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Common Lexical Semantic Errors among EFL Arab Learners

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Abstract

This study investigates the lexical semantic errors committed by two groups of Arab EFL learners: Egyptian and Saudi.180 essays are analyzed using of Corder's (1981) model of Error analysis. It is argued that both groups have common interlanguage structures. However, there are culture-specific errors in each group . Collocation errors are the most frequent in the Egyptian group while literal translation errors are the most frequent in the Saudi group. It is also argued that interlingual errors are the most pervasive in both groups.

Keywords: Error Analysis, Interlanguage, Interlingual, Intralingual, Collocations, Literal Translation, Lexical Semantic Errors

1. Introduction

"Errors can be taken as red flags; they provide windows onto a system – that is, evidence of the state of a learner's knowledge of the L2" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 102). In this context, this study is an attempt to be one of the windows onto the linguistic system of both Egyptian and Saudi EFL learners focusing on their lexical semantic errors. Compared to studies on syntactic or phonological errors, studies on lexical errors are still few (James 1998; Zughoul & Abdul-Fattah 2003; Khansir 2012 and Kaweera 2013). This research investigates Egyptian and Saudi EFL lexical semantic errors with the aim of answering the following questions:

1. What are the main lexical semantic errors committed by Egyptian EFL learners?
2. What are the main lexical semantic errors committed by Saudi EFL learners?
3. What are the main sources of errors in both groups?
4. What are the main common features of the interlanguage of both groups?

2. Theoretical framework

This research applies an eclectic approach including: error analysis (EA), contrastive analysis (CA) and interlanguage (IL). In its simplest form, error analysis is defined as "a type of linguistic analysis that

focuses on the errors learners make" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 102). Within error analysis, errors are seen as signs of learners' development or their 'transitional competence' (Corder, 1981, p. 10). Error analysis provides evidences of the current state of this transitional competence by comparing this current state to the target language. In this context, contrastive analysis may play a role in explaining the form this 'transitional competence' takes. It is argued that contrastive analysis has two versions: strong and weak. The strong version of contrastive analysis is predictive; it predicts the areas of difficulty for EFL learners. In its weak version, it is explanatory; it provides an explanation for these difficulties focusing on Mother tongue as a possible source of errors (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p.97).

Based on the above mentioned, this research adopts the weak version of contrastive analysis and integrates it into error analysis with the aim of discovering the main features of the interlanguage of both Egyptian and Saudi EFL learners. The concept of 'interlanguage' was devised by Selinker (1974) and is defined as, "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of TL form" (p.35). Selinker stressed the autonomy of this system i.e. interlanguage as it is distinct from both Mother tongue (MT) and target language (TL). Khansir (2012) stressed the importance of integrating contrastive analysis, errors analysis and interlanguage, "an integration of three schools is needed to deal with the complexities of second language acquisition and provide empirical evidence for the improvement of teaching methodology" (p.1031).

Nemser (1974) discussed the same idea and termed it as 'approximative system' (p.55). Merging the three concepts i.e. error analysis, contrastive analysis (weak version) and interlanguage aims at defining learners' errors, explaining these errors and providing remedial strategies for them. The explanation of learners' errors traces two main sources of these errors: interlingual and intralingual. The interlingual errors are due to negative transfer of L1 while the intralingual errors are due to lack of knowledge of L2 (James 1998 – Gass & Selinker 2008).

Contrastive analysis with its weak version provides explanation for interlingual errors, while error analysis mainly focuses on Target Language and its errors i.e. intralingual. The concept of interlanguage comprises both types of errors as it is the current version of the learner's notions of the language he attempts to learn. During the process of learning, the learner adopts different versions of interlanguage based on
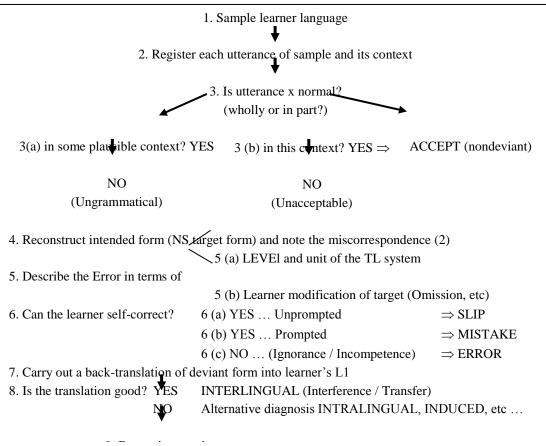
his hypotheses about the target language. Figure (1) below illustrates this idea.

Figure (1) Different versions of IL & sources of error

Mother				Target
Tongue	IL_1	IL_2	IL_3	Language
(Interlingual	(Interlanguage)			(Interlingual
sources of				sources of
errors)				errors)

This research follows Corder's (1981) procedure of error analysis which comprises nine steps. These steps can be seen in figure (2) below.

Figure (2) Error analysis steps (adapted from Corder, 1981, p.23)

1. Sample learner language

2. Register each utterance of sample and its context

3. Is utterance x normal?
   (wholly or in part?)

3(a) in some plausible context? YES   3 (b) in this context? YES $\Rightarrow$ ACCEPT (nondeviant)

NO   NO
(Ungrammatical)   (Unacceptable)

4. Reconstruct intended form (NS target form) and note the miscorrespondence (2)

5 (a) LEVEl and unit of the TL system

5. Describe the Error in terms of

5 (b) Learner modification of target (Omission, etc)

6. Can the learner self-correct?   6 (a) YES … Unprompted $\Rightarrow$ SLIP
                                   6 (b) YES … Prompted $\Rightarrow$ MISTAKE
                                   6 (c) NO … (Ignorance / Incompetence) $\Rightarrow$ ERROR

7. Carry out a back-translation of deviant form into learner's L1

8. Is the translation good? YES   INTERLINGUAL (Interference / Transfer)
                             NO   Alternative diagnosis INTRALINGUAL, INDUCED, etc …

Concerning the classification of errors, this research follows James's (1998, 129-172).

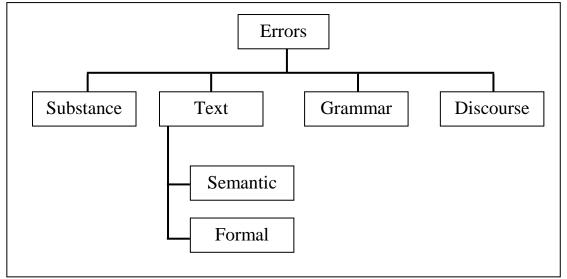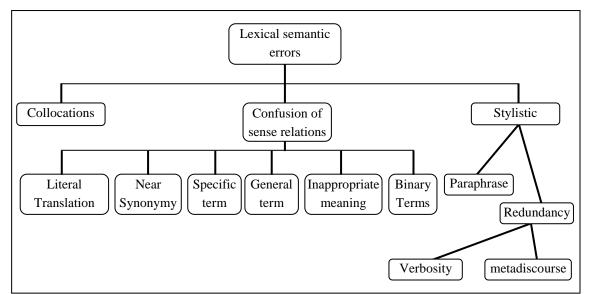Figure (3) below summarizes this classification.

Figure (3) James' classification of errors

This study is mainly concerned with 'text errors' which "arise from ignorance and misapplication of the 'lexical-grammatical rules of the language', including how these rules are exploited to achieve texture" (James, 1998, p. 142). These text (lexical) errors are subdivided into two types: formal and semantic. Semantic errors occur "where learners use forms that exist in the TL, but these forms do not represent the meanings they wish to express" (James, 1998, p. 151). These semantic errors are classified into two subcategories: confusion of sense relations and collocations. This research applies James's classification of lexical semantic errors. In addition, it is supplemented by Zughoul's (1991) categories: Binary terms and paraphrase.

Zughoul (1991) defined Binary terms as words which "tend to be confused and used as substitutes for each other" (p.14). These Binary terms can be exemplified by the confusion between 'teach' and 'learn'. Moreover, the paraphrase strategy occurs "when the learner cannot think of the proper word to use in a certain context, he may provide a paraphrase that would convey the intended meaning" (Zughoul, 1991, p. 12). In addition to Zughoul's (1991) concept, the researcher devised a subtype of lexical semantic errors and labeled it as 'metadiscoursal'. In metadiscoursal errors, the learner writes about an idea he is going to discuss. This type of errors is a clear impact of Arabic style of writing in which the writer usually introduces his idea with a number of sentences. This style of writing is considered erroneous in English. Both verbosity and metadiscourse are subcategories of redundancy which itself is a subcategory of stylistic errors. By presenting stylistic errors, the

researcher is following Shalaby et al. (2009, p.74) in their taxonomy of Lexical Semantic errors and they are also followed in their consideration of L1 transfer as both a subtype of semantic errors and as a source of these errors (p.82). Figure (4) below summarizes the taxonomy of lexical semantic errors.

Figure (4) The Taxonomy of Lexical semantic errors

two main types. The first type of studies does not focus on a certain aspect of language; they classify all types of errors tracing their sources i.e. interlingual and intralingual. Examples of this type include: Diab (1996), AbiSamra (2003), Ridha (2012), and Sawalmeh (2013).

The second type of studies focuses on a certain type of errors. Al-Khresheh (2011) focused on the coordinative conjunction 'and' and its equivalent in Arabic 'wa'. Muftah & Rafik – Galee (2013) studied the present simple errors while Mourssi (2013) investigated the errors of the past tense. Alamin & Ahmed (2012) provided a taxonomy of syntactic errors committed by Saudi students. Abu-Melhim (2014) studied the errors related to the use of the definite article reaching the conclusion that "the major factors affecting the use of English articles by these subjects are intra-lingual rather than inter-lingual" (p.55).

Studies on Lexical Semantic errors fall in the second category, and are subdivided into two subcategories. The first subcategory tackles lexical semantic errors in general like: Zughoul (1991), Shesha (1993), Shalaby et al (2009) and Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012). The second subcategory focuses on a single type of errors like: Mahmoud (2005), Nour & Abudaib (2011) and Ridha & Al-Riyahi (2011).

Zughoul (1991) analyzed lexical errors of 128 Jordanian students and classified these errors into 13 categories including items like: near synonymity, paraphrase, Binary terms and derivativeness. He reached the conclusion that "the most obvious form of mother tongue interference is assumed synonymity" (p.15). Shalaby et al. (2009) investigated lexical errors in 96 writings of Saudi female students errors tracing their sources. They concluded that the main source of these lexical errors is L1 influence (p.90).

Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) studied the writings of 30 Yemeni EFL learners and classified their semantic errors into three main types: Lexical, collocational and Lexicogrammatical. Some errors are attributed to L1 like: collocation, derivativeness and distortion due to spelling. In contrast, other types of errors are attributed to L2 like: paraphrasing, misordering, formal misselection and lexicogrammatical errors (p.137).

Mahmoud (2005) investigated errors of lexical collocations in the writings of Omani EFL students. He detects five types of lexical collocational errors: verb + noun, verb + adverb, noun + verb, adjective + noun and adverb + adjective. He concluded that "as far as the sources of the errors are concerned, 164 (61%) of the incorrect collocations could be attributed to negative interlingual transfer" (p.4). Noor & Abudaib (2011) investigated the writings of two groups of Saudi EFL students. One group is of low language proficiency and the other is of high proficiency. Both groups used similar strategies to form acceptable collocations and they share a certain 'strategic competence' ability regardless of their level of proficiency.

Ridha & Riyahi (2011) traced collocation errors in the writings of Iraqi EFL learners. They found seven patterns of collocation errors including items like: verb + noun (the most frequent), adjective + noun, adverb + adjective and others. Concerning the sources of these lexical collocational errors, they concluded that "negative transfer was the major source of the lexical collocational errors" (p.47).

This research falls into the second type of studies as it focuses on investigating and classifying a certain type of lexical errors i.e. semantic errors. This study is unique in two aspects. Firstly, it compares and contrasts the different lexical semantic errors committed by two groups of Arab EFL learners with different local dialects. This difference in dialects led to cultur- specific structures and strategies in each group. Secondly,

this study is unique in providing a tripartite classification of error sources: Interlingual, Intralingual and Interlanguage.

4. Data Description

This study investigates the writings of 180 EFL students: 90 Egyptian and 90 Saudi students. Egyptian students are in the second year, English department, Faculty of Education, Suez University in Egypt. They have been EFL students for 12 years. Their ages ranged from 19-21. They include males and females.

Saudi students are second year English majors in the University College in Qunfudah, Umm al Qura University in KSA. They have been EFL students for 7 years. Their ages ranged from 18-23. They are only males as access to female students was not possible. In this context, it is noted that the factors of sex and age are not included in this study.

Both groups were asked to write on one of the following topics: 1) *traits of a successful partner*, 2) *the ideal person in your life* or 3)*mobile phones*. The task was given in the framework of a writing course which is mainly designed to teach different modes of expository writing: descriptive or narrative.

Based on the taxonomy presented on figure (4) above, errors were classified. The researcher resorts to two techniques to resolve the overlap among different categories. First, the classification was reviewed by two colleagues: a PhD holder and an MA holder. Second, the researcher held interviews with students whenever he needs to elicit more information about the meaning intended by the learners. Whenever it is not possible to ask the learner himself, the learner resorts to Corder's (1981) concept of plausible interpretation which analyzes the error on "the basis of its form and its linguistic and situational context" (38).

The data is analysed Qualitatively and Quantitatively. As for the differentiation between errors and mistakes, the researcher follows Carder's (1981, p. 18) view which stressed the idea that if a learner can correct himself/herself, it is a mistake. In contrast, if a learner cannot correct himself/herself it is an error. Ellis (1997) regards errors as "gaps in a learner's knowledge" while mistakes are "occasional lapses in performance" (17). Using the interview technique, learners were asked to correct themselves. In addition, if the deviant form is recurrent throughout the learner's writing, it is assumed to be an error rather than a mistake following James's (1998, p. 275) concept of 'consistency'.

5. Data Analysis

The Quantitative analysis of data, reveals the fact that 'the literal translation' error is the most frequent with 262 occurrences (25.07%.). The second in rank is collocational errors with the frequency of 242 (23.51%), and the least in frequency is the use of specific terms instead of a superordinate term: 6 errors (0.57%).

Table (1) below summarizes the frequency and percentage of all types of errors in both groups. Lexical errors are classified into ten types: Collocations, Literal translation, The use of general terms instead of specific ones, Near synonymy, Inappropriate meaning, Metadiscourse, Verbosity, Paraphrase, Binary terms, and The use of a specific term instead of a general one. They are ranked from the most to the least frequent.

Table (1) Frequency & percentage of all errors

Error Type	Frequency	Percentage
Literal translation	262	25.07 %
Collocations	242	23.15 %
General terms	120	11.48 %
Inappropriate meaning	119	11.38 %
Near synonymy	87	8.32 %
Paraphrase	68	6.50 %
Verbosity	65	6.22 %
Metadiscourse	61	5.83 %
Binary terms	15	1.43 %
Specific terms	6	0.57 %
Total	1045	100 %

5.1 Egyptian learners' lexical semantic errors

Table (2) below shows the frequency and percentage of different lexical semantic errors committed by Egyptian EFL learners.

Table (2) Egyptian learners' lexical semantic errors

Error type	Frequency	Percentage
Collocations	161	27.71 %
Literal translation	133	22.89 %
General terms	73	12.56 %
Near synonymy	59	10.15%
Inappropriate meaning	43	7.40 %
Metadiscourse	36	6.19 %
Verbosity	35	6.02 %
Paraphrase	34	5.85 %
Binary terms	5	0.86 %
Specific terms	2	0.34 %
Total	581	100 %

5.1.1 Collocations

Firth (1957, p. 183) defines collocations as "words in habitual company". It is evident that collocations represent a problematic area for Egyptian students as they come in the first rank of their lexical semantic error with the percentage of 27.71% (see table (2) above). The following examples illustrate some of these collocational errors:

1. She must be a *beautiful*[1] character. (likeable – formidable – impeccable)
2. I love them because they are *beautiful* companions. (agreeable – charming – delightful)
3. He must have *beautiful* traits. (admirable – appealing)
4. I like the family *weather*. (atmosphere)
5. We will *open* a project together. (set up – run)
6. He must be the man I dream *with*. (of – about)
7. I made a *huge* mistake. (big – great – serious – grave – dreadful)
8. He should never lie *on* me. (to)
9. We should *have* the decision of rejecting it. (make – take)
10. In my humble *point of view*. (opinion)

In examples (1), (2) and (3) the word 'beautiful' collocates wrongly with the words: character, companions and trait. The main reason for this collocational error is L1 transfer as the word beautiful can

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[2] Italics refer to the error committed.

collocate with the three words in Arabic. Thus, students assume that acceptable collocations in Arabic can be transferred and used in English. In other words, these examples represent interlingual errors. The same idea is applicable to example (5) where the noun 'project' is a collocate with the verb 'open' in Arabic and it is not acceptable in English. Examples (4), (7), (9) and (10) represent intralingual errors where insufficient knowledge of target language is the main reason for committing such errors. In (4), the learner has two conflicting words in his mind i.e. weather and atmosphere; his ignorance of the acceptable collocations led to the error. The same is applicable to (7), (9) and (10). Examples (6) and (8) represent James's (1998, p. 200) 'compound errors' as they can be a scribed to L1 and L2 as well. the use of the preposition 'on' with 'lie' is the result of L1 transfer as it is 'yakdhib 'alā'[2]. In addition, lack of knowledge of this collocational structure could be another reason for this error i.e. interlingual. Examples (6) and (8) reflect the complexity of classifying collocation errors; they can be classified as 'literal translation' errors as well. Shalaby et al. (2009) stressed the same idea as collocations can be classified as near synonyms or inappropriate meaning (p. 84).

This overlap in errors taxonomy led to wrong classification of some errors by some researchers like Al Shormani and Al-Sohbani (2012) who categorized the sentence "Yemeni government *executed** many great developing projects (do – carry out)"(p.130) under the derivativeness class. Within this derivativeness errors, learners "apply derivation in the same way it works in Arabic to English" (p.129). Actually, it is not a derivativeness error; it is a collocational error with an interlingual source as the verb execute is the translation of the Arabic verb 'yunaffidh'.

The same overlap can be traced in Zughoul (1991) who presented the category of idiomacity and gave the example "I usually shave my *face** in the morning (shave my beard)" (p.11). In fact, this error can either be classified as a collocational error or as the use of a superordinate word (face) instead of a specific one (beard).

As for the structural analysis of collocational errors, it is argued that there are seven structures: adjective + noun, verb + noun, verb + prep, adjective + prep., prep + noun, noun + noun and verb + adjective. All the seven structures were used by both Egyptian and Saudi students.

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[2] For phonetic conventions of transliteration, see the library of congress website:
www.loc.gov/catdir/cpso/roman.html

The frequency and percentage of different structures can be seen in table (3) below.

Table (3)

The frequency & percentage of structures of collocation errors of both Egyptian and Saudi learners

Collocation structure	Egyptian learners		Saudi learners	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Adjective + noun	49	30.43%	21	25.92%
Verb + noun	45	27.9%	27	33.33%
Verb + prep.	23	14.28%	10	12.34%
Adjective + prep.	21	13.04%	11	13.58%
Prep. + noun	17	10.55%	8	9.87%
Noun + noun	4	2.48%	3	3.70%
Verb + adjective	1	1.24%	1	1.23%
Total	161	100%	81	100%

In the Egyptian group, as it is evident in table(3), the most frequent structure of collocational errors is 'adjective + noun' with the percentage of 30.43%. This is explicable in the light of the fact that learners used the strategy of 'literal translation' in their forming of collocations in which 'adjectives' are mainly transferred from their L1 i.e. Arabic. This result contradicts both Ridha & Riyahi (2011, p. 41) and Mahmoud (2005, p. 5) as they found the structure (verb + noun) the most pervasive in their data. It is argued that this difference in results is due to the nature of the variety used by students. They all speak Arabic with different dialects. Iraqi and Omani Arabic is completely different from Egyptian Arabic especially in its colloquial level. In other words, all Arab EFL learners used 'literal translation' to form acceptable collocations. However, these acceptable collocations, in learners' sense, are mainly dependent on local dialects which differ greatly from one country to another. Thus, different dialects have their influence on the structures used to form collocations.

5.1.2 Literal translation

It is the second in rank with a percentage of 22.89%. The following examples illustrate literal translation errors:

11. He should show me *the* love in all situations. (love)
12. *The* now, mobile phone is very important. (now)
13. If we controled *of* our problem, we will be successful.

14. *In* the finally, I respect my husband.

15. When I *fell in* a problem, she solve it. (face)

16. She must take with my *hand* to success. (lead)

17. She is behind me in the bad matter before the good *matter*.

                               (She supports me through thick and thin)

18. He should be intelligent *sharp*.

                                (to have acute / great / high intelligence)

19. I like to *sit* in the internet. (use – surf)

20. He has to solve problems that *stop* in front of us.

In examples (11) and (12), learners use the definite article 'the' with the abstract noun 'love' and the adverb 'now' because of L1 interference. In Arabic now is ''alān' and it has the definite article ''al'. So, the learner assumed that 'the' should be added to convey the meaning (now or nowadays). The same idea is applicable to example (14) where 'finally' in English has the equivalent 'fi 'alnihāya'in Arabic and that's why 'in' is added. Example (13) represents literal translation of prepositions due to L1 transfer. In Arabic, the verb 'control' is translated into 'yusayṭ er 'alā'. In English, there is no need to use the preposition 'of'. Examples (15), (16), (17), (18) and (19) are clear examples of literal translation on phrase and sentence levels. In (18), the learner does not know how to describe a person of acute intelligence and that's why he resorts to Arabic literal translation ' ḥ ād 'al zakā' '. Example (19) presents a unique strategy adopted by this learner. This strategy may be termed as 'conceptual literal translation'. In this strategy, the learner tries to find an equivalent to the concept; not the word, in his language, then he finds a word in the TL that expresses this concept. In Egyptian Arabic, the verb ' 'ā'd ' literally means 'sitting' is usually used to express 'continuity', e.g., the sentence ' 'ana 'ā'd 'azākir' (I am studying). On thinking of the idea of using the internet continuously, the learner did not know the verb to be used in this context. Consequently, he resorts to 'the conceptual literal translation' and finds the verb 'sit' as an appropriate verb to express this continuity in English.

In example (20), the choice of the verb 'stop' instead of 'face' or 'confront' is due to the learner's decision to choose between two verbs in L1. The verb 'yaqif' in Arabic has three meanings. Two concrete meanings: 'stop' and 'stand' and an abstract meaning: 'face'. The learner chose to apply the concrete meaning not the abstract meaning. Zughoul (1991, p. 8) discussed the same idea stressing that the discrepancy

between 'the metaphorical' and 'concrete' meanings of a word is the main reason behind literal translation.

5.1.3 The use of general terms instead of specific ones

It is the third in rank with the percentage of 12.56%. James (1998) referred to this type of error as "using a more general term where a more specific one is needed (superonym for hyponym). The result is an under-specification of the meaning". (p. 151)

21. She helps me to reach all *things* in my life. (aims – goals)
22. My friend has positive *things*. (traits)
23. She can solve difficult *things*. (problems)
24. People use it (mobile) to download bad *things* that anger god.

(pornographic material)

In examples (21), (22) and (23) the word 'things' is used as a substitute for: aims, traits and problems. The word 'thing' in particular is very pervasive in Egyptian learners' writings and it is used as a common word which means almost everything. This is a direct result of L1 transfer as the word 'thing' in Egyptian Arabic i.e. 'ḥ āgah' can refer to any entity. A case which is not acceptable in English. However, this does not mean that interlingual sources are the only reason for this error. These errors can be attributed to learners' insufficient knowledge and their poor repertoire of the TL. Example (24) is unique because of the reasons behind the use of the expression 'bad things'. The reason is cultural rather than linguistic. Simply, the learner could have used ' sex material'. Yet, discussing sex and all related topics is a taboo issue in the Egyptian culture and that's why the learner prefers to allude to it rather than mention it overtly.

5.1.4 Near synonymy

It is in the fourth rank with the percentage of 10.15%. This does not coincide with Shalaby et al (2009) as it is the third in position of their investigated data. In Zughoul (1991), near synonymy is the first in rank of all types of errors with the percentage of 23.5%. The following examples are representative of this type of error:

25. Mobiles *invade* the world. (conquer)
26. Mobiles help us to *sorry about* people in bad situation. (sympathize with)

27. She obey Allah and do not *make mistakes*. (commit sins)

Examples (25), (26) and (27) represent James's (1998) strategy of approximation by which learners assume that "it must be all right to use another near-equivalent L2 item which they have learnt" (187). It is a kind of compensating strategy for their lack of knowledge of the required form. In (25), the use of verb *invade* is intended to convey the idea of becoming popular and successful. To the contrary of this meaning, 'invade' is usually used to denote an unpleasant effect. The common semantic feature is having a huge impact on people. When this impact is pleasant, we have the verb 'conquer' and when it is unpleasant we have 'invade'. Referring back to the original essay, the learner was supporting the use of mobile; he intended to use 'conquer' instead of 'invade' . In (26), the learner did not find a word to express both sympathy and sadness, so he resorts to the use of 'sorry about'. In (27), the use of 'commit sins' is better than 'make mistakes' as the context is related to following religious teachings and being pious. It is argued that most of the errors of this type i.e. near synonymy are intralingual. Lack of exposure to TL is the main reason for committing these errors, as learners do not study words in their contexts to identify different uses. Again, some researchers classify some errors wrongly under the category of 'near synonymy'. Shalaby et al. (2009), for example, presented the sentence "so my relationship with this city is very deep(strong)"(p.84) as an example of a near synonymy error. They assume that 'strong' should be used instead of 'deep', lacking the knowledge that 'deep' is not a near synonym for 'strong'. Actually, it is a collocational error because of L1 transfer as the collocation 'deep relationship' is acceptable in Arabic.

5.1.5 The use of Inappropriate Meaning

It is the fifth in rank with the percentage of 7.40%. Within this type, learners use an inappropriate word that does not give the intended meaning.

28. I try to find these *characters* in my partner. (characteristics – traits)
29. He is *sensible* as he doesn't like to hurt others. (sensitive – thoughtful)
30. He should be healthy and body *building*. (well-built)
31. She likes to go to *charity* to help boys without fathers. (orphanage)
32. We will stay together *even* our death. (until)
33. Everyone has a mobile *till* the children. (even)

34. He should be a *cold* man and never make noise. (quiet)

It is argued that the inappropriate meanings in examples (28) and (29) are due to morphological reasons as learners got confused by similar forms: *sensible* and sensitive, *characters* and characteristics. In (30), the learner couldn't find the trait (well-built), so he resorts to the concept of body building as a substitute. The same is applicable to (31) as he doesn't know the name of the place (orphanage), he resorts to the word '*charity*'. Both orphanage and charity have the common features of helping others. Examples (32) and (33) can be explained by Zughoul (1991) who ascribed this type of errors to the use of monolingual dictionaries where one word in English is given many equivalents in Arabic and vice versa (p. 5). The words 'until' and 'even' have one equivalent in Arabic 'ḥ atta' and the use of any of the two equivalents depends on context. In (34) the use of the word '*cold*' is a direct translation of Arabic 'bārid'. The metaphorical meaning of the word 'bārid' is the equivalent of 'calm' in English. However, the learner translated it literally into '*cold*'. It is argued that this type of error is ascribable to both interlingual and intralingual sources. The learner does not know the word in TL (intralingual) and that's why he resorts to L1 (interlingual). This conclusion contradicts Shalaby et al. (2009, p. 83) who argued that the sources of this error are all intralingual.

5.1.6 Metadiscourse

It is the sixth in rank with the percentage of 6.19%. By metadiscourse errors, we refer to the addition of unnecessary phrases or sentences which introduce the ideas discussed. Kaweera (2013) discussed the same idea and uses the term 'redundancy' to describe it, "redundancy refers to the way the learner employs words or phrases which add nothing to the overall meaning of the sentence" (p.14).

35. I will talk about my partner in college.
36. In this essay, I am going to discuss important points about mobiles.
37. This is all I can say about my partner.

In example (35), (36) and (37), there is no need to mention these sentences either before discussing an idea or after presenting it. This type of stylistic error is a direct result of L1 transfer of style as it is thought to be a kind of decoration that makes a piece of writing more attractive.

5.1.7 Verbosity

It is the seventh in rank with the percentage of 6.02%. Verbosity is the second subtype of stylistic redundancy. It occurs when the learner writes synonyms or antonyms as a kind of emphasis of the meaning intended. I have to have the *characteristics* and *qualities* in this partner.

38. He should be *intelligent* and *smart*.
39. I do not think about her *appearance* or *how does she look like*? Or *her description.*
40. My friend must be *truthful* and *tell me the truth and never lies*.

As it is evident in examples (38), (39), and (40), the addition of synonyms adds nothing to the overall meaning. James (1991) considered this as a built-in feature of human languages, "human languages carry considerable redundancy. This is manifest through the system in the form of unnecessary morphology and double signaling" (p.186). Arabic is a paradigm for this redundancy, as using wordy or verbose sentence is highly appreciated and accepted. Thus, it is argued that this type of errors is purely interlingual. Zughoul (1991) discussed the same phenomenon under the category 'Influence of Arabic style', claiming that "from the examination of the data, it can be generalized that whenever such an appositive synonym is used, the choice of either items is wrong" (p. 12). The above examples contradict this conclusion as the use of either item of the proposed synonyms is correct. Thus, the use of 'smart' or 'intelligent' will convey the meaning correctly as in example (38).

5.1.8 Paraphrase

It is a subcategory of stylistic errors and it is the eighth in rank with the percentage of 5.85%. Zughoul (1991) defined paraphrase and the context of using it as, "when the learner cannot think of the proper word to use in a certain context, he may provide a paraphrase that would convey the intended meaning" (p. 12).

41. He thinks about things *very well and not fastable.*

(sensibly – reasonably – rationally)
42. She never *talks to me badly with bad words*. (rebuke – blame)
43. You waste time *without feeling with that*. (unconsciously)

Throughout examples (41), (42) and (43), the learner could not find the term he seeks in either his L1 or L2. He suffers from 'double

ignorance' as James (1991) described it, "the learners are in a state of double – ignorance – ignorant of the TL item and ignorant of a possible L1 substitute – and have no alternative resource than to 'avoid' the item affected" (p. 176). In this context, it is argued that this type of error is neither interlingual nor intralingual; it is an interlanguage error. In other words, the learners' built-in system, in this a stage of learning the target language, is the main reason for producing such error**s** or this paraphrase strategy.

5.1.9. Binary Terms

It is the ninth in rank with the percentage of 0.86%. Zughoul (1991) defined binary terms as, "these words generally exhibit the reversal of a relationship between items rather than 'oppositeness in meaning'" (p.14).

44. It can also *remember* us with important dates. (remind)
45. She tried to *learn* me. (teach)

In both examples (44) and (45), learners got confused and used the binary terms: remember / remind and teach / learn as substitutes for each other. It is argued that this type of error is intralingual. The learner adopts the strategy of overgeneralization which "leads to the over indulgence of one member of a set of forms and the underuse of others in the set" (James 1998, p. 187)

Some researchers like Al Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012) categorized the confusion of terms like 'learn' and 'teach' as derivativeness errors. Under the derivativeness category, they present the example "Dr. Huda learns us spoken English (teach)" (p.130). They claim that "learn and teach are used in Arabic interchangeably and thus such errors are interlingual" (p.131). In fact, this is not true as both verbs in Arabic i.e. 'learn' and 'teach' have separate forms as 'learn' is 'yataʿallam' while 'teach' is 'yuʿallim'. Thus, they cannot be used interchangeably and consequently it is an intralingual rather than interlingual error.

5.1.10 The use of a specific term instead of a general one

It is the least represented error with the percentage of 0.34%. Within this error, the learner is "using too specific a term (hyponym for superonym)" (James, 1998, p. 151).

46. He should have a strong *arm*. (body)

In example (46), the learner used the specific word (the hyponym) 'arm' instead of the superonym body.

5.2. Saudi learners' lexical semantic errors

Table (4) below summarizes the frequency and percentage of all types of lexical semantic errors committed by Saudi students.

Table (4) The percentage & frequency of Saudi learners' lexical semantic errors

Error type	Frequency	Percentage
Literal translation	129	27.80 %
Collocations	81	17.45 %
Inappropriate meaning	76	16.37 %
General terms	47	10.12 %
Paraphrase	34	7.32 %
Verbosity	30	6.46 %
Near synonymy	28	6.03 %
Metadiscourse	25	5.38 %
Binary terms	10	2.15 %
Specific terms	4	0.86 %
Total	464	100 %

5.2.1 Literal translation

It is the first type of error in rank with the percentage of 27.80% in Saudi group. This result coincides with Shalaby et al. (2009, p. 80) as literal translation was the first in order among lexical semantic errors with the percentage of 15.74%. In Shesha (1993) who studied the writings of Saudi EFL learners, it is the second in rank with the percentage of 23.65%.

47. My father is give money more than of his *energy*. (more than he can)
48. I like my partner better than my *eyes*.

    (I like my partner very much / I adore)
49. She must *save* her tongue. (hold)
50. I should like her, *near that*, respect her. (in addition)
51. *From* my opinion, he is good. (In)
52. The college is smaller *from* the university. (than)

In (47), the learner used the word 'energy' to refer to his father's ability to afford the cost of living. It is argued that L1 is the main trigger for this error. In Arabic the word 'qudrah' which means 'ability' can be used interchangeably with 'ṭ āqah' which is literally translated as 'energy'. The learner assumes that it is acceptable to use 'ability; and 'energy' interchangeably as they are used in Arabic. The expression 'better than my eyes' in example (48) is a literal translation of expressing love as the learner does not know how to express extreme love using verbs like 'adore' for example. Example (49) is unique in that the correct verb 'hold' is possible and acceptable in Arabic 'yumsik' and it collocates with 'tongue'. However, the learner used 'save' which is not acceptable in English.

Example (51) is a clear example of literal translation of prepositions which represent a problematic area for Arab EFL learners (Diab, 1996, p. 76). On getting confused about which preposition to use, Arab EFL learners directly resort to L1.

5.2.2 Collocations

It is the second in rank with the percentage of 17.45%. This result does not coincide with Shesha (1993) who found collocation errors the first in frequency with the percentage of 38.71%. Concerning the different structures used in collocations, seven structures are detected: adjective + noun, verb + noun, verb + preposition, adjective + prep., prep. + noun, noun + noun and verb + adjective.

The most frequent structure is verb + noun with the percentage of 33.33% followed by the structure adjective + noun with the percentage of 25.92% (see table (3) above). This result coincides with both Mahmoud (2005) and Ridha & Riyahi (2011) who found that the structure 'verb + noun' is the most pervasive in their data.

53. He *has* languages (speaker – master – use)
54. He is a *beautiful* man. (good – looking , smart , handsome)
55. There is a *light* side. (bright)
56. Mobiles help in the *speed* transfer of information.
                                          (smooth – efficient – successful)
57. He is not afraid *about* anything. (of)
58. We learn English *with* Arabic. (in)
59. In class the *atmosphere* degree is very bad. (temperature)

Examples (53), (54), (55), (56) and (58) are the result of L1 transfer. Learners substitute Arabic collocations for English ones. In (55), for example, it is acceptable in Arabic to say ' gānib muḍ ī' ', which is literally translated as 'light side'. In these examples, the source is L1 transfer i.e. interlingual. However, this is not the case in (57) and (59). In these examples, the reason is lack of knowledge of L2 i.e. intralingual error. In (59), the learner has two conflicting words for the Arabic word ''alṭ aqs' and he decides to choose atmosphere rather than temperature. In other words, the learners' insufficient knowledge of TL led to this wrong choice.

5.2.3. The use of inappropriate meaning

60. The development of mobile phone technology has become a basic *penalty* of our daily life. (aim)
61. I want a *valid* wife to guide me to heaven. (righteous)
62. A wife should be the portfolio *secrets* of her husband.

(the secret keeper)

It is the third in position with the percentage of 16.37%.Zughoul (1991) provided explanation for the above examples. According to Zughoul (1991), all these examples are ascribable to the use of monolingual dictionaries by Arab learners(p.6). The words 'aim' and 'penalty' are translated into one Arabic word 'hadaf' and the word portfolio is translated into 'ḥ āfidhah' in Arabic. Similarly the words valid, righteous are translated into 'ṣ āliḥ a'. In (62), the word 'portfolio' is originally used as a thin case to keep documents. The learner extends the verb of keeping to include 'secrets' as well. These errors are intralingual as learners are not exposed to language in a way that enables them to differentiate *penalties* from aims or *valid* from righteous.

5.2.4 The use of general terms instead of specific ones

It is the fourth in rank with the percentage of 10.12%.

63. We have to get modern *things* like lab and laptops. (facilities)
64. I love my father in all *things*. (aspects)
65. The facilities in my college is *bad*. (poor – limited – inadequate)
66. There are some *bad* professors, they do not understand (explain) me the lesson. (incompetent – inefficient)

Lacking the exact word, the learners resort to the word 'things' in (63) and (64), and the word 'bad' in (65) and (66). The poor repertoire of learners is the main reason for these errors and that's why they are of intralingual nature. Zughoul (1991) provided an explanation for the overuse of items like 'good' and 'bad' by learners, "the use of 'good' typically substitutes for all the terms reflecting any intended positive quality" (p. 15) and "bad covers the other end of the spectrum" (Ibid).

5.2.5 Paraphrase

It is the fifth in rank with the percentage of 7.32%.

67. Some people uses mobile to *say bad words* other people.

(abuse – insult)

68. She shouldn't be moody and *make problems with all people all the time*. (trouble – maker)
69. I want her *likes good thing for people*. (benevolent – amiable)
70. You find communication *without wires*. (wireless communication)

All the above examples reflect lack of knowledge of target language. The learners' ignorance of the words: abuse, trouble – maker, benevolent and wireless makes him/her use the paraphrase strategy . In addition, Literal translation is of no use in this context and that's why these errors are interlanguage.

5.2.6 Verbosity

It is in the sixth position with the percentage of 6.46%.

71. He is *left-handed* that means *he prefers to write by his left hand*.
72. *The professors* or *the doctors* should not speak Arabic.
73. My father is *strong*, *not weak*.
74. *We the students* in English department don't learn English well.

In (71), the learner repeats the meaning of 'left-handed' using 'to write by his left hand'. There is no need for such redundancy. The same is applicable to other examples: 72, 73 and 74. This type of errors is purely interlingual as L1 transfer is clear in the use of Arabic style. Shalaby et al. (2009) stressed this effect of Arabic style stating that:

"Verbosity, a stylistic error, could also be due to the influence of the students' native language, Arabic, where the stringing together of synonyms is considered a stylistic embellishment of a text, and a

display of the writers' verbal ability and his/her mastery of vocabulary" (p. 82).

5.2.7 Near synonymy

It is the seventh in rank with the percentage of 6.03%.

75. She should have a good body as she should be *skinny*. (slim)
76. My father is very *lanky* and not fat. (slim – thin)
77. No one is *completed*. (perfect)
78. We should *educate* our children on morals. (bring up)
79. I *guess* that education is important. (think)

In (75) and (76), learners use '*skinny*' and '*lanky*' without taking into consideration their disapproving connotations as they are supposed to reflect positive traits in both examples. In (78), the learner could not differentiate between *educating* and bringing up children. The word 'morals' makes the use of 'bring up' more appropriate than '*educate*'. The formality level is the reason for considering 'guess' improper in (79) as it is an 'informal' verb; 'think' is a formal synonym in formal contexts.

5.2.8 Metadiscourse

It is the eighth in position with the percentage of 5.38%. Again, this stylistic error is a direct result of Arabic style of writing. Thus, it is an interlingual error.

80. I will write about my best partner.
81. I will describe my father.
82. Let's go with personal features such as honest and generous.

In examples (80), (81) and (82), there is no need to introduce the topic discussed by learners. It is a style transferred from L1 i.e. Arabic where learners think that these sentences enhance their writings as elaboration is thought to be a sign of verbal ability in writing.

5.2.9 Binary Terms

It is the ninth in rank with the percentage of 2.15%. This type of errors is intralingual as the learner could not differentiate between a couple of terms like: hear / listen, teach / learn and remember / remind.

83. She does not *hear* my words when I advise her. (listen to)

On choosing between 'listen' and 'hear', the criterion of intentionality was absent in the learner's mind. The intentional act of hearing should lead the choice of 'listen' as a more appropriate verb with the word 'advice' in (83).

5.2.10 The use of specific terms instead of general ones

It is the least in frequency with the percentage of 0.86%.

84.I want her to have a nice and thin *waist*. (body)

In (84), the learner used the hyponym 'waist' instead of the superonym 'body'. From the learner's perspective, the sign of beauty in his partner's body is her waist which is only a part of whole i.e. her body.

6. Discussion

Back to the first and second research questions concerning the main lexical semantic errors in both groups, it is argued that both groups committed ten types of errors: Literal translation, collocations, inappropriate meaning, the use of general terms, paraphrase, verbosity, near synonymy, metadiscourse, binary terms and the use of specific terms (see table 1). However, the percentage and frequency of theses errors differ within the two groups. As for Egyptian learners, collocational errors came first in rank with the percentage of 27.71% whereas literal translation was first in rank with the percentage of 27.80% in Saudi group. It is argued that Egyptian students have a richer repertoire than Saudi students. This is reflected in the types of errors committed by the two groups. The error of 'near synonymy, for example, represents 10.15% of Egyptian learners' errors while it represents only 6.03% of Saudi learners. Egyptian students have a wide variety of lexis to choose from and that's why they committed more errors than Saudi students who mainly depended on literal translation (27.80%). This is explained in terms of exposure to English and the period of studying English as a foreign language. Egyptian students have studied English for 12 years while Saudi students have studied it for 7 years.

As for the third question related to the sources of errors, it is argued that there are three types of errors: the interlingual, the intralingual and the interlanguage. However, interlingual errors are the most pervasive in both groups. In this context, it is noted that the percentage of interlingual and intralingual differs according to the nature of errors and the group investigated.

Within collocation errors, for example, the percentage of both interlingual and intralingual errors differ. Corder's (1981) method of 'back translation' is used to classify collocations into interlingual and intralingual. Table (5) below shows the result of classifying the sources of collocation errors.

Table (5) the classification of sources of collocation errors

Group	Interlingual		Intralingual	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Egyptian	74	45.07%	87	54.03%
Saudi	45	55.56%	36	44.44%

As it is evident in table (5), the intralingual sources are the main reason for collocational errors in Egyptian group with the percentage of 54.03%. In contrast, the interlingual sources are more than the interlingual with the percentage of 55.56% in Saudi group.

The last research question tackles the main features of the interlanguage of both groups. It is argued that both groups have common hypotheses about the target language they attempt to learn. These common hypotheses are crystallized in the structures used by both groups committing different types of errors. The following examples illustrate how both groups used concurrent structures:

A – Collocations:

85 Egyptian: We use mobiles to *enter* the internet. (get/have access)
   Saudi: I used it (mobile) to *enter* the internet. (get/have access)

B – Literal translation:

86 Egyptian: So many *of* people use mobile.
   Saudi: He has many *of* good characteristics.

C – Near synonymy:

87 Egyptian: She has *tall* hair. (long)
   Saudi: She should have *tall* hair. (long)

D – Binary terms:

88 Egyptian: She tried to *learn* me. (teach)

| | Saudi: | My father *learns* me good morals. (teaches) |

E – Verbosity:

| 89 | Egyptian: | He should be calm and not be *noisy*. |
| | Saudi: | She is quiet, not *nervous*. |

F – Metadiscourse:

| 90 | Egyptian: | I want to discuss the features of a partner. |
| | Saudi: | I will discuss in details the mobile advantages. |

G – Inappropriate meaning:

| 91 | Egyptian: | Another *adjective* is to be patient. (trait) |
| | Saudi: | She carries the *adjectives* of the sincerity and honest. |

<div align="right">(traits)</div>

H – Paraphrase:

| 92 | Egyptian: | He is not tall and not short. |
| | Saudi: | He was not tall and not short but between that. |

<div align="right">(He is / was of a medium height)</div>

| 93 | Egyptian: | Our children *take from him* good manners. (inherit) |
| | Saudi: | I hope I can *take from him* his characteristics. (inherit) |

I – The use of a general term instead of a specific one:

| 94 | Egyptian: | He is like me in many *things*. (traits) |
| | Saudi: | The important *thing* in my partner is honest. (trait) |

Throughout the examples from (85) to (94), the similarity in interlanguage structures is clear. Both groups have the same cognitive processes even in committing of errors. Example (85) may illustrate this similarity. On thinking of a collocation that expresses the idea of using the internet, both groups resort to the 'literal translation strategy'. In other words, they used an acceptable collocation in Arabic where the verb 'yadkhul' (enter) is a collocate with the internet. The use of the verb 'yadkhul' itself is revealing the way both groups choose verbs to collocate with nouns. They think of the internet as 'a gate' through which they can 'enter'.

Despite this similarity in the interlanguage structures of both groups, there are peculiar structures which are related to only one group

i.e. cultur- specific. These peculiar structures can be seen in the following examples:

A – Egyptian:

95He heart is *white*. (big – kind – warm – tender)
96He should pray and be near from *Allah*. (pious – religious)
97He has *a clean brain*. (intelligent – witty)

B – Saudi:

98.Her nose is like a *sword*. (she has an upturned nose)
99.She must be a good *nanny*. (housewife)
100.Before telling you about my partner, we must thank Allah for the blessings he give us.

In (95), the learner transfers an expression literally from L1 i.e. Egyptian Arabic to L2. On describing a person of having a 'white' heart, in Egyptian culture, it means that he is kind-hearted. The same idea is applicable to (96) and (97). In (97), the use of ' a clean brain' is the literal translation of 'mukh nidīf', in Egyptian Arabic, which means 'intelligent'. Within Saudi culture and society, nannies are widely employed to take care of children and housework. On thinking of these activities, the Saudi learner could not find the appropriate word in L2, so he used 'nanny' as a surrogate item in (99). In (98), the Saudi learner's lack of knowledge of L2 makes him resort to his local environment to find a description of his future partner's nose. His choice was the word 'sword' which resembles the shape of his partner's nose. In (100), the effect of Arabic style is clear in general, while Saudi style of writing is evident in particular. The religious discourse is manifested in the learner's introduction to the topic discussed (a style which is culture-specific to Saudi learners).

The uniqueness of each group may be clearly highlighted by comparing the types of errors committed with other groups which have similar or different local varieties. Table(6) below draws a comparison among different types of errors committed by different groups including: Jordanians(Zughoul ,1991,p.4) , Saudis (Shalaby et al., 2009,pp.78-80) and the two groups examined in this research i.e. Egyptians and Saudis. For the sake of comparison, some items are merged because of the use of different terminology by different researchers. In Zughoul(1990), both of 'literal translation' and 'message translation' are presented under the category of 'literal translation'. In Shalaby et al.(2009), both of verbosity and paraphrase were presented as verbosity errors. Some items are not

presented from the taxonomy of this study (see figure (4)) because the equivalent is not found in other researchers' classifications like the category of 'metadiscourse'. The deletion of some items explains the fact that the overall percentage will not be 100%.

Table(6)

Lexical Semantic Errors committed by Arab EFL Learners

Category	Egyptians (current study	Jordanians (Zughoul 1991)	Saudis (current study)	Saudis (Shalaby et al 2009)
Literal Translation	22.89%	19.4 %	27.80%	15.74%
Collocations	27.71%	9.5%	17.45%	12.12%
Near Synonymy	10.15%	23.5%	6.03%	5.15%
Paraphrase	5.85%	4.4%	7.32%	--------
The Use of General Terms	12.56%	3%	10.12%	3.84%
Inappropriate Meaning	7.40%	------------	16.37%	12.12%
Verbosity	6.02%	4%	6.46%	6.27%
Binary Terms	0.86%	3.3%	2.15%	0.42%

A close scrutiny of table(6) reveals a number of facts. Firstly, literal translation is the first in rank in both Saudi groups while it is the second in rank in both Egyptian and Jordanian groups. This fact asserts the idea that Arab EFL learners mainly resort to their L1 in the process of learning TL. Secondly, there is a kind of coincidence of results between the two Saudi groups. The first in rank is literal translation followed by both collocations and inappropriate meaning and the least in frequency is the use of binary terms. This result may support a conclusion that learners speaking the same dialect i.e. Saudi Arabic may have the same interlanguage features reflected in their errors. However, there is a discrepancy in results between the two groups in some categories like '

The Use of general terms'. In this respect, gender difference may play a role as one group consists of females and the other consists of males. A hypothesis which need to be verified by a separate study.

There is a discrepancy in results among different groups. While 'Near Synonymy' comes in the first rank within Jordanian group , it is in the fourth rank in Egyptian group and in the sixth rank in the Saudi group of this study. This difference in results, it is argued , is because of two factors. Firstly, the difference in the taxonomies provided by researchers. In other words, the same error may be classified under different categories by different researchers. This fact affects the percentage of each type of errors and results in this discrepancy. The researcher suffered from this overlap of classification while dealing with items like 'collocations' of which some items may be classified as literal translation. The second item that results in this discrepancy in results is the difference in local dialects: Egyptian Arabic, Jordanian Arabic and Saudi Arabic. Interlingual errors are the most pervasive in all groups(Zughoul, 1991,p.15; Shalaby et al.,2009,p.89). Learners do not resort to Standard Arabic; they use their local dialects and think in these local dialects. A fact which is illustrated by the cultural specific errors illustrated above.

7. Conclusion and Implications

This sturdy investigates the writings of two groups of Arab EFL learners i.e. Egyptian and Saudi with the aim of tracing different types of lexical semantic errors and their sources. Both groups committed ten types of errors: collocations, literal translation, the use of general terms, near synonymy, inappropriate meaning, metadiscourse, verbosity, paraphrase, Binary terms and the use of specific terms. Of all errors, literal translation was the most pervasive with the percentage of 25.07%. However, each group was unique in the frequency and percentage of errors. In the Egyptian group, collocation errors were the most pervasive with the percentage of 27.80 while literal translation was the most pervasive in Saudi group with the percentage of 27.80% . The uniqueness of each group is also reflected in the type of structures they used. In collocation errors, for example, the Egyptian group used the structure 'adjective + noun' widely while the Saudi group used the structure 'verb + noun' more than any other structure.

Both groups shared common features of their interlanguage and the sources of these errors. Interlingual errors are the most pervasive. Compound errors are a common feature of both groups as they committed errors ascribable to L1 and L2. In addition, both groups share a third type

of errors which are neither interlingual nor intralingual i.e. the interlanguage. These interlanguage error are embodied in the paraphrase errors in which learners do not use L1 or L2. This type of error is itself an evidence of the autonomy of the interlanguage system (Selinker, 1974).

Besides the common features of the interlanguage of both groups, each group shows its unique features i.e. cultural-specific. The Egyptian group, for example, used the strategy of 'conceptual literal translation' by which a whole concept, not a word, is literally translated from L1 into L2. The Saudi group also used cultural-specific lexis which are unique to Saudi culture and society like: sword and nanny.

This study has a number of implications. Firstly, it is useful to teach collocation structures in context and relate these collocations to their equivalents in L1. Secondly, teachers should be aware of the influence of local dialects over the formation of collocations. Thirdly, vocabulary must be taught in context in order to avoid errors like inappropriate meaning. Fourthly, lists of problematic words, like 'near synonymity', (Zughoul 1991) would be useful to deal with in EFL material introduced to learners. Fifthly, providing learners with errors taxonomy will raise their ability to correct themselves (Ellis 1997). In this context, peer editing is encouraged as students can edit each other's writing using a standard rubric. Finally, research on Lexical Semantic can help EFL learners on two levels. On the macro level it can contribute to the development of syllabi design especially in translation courses. A module can be added to edit semantic lexical errors like: near synonymy, inappropriate meaning, Binary terms and collocations. The inclusion of this module may increase students' awareness of the importance of contextualization. On the micro level, by being aware of the different types of Lexical Semantic errors teachers can devise techniques to overcome these errors in class activities. Teachers may offer alternatives to errors like paraphrase , literal translation and verbosity. In this context, students are encouraged to get exposed more to TL using both online and offline resources.

Further studies may add new insights to the investigation of lexical errors. Firstly, further studies are needed to include variables like sex and age. Secondly, different groups of students with different local varieties can be investigated to verify the findings of this research. Thirdly, Further studies on Lexical Formal errors may give new insights on the study of Lexical errors in general.

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