “a deviation in form and/or meaning of a target-language lexical word” (Llach, 2011, p. 75).

A more comprehensive classification of lexical errors was developed by James (1998) who put both lexical errors and grammatical errors under the category of text errors. Lexical errors are divided into two groups: formal errors and semantic errors, each of which consists of several types. Formal errors are then distinguished in three types: formal misselection, formal misformations, and distortions, and semantic errors in two types: confusion of sense relations and collocational errors.

Hemchua and Schmitt’s finding indicates that errors in target language use needs investigating and studying. In the context of EFL (English as a foreign language) learning, research into learner errors, particularly of lexical category, will produce insights useful for improving language teaching and learning. As Corder (1981, pp. 10-11) points out, learner errors can have three important advantages. First, learner errors show teachers the progress the learner has made and areas the learner need to learn further. Second, learner errors present evidence to researchers “of how the language is learned or acquired” and what strategy the learner uses to discover the language system (Corder, 1981, p. 11). Third, errors are an essential part of the learners themselves as we can see that making errors is a strategy they use to learn the language.

The Study

Data of the study consists of 31 argumentative essays written by students of English Department, Fakultas Ilmu Budaya, Universitas Airlangga. The essays were part of tasks submitted for the course Argumentative Writing offered in the odd semester of 2012/2013. Argumentative Writing is the third level of four writing courses, with the first being Paragraph Writing (offered at semester one), second Basic Essay Writing (semester two), and fourth Academic Writing (semester four). The procedure for analyzing errors in this study includes detailed reading, identifying lexical errors, and recording the errors. The errors consist in lexical items undergoing a deviation in use at sentence level. Therefore, the study takes sentences as the unit of analysis. To classify lexical errors found in the essays, two criteria are used: word class and meaning-oriented errors. For the first criterion, lexical errors are grouped on the basis of their word class, particularly into content words and function words, and for the second, the study adopts James’ (1998) classification of semantic errors.

Discussion

Word classes of the lexical errors

The study found errors in the following word classes (Table 1).

No	Word class	Number of occurrences
1	Noun	64 (15.06%)
2	Pronoun	21 (4.94%)
3	Verb	210 (49.41%)
4	Auxiliary	27 (6.35%)
5	Adjective	28 (6.59%)
6	Adverb	13 (3.06%)
7	Preposition	29 (6.82%)
8	Conjunction	12 (2.82%)
9	Determiner	21 (4.94%)
		425 (100%)

Table 1 Word class of the errors and number of occurrences

The table shows that most lexical errors occur to verb(49.41%), which is then followed by nouns (15.06%), and the smallest number occurs to conjunction (2.82%). The numbers indicate that lexical errors are mostly found in the use of contents words, which are the main components of a sentence, verb and noun. The following are samples of errors in the use of verb and noun (the errors and the corrections are printed bold).

No.	Verbs undergoing errors	Corrections
1.	"could not avoid the increased of Hally Wave "	"could not avoid the increase of Hally Wave "
2.	"students felt confuse "	"students felt confused "
3.	"From that stated we can conclude that..."	"From that statement we can conclude that..."
4.	"...if they have a good bahave in society, they will get a good result."	"...if they have a good behavior in society, they will get a good result."
5.	"These sentences are catches by children."	"These sentences are caught by children."

The above samples show errors in the use of verbs. Samples 1 to 4 represent errors in word class. In number 1, for example, the verb 'increased' should be changed into a noun 'increase'. In number 2, 3, and 4, the verbs 'confuse', 'stated', and 'behave' should become an adjective 'confused', a noun 'statement', and a noun 'behavior', respectively. The last sample represents an error in the use of word form because both the word undergoing error and the correction are verbs, but the forms are different ('catches' and 'caught').

No	Nouns undergoing errors	Corrections
1.	"The accurate condition of the things cannot be prediction ..."	""The accurate condition of the things cannot be predicted ..."
2.	" Player must use their skill."	" Players must use their skill."
3.	"retail outlets...Because it has big influence for several small shops"	"retail outlets...Because they have big influence for several small shops"
4.	"...is very difference with..."	"...is very different with..."
5.	"there are trick and attractive idea from.."	"there are trick and attractive ideas from.."

In the above examples, nouns undergo errors in word form and word class. In 2, 3, and 5, errors in nouns occur the word form as they do not experience a change in word class. Number 1 and 4 represent errors in word class: in 1 the noun 'prediction' should be changed into a verb 'predicted,' and in 4 the noun 'difference' should be replaced with an adjective 'different.'

The finding suggests that the use of verb, as the main element of a sentence, seems to be a big factual issue for the students reported here, particularly in producing English writing. This may relate to the many grammatical forms of English verbs. In English, a verb has five different grammatical words (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002, p. 31), each occurring in a different grammatical context. Deviation in the use of the verb 'catches' → 'caught' above is an error that is attributable to the grammar of English verbs, which may have made them difficult to be learned by EFL learners. That explanation seems to apply to the many errors in the use of nouns. English nouns often present difficulty to students, and perhaps also to Indonesian EFL learners in general, because, like verbs' grammatical words, singular and plural grammatical forms are not found in Indonesian. The difference in grammar appear to affect the students' production of English, in which the learners come to confusion of choosing between the singular and plural form, resulting in incorrect forms of nouns.

Semantic errors

The identification and classification of semantic errors refer to James' conception (1998).

No	Semantic	Number of occurrences
1	Inappropriate synonym	9 (20.93%)
2	Inappropriate hyponym	2 (4.65%)
3	Inappropriate collocation	5 (11.63%)
4	Inappropriate diction	22 (51.16%)
5	Literal translation from first language	5 (11.63%)
		43 (100%)

Table 2 Types and number of semantic errors

Table 2 indicates that incorrect (inappropriate) use of diction occurs the most, which is more than 50% of the total semantic errors. The second is incorrect use of synonym whose number of errors is 21%. Number of errors in the third order is incorrect use of collocation and literal translation from first language, each occurring five times or 11.6%. The least occurs to errors in the use of hyponym. The following are some sample of semantic errors found in students' argumentative essays.

Inappropriate use of diction

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. "They know if entrepreneurship can give some advantages..." [conjunction] | "They know that entrepreneurship can give some advantages..." |
| 2. "Latest news believed that..." [verb] | "Latest news reported that..." |
| 3. "The retail outlets have a franchise trick to....more rapidly and small shops not." [conjunction] | "The retail outlets have a franchise trick to....more rapidly but small shops not." |

Samples 1 and 3 indicate incorrect diction of conjunction, and sample 2 incorrect diction of verb. In 1 both 'if' and 'that' are conjunctions used to begin a clause, but have a different meaning. 'If' functions to replace a 'Yes-No' question word in an indirect interrogative sentence. The use of 'if' in 1 is incorrect because the sentence is not an indirect interrogative, but a declarative sentence. In 2, the use of 'believe' is inappropriate since the subject 'latest news' is inanimate. 'Believe', and many other verbs like 'think', 'feel', 'kick', and 'read', can only follow animate subjects.

Inappropriate synonym

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. "In the constitution, it is distinctly written that..." [adverb] | "In the constitution, it is clearly written that..." |
| 2. "...lower price for interesting the customer." [verb] | "...lower price for attracting the customer." |

In the samples of inappropriate synonym above, bold-printed words on the left column are the synonyms of those on the right column: 'distinctly' the synonym of 'clearly' and 'interesting' the synonym of 'attracting'. In accordance with the context, however, the words on the right column are more appropriate.

Based on the sample errors so far presented, it can be inferred that for most students in this study semantic aspects (meaning) are not a worrying problem, or at least less serious than grammatical issues. This can be clearly seen from the number of semantic errors, which is much less than grammatical errors, represented by errors in word form and word class. This finding also suggests that most students in this study have better knowledge of meaning than that of grammar. In order to be able to participate in communication, however, both semantic knowledge and grammatical knowledge are necessary.

Conclusion

In relation to English language teaching, the results of the study indicate that, first, grammar items still problematic for students are necessary to be discussed in writing class. Second, writing class needs to include some amount of extensive reading, so that students can learn how texts are organized and learn to recognize both linguistic and discourse devices as important characteristics of the texts. In relation to further research, investigation on lexical errors in EFL students' English writing need to include different types of texts, compare lexical errors in English texts produced by different groups of learners, and involve a bigger number of samples, so that some generalizations could be made from the results.

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