Biró, Anett

* La Dra. Biró es Profesora-Investigadora del Departamento de Idiomas Modernos de la Universidad de Pannonia, Veszprèm, Hungría.

Abstract

he research reported in the article has been carried out in order to find an explanation for the occurrence of L1 induced lexico-semantic errors in the performance of Hungarian learners learning EFL in a formal setting. The study examines the proposition that interlingual lexical errors appear due to the special organization of the learners' mental lexicon, which is characterized by the interrelatedness of L1 and L2 lexical meanings, and by links established between the conceptual-semantic representation, the mother tongue and the target language lexical items. The findings indicate that L2 conceptual and semantic representations are connected to the first language, and throw light on the lack, incompleteness or incorrectness of knowledge regarding semantic differences between translation equivalent lexical items. The results give reason for the inference that raising awareness about differences between L1 and L2 meanings must be achieved in order to improve L2 competence in any language teaching situation where language learning takes place in a monolingual setting.

Interlingual lexical errors: English-Hungarian translation equivalent lexical items and their mental representations in the context of learning English as a foreign language in Hungary

Key words

Cross-linguistic influence, error, vocabulary, mental lexicon, meaning

Palabras clave

Influencia cros-lingüística, error, vocabulario, léxicos mentales, significado

Resumen

a investigación que se reporta en este artículo se llevó a cabo para encontrar una explicación a la ocurrencia de errores lexico-semánticos inducidos en una L1, sobre todo en la actuación lingüística de estudiantes húngaros que aprenden inglés como lengua extranjera en un contexto formal. El estudio examina la propuesta de que errores lexicales interlinguales aparecen debido a la organización lexical en la mente de los estudiantes, la cual se caracteriza por la interrelación de significados entre la L1 y la L2, y por lazos establecidos entre la representación semánticoconceptual, la lengua materna y la lengua extranjera. Los hallazgos indican que representaciones conceptuales y semánticas en la L2, están conectadas a la L1 y sirven de indicadores como aspectos incompletos o incorrectos de conocimiento referente a las diferencias semánticas en la traducción de ítems lexicales equivalentes. Los resultados explican, por inferencia, que concienzar a los estudiantes acerca de las diferencias entre los significados entre la L1 y la L2 mejoran la competencia lingüístcia en una L2, en cualquier situación donde el aprendizaje de un idioma se efectúa en un contexto monolingüe.

1. Introduction

Mother tongue influence, or - as it is currently referred to - cross-linguistic influence has long been a major concern in foreign language classrooms. A vast array of research has been carried out into the question of what kind of an impact - if any - the first language exercises on foreign language learning. Most of the available evidence offers support for the existence of cross-linguistic influence (Gass & Selinker, 1994; Krashen, 1981; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Odlin, 2003; Skehan, 1989; Sharwood-Smith, 1994; White, 1989), learners of a foreign language tend to make use of the implicit knowledge gained from the mother tongue in the process of learning a foreign language.

Besides the fact that the mother tongue can facilitate the process of foreign language learning due to the resemblance of languages and to the first language functioning as a complementer of incomplete or unknown parts of knowledge, the influence of the mother tongue often manifests itself in the form of errors. Turning to the similarities, differences and partial overlaps stemming from the comparison of L1 and L2 linguistic items or patterns can serve a diagnostic function in the error correction procedure present in language teaching practices. It can shed light on problematic areas that need remedial teaching.

The setting in which a language is being learned significantly influences the psychological; psycholinguistic processes that take place during learning or acquisition (Krashen, 1981; Marton, 1986; Richards, 1974). Therefore several aspects of natural or naturalistic (first or second) language acquisition differ from the aspects of

institutional language learning. Studying cross-linguistic influence can have an especially important role in a monolingual, formal language learning setting, where the major source of the limited input is the teacher and the teaching manual. In the process of language acquisition data often get repeated, and learners check the accuracy of utterances by observation, so most of the errors committed are developmental, and L1 influence as a factor can be neglected. However, in the case of institutional, formal language learning – because of the limitation imposed on the intensity of exposure to and contact with the foreign language, and because of the fact that data do not become firmly rooted in the mind of learners due to the lack of real life experience - a large proportion of errors are not developmental in nature, rather directly traceable to the mother tongue. In the classroom the mother tongue has a greater influence on the foreign language, and errors must be given special consideration. Thus the systematic analysis and classification of errors becomes necessary, which involves detecting and accounting for them, finding their causes, and finally correcting them.

Cross-linguistic influence present at different linguistic levels, including lexis. Interlingual lexical errors – the wrong selection of lexical items - often result in misunderstanding, rather than a clear failure to understand, and may interfere with communication. In order to function adequately in the foreign language, learners need to develop their lexical competence and acquire the skill of correct lexical selection. The contrastive study of L1 and L2 vocabulary applied in the course of error analysis may provide useful information

about the process of language teaching and learning; and can facilitate the development of learners' interlanguage, the process to move away from the first language and to approximate L2.

2. Research objectives

The aim of the present study is to explore the nature of mother tongue influence present in the use of vocabulary by non-native speakers. To this end, errors occurring in the performance of Hungarian learners learning English as a foreign language have been examined, analyzed and accounted for. The major question to answer is: Why and in what form do parts of prior knowledge get operated in the course of L2 vocabulary learning and use? As an answer to the question a widely accepted hypothesis is that the learner's mother tongue provides a key to meanings, i. e., assuming semantic similarities between translation equivalent lexical items leads to the occurrence of errors. The basis for this assumption is the special organization of the bilingual mental lexicon, which is characteristic of the nonfluent (Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Heredia, 1996) language learner learning the language in a formal, institutional setting. Interlingual errors are caused by deficient L2 conceptual representations present in the learner's mind. Thus, within the scope of vocabulary, the research concentrates on the study of Hungarian language influence at the lexicosemantic level of English sentences with the help of the analysis of lexical errors induced by English-Hungarian semantic contrasts.

3. Theoretical framework: The bilingual mental lexicon

In spite of the vast number of

psycholinguistic research carried out into the field of the mental lexicon - the mental dictionary responsible for the storage of linguistic signs and their interrelations there are still uncertainties regarding its structure and operation. One of the reasons is the gradual perfection of linguistic competence, which results in the constant change of individuals' mental lexicon. The other is the impossibility of direct observation. As a consequence, a diversity of ideas and speculations are present in the literature. Research and neurological data seem to offer support for the hypothesis of the integrated system (Coleman, 1998) as opposed to the existence of separated systems (dual systems hypothesis). The widespread assumption holds that different, language-specific systems operate within one single, integrated system with interrelated L1 and L2 lexical items (subsystem hypothesis) (Grosjean, 1988; Kroll & Stewart, 1994). The connections between the lexical items of the subsystems may, however, differ in quality, nature and strength; and reflect the manner of foreign language learning as well as the degree of language proficiency. The existing models (coordinate, compound, subordinate) - composed of a conceptual store and the linguistic systems - characterize the learner at different stages of linguistic development. According to research findings (De Groot, 1993; Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Heredia, 1996), L1 serves as a mediator at the elementary and intermediate stages of language learning. Non-fluent language learners develop strong links between L1 and L2 lexical items, and create direct associations between the lexical representations of translation equivalent L1 and L2 words. They are unable to access the concept belonging to the L2 lexical

item, which – in the absence of a direct conceptual link - will be connected to the existing semantic content of the translation equivalent L1 lexical item (see Figure 1).

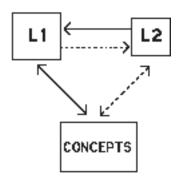


Figure 1. Hierarchical Bilingual Model (Kroll & Stewart, 1994)

This way the meaning of the L2 lexical item becomes subordinated to the meaning of the L1 word. Conceptual representations of the L1 item transfer into the corresponding L2 one "as language learners are forced to provide meaning to the word they are about to learn by associating it to the information they already know" (Heredia, 1996, p. 2). Thus the structure and operation of language learners' mental lexicon is highly influenced by their L1, which exercises an impact on target language performance. The interrelatedness of L1 and L2 lexical items leads to interaction and carries the possibility lexico-semantic transfer. Language learners apply the equivalence hypothesis, and approach vocabulary learning and use in the target language communication primarily as a translation process. They establish translation links regardless of the actual conceptual/semantic correspondence or non-correspondence between the two languages (Budai, 2006). This, in some cases (especially when there are differences between L1 and L2 meanings), results in

wrong lexical selection (or interlingual lexico-semantic errors).

The phenomenon lying behind the differences between L1 and L2 semantic specifications is the culture- and languagespecific interpretation of reality. Language and particularly lexis is the means of expressing meaning, the means of mediating cognitive reality. As a consequence of the differing abstractions of the same facts, the semantic contents belonging to translation equivalent lexical items will be different in two languages. As Corder (1973, p. 70) put it: "the structure of a language is often said to mirror the structure of the world as it is seen by a particular community."

4. Methodology

4.1 Error analysis

To gain insight into the nature and characteristics of L1 influence in respect of the semantic aspect of vocabulary, a study of semantic representations in the learners' minds has been carried out.

In the first phase, a thorough investigation of 145 L1 induced lexical errors present in learners' interlanguage was undertaken; and differences were identified with the help of English-Hungarian lexical contrastive analysis.

The data used to analyze English lexical errors committed by Hungarian learners were provided partly by answers found in written exams and other test papers taken at the Department of Foreign Languages of the University of Pannonia, and partly by a test paper containing 50 sentences and done by 103 university students having intermediate level language skills (see Appendix I).

The process of selection regarding the 50-sentence test paper was helped by word frequency lists and a collection of errors based on teaching experience (Budai, 2002). The 100 lexical items (50 English word pairs causing confusion for Hungarian learners) were chosen from the pre-selected vocabulary in the book; and except for 15 items they were among the most frequent 2000 English words. Studying the 2000-3000 high frequency words is supported by the fact that knowing them allows for satisfactory functioning in the target language; teaching and learning them is essential to form the learners' lexical competence (Nation, 1993), and this amount of lexical items can be expected of learners having 6-7 years of language learning experience on average. In the case of errors stemming from other sources even the subjective principles of selection had to be ignored. These errors occurred in the learners' sentences independently of any kind of elicitation or influence.

Taking into consideration the above mentioned facts, and that the vocabulary of a language can reach a volume of hundred thousands, the study can be said to be highly selective. At the same time, however, it gives a relatively accurate picture of the typical lexical errors committed by intermediate learners since - as a result of the homogenizing effect of sources and teaching materials used in the teaching practice of Hungary – lexical competence in the given population is characterized by the knowledge of roughly the same vocabulary.

In order to ease the recognition of lexical errors, lexical items in the 50-sentence test paper were elicited by providing L1 and L2 contexts. Findings in connection with meaning have also been formulated by taking the contexts into consideration.

In the course of the English-Hungarian lexical contrastive analysis the starting point to compare lexical items was provided by translation equivalence, the basis of which is external reality and its interpretation by these languages (Krzeszowski, 1984). As the differences between lexical items can be expressed with the help of semantic components (Kiefer, 2000), the description of meanings, which functions as an aid to explain semantic errors, was based on the detection of the differences between semantic components constituting corresponding L1 and L2 lexical items. The components, the differences of which can be interpreted as the explanation of interlingual errors, were identified with the help of the definitions of the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and A Dictionary of the Hungarian Language (Magyar értelmező kéziszótár).

The results of the error analysis procedure served as a basis of the study concerning the mental representations of semantic content and the nature of L1 influence. A self-account survey aimed to detect if the learners knew or had encountered the 50 lexical item pairs selected, and a test paper (Appendix II) which looked for the answer to the question whether the learners were able to give an account of the $differences\ between\ translation\ equivalent\ L1$ and L2 lexical items were expected to verify the hypothesis (see Research objectives).

Parallel to taking the vocabulary test (Appendix I), the learners were asked to declare the knowledge or non-knowledge of the selected lexical items. Also, a smaller group of learners (51 learners having intermediate language exams accredited in Hungary) took a test designed to test the knowledge of differing semantic contents

belonging to corresponding lexical items in the two languages with the help of 20 lexical item pairs randomly selected from the errors detected in the first phase of the study. In this test the learners were first asked to identify identical and differing meanings; and then to provide the main differences between the lexical items of the pairs by giving definitions (Appendix II).

5. Results

Different theories account for the existence of L1 influence, which can take the form of interference (the result of proactive inhibition), strategic language use or wrong hypothesis formation.

According to the findings revealed by the self-account survey, a large proportion of the learners declared the selected lexical items to be known. [The learners marked three (0-18) lexical items on average as unknown; markings concerned altogether 38 % of the lexical items; and 10.78 % of the total number of lexical items were unknown for more than 10 % of the 103 learners]. The figures (see Table 1) give reason for the inference that the lexical items in question did not trigger difficulties causing strategic language use to take place. However, the answers given by the learners in the 50 sentence test paper run counter to the findings of the self-account survey, as there seems to be a significant difference between the number of rightly selected lexical items and the answers concerning the knowledge of them (see Table 1).

Conceivably, the reason for the difference is that answers concerning the knowledge of the lexical items in question were based on only one aspect of knowing a word, namely the learners' ability to connect L1 translation equivalents to L2 lexical items. The results of the test seem to highlight deficiencies in the knowledge of lexical items. The errors show the inadequate depth of vocabulary knowledge; and indicate missing or unsatisfactory knowledge of semantic components, or difficulties in the recall and application of known semantic components responsible for the differences between meanings. These correspond with the definition of strategic language use although the findings of the survey reveal that some aspects characterizing the strategic use of languages (e.g., consciousness and recognized difficulty) do not seem to appear. Thus the strategic use of L1 (which is a means to compensate for the lack of target language linguistic competence by turning consciously to the relevant structures or items of the mother tongue) can be excluded as an explanation for the occurrence of L1 induced errors.

Similarly, interference as a possible explanation can be abandoned, as according to the findings (see Tables 2 and 3) learners have deficient knowledge concerning L2 lexical items. This means that the inhibitory nature of L1 cannot operate by definition, since the condition for interference to take place is the knowledge of rules concerning linguistic structures or items.

Table 1. Data concerning the knowledge of the lexical items

	Lexical item	The proportion of learners declaring the lexical item to be known (%)	Right lexical selection (%)	Wrong lexical selection (%)
1.	vivid	58	-	3
2.	shade	75	3	-
3.	bathe	77	7	-
4.	cuisine	80	22	-
5.	fee	82	21	-
6.	pitch	83	18	-
7.	interval	83	6	-
8.	tournament	86	8	-
9.	custom (1)	88	-	4
10.	custom (2)	88	12	-
11.	opportunity	88	30	-
12.	wear	90	-	11
13.	toe	90	21	-
14.	court	91	-	17
15.	competition	91	_	29
16.	expect	92	8	-
17.	injured (1)	92	-	4
18.	injured (2)	92	32	-
19.	reason	92	-	34
20.	explore	93	10	-
21.	last	93	22	-
22.	bank	93	-	4
23.	damaged (1)	94	27	-
24.	damaged (2)	94	-	1
25.	silent	95	-	19
26.	bake	95	-	26
27.	shadow	95	-	72
28.	carry (1)	95	16	-
29.	carry (2)	95	37	-
30.	habit (1)	95	52	-
31.	habit (2)	95	-	34
32.	roast	97	7	-
33.	journey	97	61	-
34.	lively	97	20	-
35.	prize	97	-	7
36.	act	97	23	-
37.	coast	97	31	-
38.	step	97	16	-
39.	ground	98	-	9

40.	race	98	20	-
41.	countryside	98	2	-
42.	job	100	72	
43.	work	100	-	26
44.	bath	100		53
45.		100	59	
	leave (1)			31
46.	start	100	-	32
47.	take (1)	100	-	
48.	take (2)	100	-	26
49.	boil	100	44	-
50.	cook	100	-	49
51.	correct	100	65	-
52.	repair	100	-	3
53.	discover	100	-	62
54.	keep (1)	100	-	8
55.	keep (2)	100	-	14
56.	hold	100	54	-
57.	leave (2)	100	16	-
58.	finish	100	-	57
59.	play	100	-	70
60.	watch	100	52	-
61.	look	100	-	3
62.	wait	100	-	76
63.	study	100	76	-
64.	learn	100	-	18
65.	break (1)	100	53	-
66.	break (2)	100	-	34
67.	pause (2)	100	-	27
68.	building	100	25	-
69.	house	100	-	54
70.	cause	100	27	-
71.	championship	100	-	55
72.	relation	100	6	-
73.	relationship	100	-	49
74.	dish	100	45	-
75.	food	100	-	36
76.	clothes	100	83	-
77.	dress	100	-	10
78.	finger	100	-	54
79.	floor	100	68	-
80.	kitchen	100	-	25
81.	wood	100	47	-
82.	tree	100	-	28

83.	foot	100	29	-
84.	leg	100	-	17
85.	error	100	6	-
86.	mistake	100	1	38
87.	nature	100	-	83
88.	room	100	8	-
89.	place	100	-	72
90.	possibility	100	-	11
91.	stair	100	-	48
92.	road	100	39	-
93.	street	100	-	1
94.	way	100	-	47
95.	travel	100	-	13
96.	great	100	63	-
97.	big	100	-	12
98.	clear	100	58	-
99.	clean	100	-	17
100.	high	100	55	-
101.	tall	100	-	29
102.	quiet	100	21	-

As neither interference nor strategic language use can serve as an explanation for the emergence of L1 induced lexical errors, a third alternative should be considered. According to this alternative the presence L1 influence in L2 sentences and utterances is explicable with the help of the organization of the learner's mental lexicon, which is highly influenced by the setting in which the language is being learned. In accordance with the hierarchical bilingual model by Kroll and Stewart (1994), which characterizes particularly non-fluent (Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Heredia, 1996) learners learning the foreign language in an instructed, institutionalized, formal setting, special links are established between the conceptual-semantic representations, mother tongue and the target language lexical items. The learner connects the L2 lexical item to the corresponding L1 lexical item, thus indirectly conceptual and semantic representations associated with the L2 item get connected to the L1 as well (Kroll, 1993; Potter & Kroll, 1987; Snodgrass, 1984). Target language meanings are subordinated to L1 meanings. The formation of this kind of special organization is enhanced by several factors. One of them is the monolingual language learning setting, which makes it difficult for the learner to grasp languagespecific conceptual representations and meanings belonging to L2 lexical items. The others are certain features of the language learning and teaching practice, such as defining meaning with the help of translation equivalence and forming lexical competence by memorizing bilingual word pairs. As the learner does not get sufficient information about the meaning of the L2 lexical item (Nation, 1993), L2 conceptual and semantic representations remain deficient or wrong.

On the basis of the abovementioned the following assumptions can be made: errors arise as a result of associations made between an L1 conceptual representation (and by this means, between the semantic components of an L1 lexical item) and a L2 lexical item, i.e., the learner presumes semantic equivalence and cannot give an account of the differences because of the lack or deficiency of direct L2 conceptual and semantic representations.

The findings reflect the correctness of the hypothesis. The data show that although regarding certain lexical items (see Table 2) the learners are aware of the differences – in the case of numerous lexical items a large proportion of the learners presume the lexical-semantic identity of the translation equivalent lexical item pairs, which indicates that L2 conceptual and semantic representations are linked to the first language.

Table 2. Hungarian-English translation equivalent lexical item pairs selected on the basis of an error analysis procedure, and the knowledge of the differences between their meanings

Hungarian-English translation equivalent lexical item pairs	The proportion of learners assuming semantic equivalence (%)	The proportion of learners recognizing difference (%)	Missing answer (%)
1. süt – fry	2	98	0
2. néz – watch	31	59	10
3. ház – house	90	8	2
4. verseny – race	14	80	6
5. étel – dish	21	75	4
6. ujj – finger	57	43	0
7. föld – floor	4	96	0
8. ruha – dress	10	82	8
9. láb – leg	61	33	6
10. pálya – court	25	57	18
11. tiszta – clear	43	47	10
12. lépcső – stairs	53	35	12
13. javít – repair	45	51	4
14. hely – place	61	16	23
15. busz – bus	67	31	2
16. asztal – table	69	23	8
17. vőlegény – bridegroom	77	21	2
18. zenekar – band	29	59	12
19. nagy – great	8	82	10
20. virág – plant	2	94	4

The semantic difference between the Hungarian-English translation equivalent lexical items introduced in Table 2 is the fact that the English lexical items are semantically more complex with several restrictive semantic components; while the Hungarian lexical items are semantically indefinite, have more underspecified, underdifferentiated meanings, and cover a more extended domain of reference.

A further analysis of the data was aimed at detecting the awareness about the nature and characteristics of the differences. The results threw light on the existence of

imperfect L2 representations in the learners' minds, and on the lack, incompleteness or incorrectness of knowledge regarding components responsible semantic semantic differences. In a number of cases, learners able to recognize differences between the meanings of translation equivalent lexical items were incapable of defining differing semantic components, and accounting for the nature of the difference. This verifies the hypothesis according to which interlingual errors are induced by incomplete L2 lexical representations in the learner's mind (see Table 3).

Table 3. Hungarian-English translation equivalent lexical item pairs selected on the basis of an error analysis procedure, and the knowledge of L2 semantic components responsible for the differences between their meanings

Hungarian-English translation equivalent lexical item pairs	Semantic component 1 The proportion of learners knowing the semantic component responsible for the difference (%)	Semantic component 2 The proportion of learners knowing the semantic component responsible for the difference (%)
1. süt – fry	[in hot fat or oil]	[small pieces]
	94	0
2. néz – watch	[happening]	
	0	
3. ház – house	[used by one family]	
	0	
4. verseny – race	[speed]	
	29	
5. étel – dish	[food cooked or prepared in a	
	particular way]	
	57	
6. ujj – finger	[hand]	[not thumb]
	55	0

7. föld – floor	[indoors]	
	67	
8. ruha – dress	[worn by a woman or a girl]	[from shoulder to somewhere on the leg]
	63	41
9. láb – leg	[long part of the body that feet are joined to]	
	10	
10. pálya – court	[certain sports]	[e.g. tennis, squash]
	18	20
11. tiszta – clear	[air, water]	[clean and fresh]
	0	2
12. lépcső – stairs	[indoors]	
	18	
13. javít – repair	[tangible object]	[damaged, broken or not working properly]
	24	10
14. hely – place	[a particular point in space]	[for a particular purpose]
	2	2
15. busz – bus	[not long journey]	
	27	
16. asztal – table	[for a particular purpose: e.g. eating]	
	22	
17. vőlegény –	[on the day of the wedding]	
bridegroom	18	
18. zenekar – band	[smaller group of musicians]	[popular music]
	6	22
19. nagy – great	[very good, excellent]	
	71	
20. virág – plant	[houseplant]	
	55	

Besides the semantic components identified in the course of error analysis and introduced in Table 3, learners recognizing the differences between the meanings of L1

and L2 translation equivalent lexical items provided a number of wrong semantic components as explanations differences (see Table 4).

Table 4. Wrong semantic components provided by the learners, and the proportion of learners unable to explain the differences between L1 and L2 meanings

English lexical items	Wrong semantic components (total %)	Missing answer (%)
1. fry		2
	[deliberately]	
	[indirectly]	
2. watch	[for a longer period of time]	25
	[attentively]	
	[a particular object] 18	
3. house	[apartment block] 6	0
	[several people]	
4. race	[several teams]	2
4. race	[people]	2
	[rarely mental] 10	
5. dish	[used for serving food]	0
5. dish	[dish] 24	0
6. finger	[human] 2	2
	[corridor]	
7. floor	[level in a building]	0
	[earth] 29	
	[evening]	
8. dress	[swimming]	12
	[doing sports] 8	
	[animate]	
	[human]	
9. leg	[chair] 12 [concrete, definite]	
	[from the knee] 20	

	[golf]	
	[law]	
10. court	[outdoor ballgame]	0
10. Court	[car race]	
	[competition]	
	[game] 31	
11. clear	[in a physical sense] 4	8
	[iii a physical serise]	Ů
	[one of a set]	
12. stairs	[indoors or outdoors]	8
12. Stalls	[level of a building]	O
	[part of a building] 16	
13. repair	[not with tools] 2	4
14. place	[room]	6
	[open space]	
	[empty area] 8	
15. bus		4
16. table		2
17. bridegroom		29
18. band	[instrumental]	4
	[not necessarily instrumental] 4	
19. great		4
20. plant		2

6. Conclusions

The results gained from the tests seem to verify the hypothesis that nonfluent learners of Hungarian mother tongue learning English as a foreign language in a formal, monolingual setting are not aware of the differences between L1 and L2 lexical meanings. L2 lexical knowledge is unsatisfactory and characterized by the lack of a separate, language-specific semantic system. L2 lexical items are stored in the mental lexicon with L1 meanings, which are the source, cause, and explanation of interlingual lexical errors (Kroll, 1993).

Learners employing the one-to-onecorrespondence hypothesis consider the mother tongue to be the basis of hypothesis formation, and - without adequate ways of raising awareness regarding lexicosemantic differences - they are unable to form complete L2 mental representations, which increase the chance of fossilization. Raising awareness by focusing on lexical contrasts can also help improve the lexical competence of learners who recognize semantic differences, as according to the findings the basis to distinguish languagespecific meanings is unstable, and stems from a number of false hypotheses.

In conclusion, the findings draw attention to the necessity of a more effective control of learning, which can be made feasible with the help of raising awareness regarding semantic contrasts between the two languages. In order to achieve an improvement in L2 lexical competence, differences between semantic components comprising L1 and L2 lexical items must be highlighted and emphasized. Otherwise, learners will be trapped in their own associations stemming from the first language, and erroneous utterances will characterize their L2 performance.

E-mail: biroannet@freemail.hu

References

- Budai, L. (2002). Angol hibaigazító. Budapest: Corvina.
- Budai L. (2006). The key role of semanticizing in foreign language teaching. In J. Bárdos (Ed.), HUSSE Papers 2005

- (pp. 353-366). Veszprém: Veszprémi Egyetemi Kiadó.
- Coleman, J. (1998). Cognitive reality and the phonological lexicon: A review. Journal of Neurolinguistics, 11 (3), 295-320.
- Corder, S. P. (1973). Introducing applied linguistics. England: Penguin.
- De Groot, A. B. M. (1993). Word type effects in bilingual processing tasks (support for a mixed-representational system). In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (Eds.), The bilingual lexicon (pp. 27-52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Dufour, R., & Kroll, J. F. (1995). Matching words to concepts in two languages: A test of the concept mediation model of bilingual representation. Memory and Cognition, 23, 166-180.
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (1994). Second language acquisition. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- **Exploring** Grosjean, F. (1988).the recognition of guest words in bilingual speech. Language and Cognitive Processes, *3*, 233-274.
- Heredia, R. R. (1996). Bilingual memory: A re-revised version of the hierarchical model of bilingual memeory. CRL Newsletter, 10 (3). [On-line] Available: http://crl.ucsd.edu/newsletter/10-3/
- Juhász, J., Szőke, I., Nagy, G., & Kovalovszky, M. (Eds.) (1982). Magyar értelmező kéziszótár. Budapest: Akadémiai Kiadó.

- Kiefer, F. (2000). Jelentéselmélet. Budapest: Corvina.
- Krashen, S. (1981). Second language acquisition and second language learning. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Kroll, J. (1993). Accessing conceptual representation for words in second language. In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (Eds.), The bilingual lexicon (pp. 53-82). Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Kroll, J., & Stewart, E. (1994). Category interference in translation and picture naming: Evidence for assymetric connections between bilingual memory representations. Journal of Memory and Language, 33, 149-174.
- Krzeszowski, P. T. (1984).Tertium comparationis. In J. Fisiak (Ed.), linguistics: prospects Contrastive problems (pp. 301-13). Berlin, New York, Amsterdam: Mouton de Gruyer.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1999). How languages are learned. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. (1995). 3rd edition. London: Longman.
- Marton, W. (1986). Language learner's errors in a pedagogical perspective. In D. Kastovsky & A. Szwedek (Eds.), Trends in linguistics. Linguistics across historical and geographical boundaries. Vol. 2.: Descriptive and applied linguistics (pp. 1357-1376). New York, Berlin, Amsterdam: Mouton de Gruyer.

- Nation, P. (1993). Vocabulary size, growth and use. In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (Eds.), The bilingual lexicon (pp. 115-134). Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Odlin, T. (2003). Cross-linguistic influence. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.) The handbook of second language acquisition (pp. 436-486). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Potter, M. C., & Kroll, J. F. (1987). The conceptual representation of pictures and words: A reply to Clark. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 116, 310-311.
- Richards, J. (Ed.) (1974). Error analysis. London: Longman.
- Sharwood-Smith, M. (1994). Second language learning: Theoretical foundations. London: Longman.
- Skehan, P. (1989). Individual differences in second learning. London: Edward language Arnold.
- Snodgrass, J. G. (1984). Concepts and their surface representations. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour, 23, 23-38.
- White, L. (1989). Universal grammar and second language acquisition. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Este artículo fue presentado a Entre Lenguas en junio de 2008, revisado en septiembre de 2008 y aprobado definitivamente para su publicación en diciembre de 2008.

Appendix I

A 50-sentence test paper providing errors for the EA procedure

FELADAT (TASK): A magyar mondatnak megfelelően egészítse ki az angol mondatot a megfelelő angol szóval! (Complete the English sentences with the English equivalents of the Hungarian words in italics.)

1.	Az lesz a munkája, hogy könyveket ad el egy boltban. Her will be selling
	books in a shop.
2.	Meleg napokon gyakran fürdünk a folyóban. On hot days we often in the river.
3.	A vonat 7-kor indul. The train at 7 o'clock.
4.	Mindig hordott esernyőt. She always an umbrella.
5.	A teve 400 fontnyi súlyt tud vinni. A camel can as much as 400 pounds.
6.	Tudod, hogy kell tojást főzni? Do you know how to an egg?
7.	Húst süt a sütőben. She is meat in the oven.
8.	A tanár fogalmazásokat javít. The teacher is essays.
9.	John Skóciában van, hogy felfedezze. John is in Scotland it.
10.	A tél hat hosszú hónapig fog tartani. Winter will six long months.
11.	Egy könyvet tart a kezében. She is a book in her hands.
12.	A fia jövőre fejezi be az iskolát. His son will school next year.
13.	Nagyszerűen játszott a filmben. She superbly in the film.
14.	Elmentünk megnézni a focimeccset. We went to the football match.
15.	Vacsorára fogjuk őket várni. We will them for dinner.
16.	A Gordon Egyetemen tanul. She is
17.	24 órát dolgoztunk szünet nélkül. We have worked 24 hours without a
18.	Az első felvonás után volt egy szünet. There was a/an after the first act.
19.	Egy nagy ház harmadik emeletén lakom. I live on the third floor of a tall
20.	A tűz oka gázszivárgás volt. The of/ for the fire was a gas leak.
21.	Mindig részt vesz a teniszbajnokságban. He always takes part in the tennis
22.	A gaelt Skócia nyugati partján beszélik. Gaelic is spoken on the West of Scotland.
23.	Sok pénzt költ lóversenyre. She spends a lot of money on horse
24.	Magyarországnak jó a kapcsolata Franciaországgal. Hungary has a good with France.

47. Csendes életet éltek. They led a life.

48. Az autó megsérült a balesetben. The car was in the accident.

49. John megsérült a balesetben. John was in the accident.

50. O egy nagyon élénk lány. She is a very girl.

Appendix II

A test designed to test the knowledge of the differing semantic components of selected translation equivalent lexical items

FELADAT (TASK): A következő 20 magyar-angol szópár mindkét tagjához írjon <u>magyar</u> nyelven rövid definíciót, majd döntse el a két szó jelentése megegyezik-e a két nyelvben vagy eltér! Amennyiben Ön szerint a két szó jelentése valamilyen tekintetben különbözik, fogalmazza meg az eltérés lényegét! (Please, give a short Hungarian definition of each member of the following 20 lexical item pairs, and decide whether the two lexical items have identical or different meanings in the two languages. In the latter case, please, explain the difference.)

Pl. (e. g.)

templom : istentisztelet számára fenntartott	church: istentisztelet számára fenntartott épület
épület (a building where people go to	(a building where people go to worship)
worship)	

A két jelentés (the meanings are) egyezik (the same) / eltér (different) Eltérés (Difference): church: keresztény vallás (where Christians go)

1. süt: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	fry:
2. néz: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	watch:
3. ház: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	house:
4. verseny: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	race:
5. étel: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	dish:
6. ujj: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	finger:

7. föld: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	floor:
8. ruha: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	dress:
9. láb: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	leg:
10. pálya: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	court:
11. tiszta: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	clear:
12. lépcső: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	stairs:
13. javít: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	repair:
14. hely: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	place:
15. busz: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	bus:
16. asztal: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	table:
17. vőlegény: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	bridegroom:
18. zenekar: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	band:
19. nagy: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	great:
20. virág: A két jelentés egyezik / eltér Eltérés:	plant: