The Effect of Learner Proficiency and L1 Transfer on the Use of *Make* by Korean EFL Learners of English

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The present study investigates how learner proficiency and L1 transfer affect Korean EFL learners’ use of the high frequency verb, *make*. Using the Korean learner corpus of English, which is composed of 1,030 argumentative essays, the study first analyzes the use of *make* and compares that with the findings of Altenberg and Granger (2001). Results showed that Korean learners overuse *make* in produce and causative uses. Study, secondly, examines the effect of learners’ proficiency and L1 transfer on the use of *make*. It was found that lower-proficiency learners misuse the verb *make* much more frequently than advanced learners. In addition, with regard to L1 transfer, the majority of learners’ misuse result from L1 transfer and even advanced learners are not free from interlingual interference. As a result, this study demonstrates that Korean EFL learners’ errors with the use of the verb *make* are largely a product of L1 transfer. Pedagogical implications are provided.

**Keywords:** high frequency verb, *make*, learner proficiency, L1 transfer

1. Introduction

While, throughout the past few decades, corpus-based studies have shed light on the effect of L1 transfer on the misuse of verb-noun collocations (Biskup, 1992; Barfield, 2001; Nesselhauf, 2003; Wang and Shaw, 2008; Laufer and Waldman, 2011), other researches focused on the use of high-frequency verbs (Sinclair, 1991; Hasselgren, 1994; Källkvis, 1999; Altenberg and Granger, 2001). High-frequency verbs, which are often
called delexical verbs, merit particular attention since they cover a very large proportion of the spoken and written data and produce a large number of collocates (Nation, 2001).

The literature on the use of high-frequency verbs by EFL learners has shown contradictory observations. Both overuse (Hasselgren, 1994; Källkvis, 1999) and underuse (Sinclair, 1991) have been reported. Altenberg and Granger (2001)’s study focused on the verb *make* and found that advanced proficiency-level French and Swedish learners significantly underuse delexical *make*, while the Swedish learners overuse causative *make* and the French learners underuse this category. They also analyzed learners’ misuse of *make* qualitatively and suggested that the errors are partly affected by their first languages. Their study provided implications that overuse or underuse of high-frequency verb, *make*, can be traced back to L1 transfer and looked into qualitatively as well.

A number of studies point to L1 transfer as a main reason for misuse of high frequency verbs (M-H Kim, 2002; Chen & Mei, 2006; Zingräf, 2008; Fu, 2010; T-H Nam, 2011; S-J Lee, 2013). Analyses on Korean learners’ use of *make* argue that Korean learners are affected somehow by their L1 when using the verb *make* (M-H Kim, 2002; T-H Nam, 2011; S-J Lee, 2013). These previous researches, however, did not provide detailed examples of misuse of *make* by Korean learners analysis in terms of L1 transfer. It is necessary to show clearer picture of how Korean learners are using the verb *make*.

This study, therefore, aims to provide more detailed L1 transfer analysis on the use of *make* by Korean EFL learners using Korean learner corpus of English which is extracted from Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC). This article, in addition, investigates how learners’ proficiency level affects the use of *make*. This inquiry might help us understand why even advanced learners misuse *make* persistently.
2. Literature Review

2.1. High Frequency Verbs in SLA

Altenberg and Granger (2001) investigated EFL learners' use of high frequency verb, *make* and found that even advanced proficiency level learners have great difficulty with a high frequency verb and that some of these problems are L1-related. The researchers grouped different uses of *make* into eight major categories. They found the delexical category is used significantly less by Swedish and French learner groups than by the native speaker group. In the causative category, Swedish learners showed significantly higher frequency than the French and the natives. They concluded that the errors are partly interlingual, partly intralingual, and also partly teaching-induced.

M-H Kim (2002) and S-J Lee (2013) analyzed the use of the verb *make* in a Korean learner corpus and compared the results with the findings of Altenberg and Granger (2001). These two studies showed that Korean learners overuse *make* in the produce category (M-H Kim, 2002; S-J Lee, 2013) and causative category (M-H Kim, 2002). M-H Kim (2002) showed that Korean learners overuse *make*, and often generalize produce and causative uses of *make*, whereas they underuse or misuse the delexical and other idiomatic uses. In order to check L1 influence, she looked at 1,000 word corpus samples with "*mandul*" from Yonsei Modern Korean Written Corpus, and found that "*mandul*" conveys mainly its basic meaning 'produce or create' (66.6%), and 'causative' (22.9%). Since the Korean "*mandul*"- has not developed delexical or other idiomatic meanings, Korean learners over-rely on the core meaning of *make*. Particularly, Korean learners employed the *make* causatives as an all-around 'lexical teddy bear' instead of semantically more appropriate complex single causative verbs. M-H Kim (2002) however, mentioned the limitation of her study as smaller learner corpus size and lower proficiency level of learners than those of Altenberg and Granger (2001). S-J Lee (2013) also argued that misuse of the verb *make* comes from L1 transfer but she did not present detailed explanation on the L1 transfer.

Studies on other high frequency verbs also report learner errors related
to L1 transfer (T-H Nam, 2011; Chen & Mei, 2006; Fu, 2010). For example, T-H Nam (2011) reported that the biggest difference between Korean learners and the native speakers was found in the use of delexical *make* and *take*, which Korean learners significantly underused. Another noticeable result with regard to the use of *make* presented in T-H Nam's study was that higher proficiency-level learners tend to use a larger number of delexical verb constructions with abstract meanings such as “mental judgment” or “speech act.” Regarding misuses, Korean learners overused the delexical construction in place of single semantically complex verbs. He argued that L1 transfer might have influenced the misuse of delexical verb constructions.

Fu (2006) discovered that most of the nouns followed by *make* are ‘big’ positive words, referring to some rather important actions, such as *decision*, *judgment*, *research*, etc. On the other hand, a major proportion of the nouns followed by *do* are rather negative ones like *disadvantage*, *harm*, *damage*, etc. The researcher also argues that L1 influence might have played a role. Chinese students tend to merely translate the Chinese equivalents “*zuo*” into English, thus resulting in awkward expressions. Chen and Mei (2010) focused on high frequency verb *keep* used by Chinese learners and native speakers. They used BROWN corpus and CLEC (Chinese Learner English Corpus) for learner corpus. Two learner proficiency groups were categorized in this study. Lower proficiency learner group used *keep* more frequently than native speakers. There was, however, no significant difference in the frequency of verb *keep* across BROWN and higher proficiency learner group. They concluded that learners tend to overuse delexical verb *keep* out of their limited range of vocabulary knowledge.

2.2. L1 Transfer in Corpus Studies

L1 transfer has been a focus for a long time in corpus studies (Hasselgren, 1994; Nesselhauf, 2003; Wang and Shaw, 2008; Zingräf 2008; Laufer and Waldman, 2011). Hasselgren (1994) looked at ‘wrong words’ found in translation texts and ‘different words’ found by comparison of the vo-
The Effect of Learner Proficiency and L1 Transfer on the Vocabulary elicited by Norwegian students and English native speakers in response to specific test questions. The findings indicated that Norwegian learners depend heavily on familiar equivalents, leading to one-to-one translation. The researcher highlighted this learner dependence as 'lexical teddy bears'.

Wang and Shaw (2008) compared the collocational errors demonstrated in both Swedish and Chinese learner corpora in order to test the hypothesis that the inability to properly form collocations is often due to L1 transfer, and that greater typological differences between the L1 and the target language leads to more serious errors. Unlike Nesselhauf (2003)'s study, it was found that both groups chose similar sets of noun collocates and made similar errors in the same proportion, despite their different L1s.

Zingräf (2008) investigated the misuse of verb-noun collocations by Spanish learners of English. The results showed that make and do were the most frequent delexical verbs Spanish learners misused. Even advanced level learners relied on Sinclair (1991)'s 'Open Choice Principle': they construct a meaning by adding up meanings of individual words, ignoring restrictions on collocations. In addition, 61% of these nonstandard verb-noun collocations were found to be transferred from learners' L1.

Nesselhauf (2003)'s study is the extensive one on L1 influence on collocations. She investigated the use of verb-noun collocations by advanced German-speaking learners of English in free written production. She used the data from German subcorpus of ICLE (The International Corpus of Learner English). In the first step of analysis, all verb-object-noun combinations from the essays were manually extracted. The combinations were, then, classified as to their degree of restriction (i.e. RC: 'restricted collocation', F: 'free combinations', or I: 'idioms'). Lastly, their acceptability in English was evaluated in terms of five major mistake types (verb, noun, usage, preposition, article) According to the results, all of the identifiable errors were related to the L1 interference (e.g. *make homework; Hausaufgaben machen, *draw a picture from; ein Bild zeichnen von). She emphasized that a closer examination of L1 influence on the different types of collocation mistakes showed that about half of the mistakes were probably affected by learners' L1 in all the five mistake types.
Laufer and Waldman (2011)'s study is an well-organized research about learner proficiency and L1 influence on verb-noun collocations. They investigated the use of English verb-noun collocations in the writing of native speakers of Hebrew at three proficiency levels. A statistically significant relationship was found between the number of collocations and the proficiency of learners. L2 learners under-produce verb-noun collocations when compared to NSs of a similar age. Interestingly, the advanced learners even showed evidence of L1 influence in over one third of all errors. Moreover, most of the recurrent errors were interlingual. Forty-two out of the 47 recurrent error types were word-for-word translations of parallel Hebrew collocations that convey the same meaning but use different verbs. Their research mentioned L1 influence but still did not show error examples.

To sum up, It is generally agreed that collocation errors reflect interference from L1 transfer, and these studies above are in line with earlier researches on collocation errors which reported blends between L1 and L2 (Biskup, 1992; Bahns, 1993; Cowie & Howarth, 1995; Farghal and Obiedat, 1995). In spite of its importance, there has been little detailed analysis on the effect of L1 transfer in the use of collocations or high frequency verbs, with the exception of Nesselhauf (2003)'s work on collocations and Altenberg and Granger (2001)'s investigation on make. While there has been increasing awareness that learner proficiency does not guarantee correct usage of such verbs (Laufer and Waldman, 2011), little attention has been paid to learner proficiency variance. The present study aims to examine the effect of learners’ proficiency and L1 transfer on the use of make which has two equivalent constructions in Korean, “-key ha-ta” and “(-key) mandul-ta”.

2.3. Causatives in Korean and English

Korean has two types of causatives: there are morphological causatives and syntactic causatives, which are exemplified in (1).
(1) a. The morphological (direct) causative:
\[ \text{em}m\text{-ka} \quad \text{ai-eykey} \quad \text{pap-ul} \quad \text{mek-i-ess-ta}. \]
mother-NOM child-DAT rice-ACC eat-CAUS-PST-DECL
‘Mother fed the child rice.’

b. The syntactic causative:
\[ \text{em}m\text{-ka} \quad \text{ai-eykey} \quad \text{pap-ul} \quad \text{mek-key} \quad \text{ha-yess-ta}. \]
mother-NOM child-DAT rice-ACC eat-COMP do-PST-DECL
‘Mother made the child eat rice.’

While the morphological causative in (1a) is formed by inserting the verbal suffix \(-i/-hi/-li/-ki\), the syntactic causative in (1b) is formed by inserting the complementizer \(-key\) and the verb \(-ha-ta\) (J-S Choi, 2014: p. 642). These two types encode semantic differences: the morphological causative is used to express direct causation whereas the syntactic causative is for indirect causation (Haiman, 1983).

English also has similar two distinct types of causatives. The lexical (direct) causatives express direct causation while the periphrastic (syntactic) causatives express indirect causation like below (J-S Choi, 2014; Helms-Park, 2001).

(2) a. The lexical (direct) causative:
\[ \text{I broke the cup.} \]

b. The periphrastic (syntactic) causative:
\[ \text{I made my mom laugh.} \]

The English periphrastic causative construction of \textit{make} in (2) is equivalent to Korean syntactic causative construction “\textit{-ke ha/madul-ta}”. These two are similar in that they denote indirect causation semantically. It should be noted, however, that English periphrastic causative constructions can be formed with other causative verbs such as \textit{let, have, get} while Korean allows only “\textit{-ke ha/madul-ta}” forms for syntactic construction.

K-S Hong (2002) used 200 Korean sentences with “\textit{mandul}” and “\textit{hata}” from Kaist Corpus, and showed that the frequency of animate agents or patients in Korean “\textit{mandul}” and “\textit{hata}” causatives is lower than that of English \textit{make} causatives. (3) presents typical causatives in English and Korean:
(3) English: You/This inconvenience made him leave.


The sound of rain made Miseon feel more romantic.


Calvinism made the secularization of labor possible.

She found that abstract nouns are often used when referring to specific events or circumstances in Korean (fact, experience, interference, solution). Korean “mandul” causatives, moreover, describe their patients as much more helpless and passive undergoers of automatic change by forceful causation than make causatives. Korean “hata” causatives, noticeably, take “kaneungha-ke” (possible) as complements 10% out of 200 sentences, which implies that “hata” refers to result state more frequently than “mandul”.

Likewise, there are similarities and subtle differences between Korean and English causatives. Both languages have two distinct types of causatives differentiating between direct and syntactic types. Korean syntactic causatives, “-ke ha/mandul-ta” constructions can be easily mapped into English syntactic causatives, make constructions, and the use of make seems comparatively easy for Korean learners at first sight. In a different view, this similarity can be confusable for EFL learners because of L1-induced paraphrases (Dahlmeier & Tou Ng, 2011). The two languages also have subtle differences in that Korean “-ke ha/mandul-ta” constructions predicate inanimate agents (abstract nouns) more frequently compared to English make constructions. Learners, again, “are most likely to face great obstacles in cases where they negatively transfer their linguistic knowledge of the L1 to L2 context (Sadegi, 2009: 100).”
3. Research Questions and Methods

3.1. Research Questions

From the view of the gaps identified in the present literature review, the three research questions were to be addressed as follows:

1. To what extent do Korean learners over- or underuse the high frequency verb, *make*?
2. How does learners’ proficiency level affect the misuse of the verb *make*?
3. What proportion of misuse of the verb, *make*, are due to L1 influence?

3.2. Methods

The Korean learner corpus of English used for this study consists of 1,030 argumentative essays (130,102 words) extracted from Yonsei English Learner Corpus (YELC), and was divided into two subcorpora: Low Proficiency (LP) and Advanced Proficiency (AP). YELC originally contains 6,572 essays (e.g., 3,286 narratives and 3,286 argumentative essays) written by 3,286 college freshmen of Yonsei university in Korea, which were rated by native speakers of English and classified into 6 levels, then modified into 9 levels (inserting ‘+’-marked groups) ranging from A1 to C2.

The present study constructed two proficiency groups which were expected to show noticeable contrast with each other: A1, A1+, and A2 were for Low Proficiency group (LP), and B2+, C1, and C2 were for Advanced Proficiency group (AP). B2+ group was classified into advanced group since it was marked above [upper intermediate] and showed similar proficiency level of writing to C1. LP includes 910 essays (99,749 words), and AP includes 120 essays (30,353 words).

To compare the Korean EFL learner use with Native Speaker use, this study used Altenberg and Granger’s (2001) results with 207 NS argumentative essays (168,325 words) from the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS). An overview of the three corpora is given in Table 1.
Table 1. Learner and Native-Speaker Corpora

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Korean LP</th>
<th>Korean AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of words</td>
<td>99,749</td>
<td>30,353</td>
<td>168,325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of essays</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average no. of words per essays</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>813</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The native-speaker essays from LOCNESS are comparable to Korean learner essays in terms of text type and topics. Both cover argumentative topics related to school life or general social problems. According to J-W Choi & J-Y Song (2013), the Korean learner argumentative essays from YELC are assumed to be written focusing on topics such as discipline in schools, animal testing, and smoking in public places, etc. The average length of native-speaker essays are longer than the Korean learner essays, which is assumed due to requirements for Korean learners to write around 300 words (J-W Choi & J-Y Song, 2013: 96) and the lack of their proficiency to fulfill the requirements on the length of texts. This might have resulted in smaller size of learner samples than LOCNESS. The limitation of this study is that the two learner samples are not exactly comparable to the native-speaker sample in terms of corpus size. Nevertheless, considering the division of the learner corpus into two proficiency groups, this study will help understand how learner proficiency affects the use of make.

The subsequent analysis was conducted using the software, Wordsmith Tools. The LP sample of YELC data was examined through 1 in 2 randomized entries: since LP group heavily overused the verb make, therefore, 1 in 2 randomized entries showed enough frequencies to be examined through.

Lastly, manual investigation was used to analyze learners’ misuse of make and L1 transfer. The role of learners’ first language was examined with regard to wrong and questionable structures (i.e. W, Q). The wrong and questionable structures (misuses) were determined to be L1-influenced when learners tried equivalent forms or meanings of their L1 to produce target forms: these structures “reflect features of the mother tongue” (Corder, 1975: 207). This classification of structures was adopted from Nesselhauf (2003)’s study with slight modifications.
4. Results

4.1. Overall Frequency of Make

Normalized frequencies (occurrences per 100,000 words) of the verbal lemma MAKE (make, makes, making, made) were computed. This was to check whether Korean learners have a tendency to over- or underuse the verb make in comparison with the native-speakers.

Table 2. Frequency of Make in NNS and NS student writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAKE</td>
<td>809.0*</td>
<td>579.8*</td>
<td>339.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows a clear difference between Korean learners and the native-speaker students. Both groups of Korean learners significantly overuse the verb make in comparison with the native speaker group. Low Proficiency learners (LP) overuse make significantly more than Advanced Proficiency learners (AP).

All frequency differences across the three corpora were tested by means of the chi-square test, with 1 per cent critical level of statistical significance ($p < 0.01$). Statistically significant differences between AP, LP, and LOCNESS are asterisk-marked in the tables. Detailed chi-square values are presented in Appendix.

4.2 Uses of Make in the Two Korean Corpora

Altenberg and Granger (2001) grouped the meanings and uses of MAKE into eight major categories. Table 3 lists the categories and illustrates each of them with examples.
Table 3. Major uses of the verb *Make*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Produce (result of creation)</td>
<td>139(284.2)*</td>
<td>34(112.0)*</td>
<td>27(16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Delexical uses</td>
<td>78(159.5)*</td>
<td>47(154.8)</td>
<td>187(111)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Causative uses</td>
<td>174(355.8)*</td>
<td>87(286.6)*</td>
<td>236(140)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Phrasal/Prepositional uses</td>
<td>10(20.4)*</td>
<td>8(26.4)*</td>
<td>117(70)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>401(819.9)*</td>
<td>176(579.8)*</td>
<td>567(337)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Normalized frequencies per 100,000 words are given in the parentheses.

This study assigned every instance of *make* in the two Korean corpora (AP and LP) to one of eight categories following Altenberg and Granger (2001). Three categories (4. Earn, 5. Link verb uses, 6. Make it) of uses, however, were not found at all in the Korean corpora, whereas the Earn category showed twice as many frequencies as the Produce category in LOCNESS. The other two categories in LOCNESS showed only a few frequencies as well.

This study regrouped the eight main uses into four main uses (Produce, Delexical, Causative, and Phrasal/Conventional). Most instances of the Phrasal/Conventional use were *make sense*. The new classification is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Uses of *MAKE* by NNS and NS students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Produce</td>
<td>139(284.2)*</td>
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<td>567(337)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Normalized frequencies per 100,000 words are given in the parentheses.
The Effect of Learner Proficiency and L1 Transfer on the ~

Figure 1. Three main uses of Make across three corpora (normalized per 100,000 words).

Apparently, sharp contrasts between two Korean learners’ corpora and native corpus are revealed in category 1 and 3. The produce category is used significantly more by the two learner groups than by the native speakers. Furthermore, when LP and AP are compared, LP overuse make significantly more than the AP in the Produce category. This indicates that lower proficiency Korean learners heavily overuse the Produce category more than advanced proficiency learners. Figure 1 above describes this tendency more clearly.

Another contrast is found in category 3. Causative use reveals significant difference among the three corpora. LP and AP did not show significant difference in causative use, which implies that even advanced learners still misuse the causative category.

In the Delexical category, LP slightly overuse make compared to the native speakers (NSs), whereas AP did not show significant difference from NSs. In the following sections, I will focus on the three most frequent main categories (Produce, Delexical, and Causative), and on L1 transfer mainly in those categories.

4.3. Produce Uses

In the produce category, the two learner groups (AP and LP) sig-
significantly overused *make* more than the NSs. The LP learners, in particular, heavily overused *make* more than the AP learners (*p* = 0.000). Korean learners’ overuse of *make* in the Produce category results from the Korean equivalent verb, “*mandul*-”, which generally means ‘to produce or to create’ in Korean. Korean learners are expected to overgeneralize the core meaning of “*mandul*-” and over-rely on it. Korean learners do not only overuse Produce uses, but they also misuse them. The following examples provide various types of misuses.

[1] LP(16) Accident make a lot of loss of money  
(L1: Kun kyungcecek sonsil-ul mandul-ta)  
→ cause serious economic losses

[2] LP(19) So we have to make good military power  
(L1: coun kunday-lul mandul-ta)  
→ found/establish a strong army

[3] LP(147) We have to make the rule of not using cell phones.  
(L1: hayntuphon-ul kumciha-nun pep-ul mandul-ta)  
→ enact laws limiting using cell phones

[4] AP(29) ..Making military tax for woman is one way to silent men’s voices  
(L1: yeca-eyke byengyeke-lul mandaул-ta)  
→ Women should pay taxes on military service


4.4. Delexical Uses

While Altenberg and Granger (2001)’s data confirmed Sinclair(1991: 79)’s underuse hypothesis that many learners avoid the common verbs when using idiomatic expressions: both the Swedish and French learners
underuse Delexical structures, the Korean learner data partially rejected this. LP learners significantly overuse Delexical structures than the NSs.

Table 5 presents the raw frequencies of main collocates of make in LP, AP, and NS’s corpus. The list in table 5 shows that even the AP learners demonstrate limited variety in the nouns they collocate with make. Table 5 also shows that the two learner groups do not employ ‘reporting verb and speech noun collocates’ expressing speech actions such as to make a remark and to make a claim (Altenberg & Granger, 2001: 178). In contrary, the NSs use these speech collocates in almost a third of the Delexical structures.

The following examples present some typical misuses in LP and AP. They show cases where the verb make should be replaced by other verbs.

[5] LP(316): We human have made big wars continuously.
→ started big wars

[6] AP(62) ..and make deep relationship
→ build strong relationship/ improve relationship

| Table 5. Main collocates of Delexical Make in LP, AP, and LOCNESS |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **LP**          | **AP**          | **LOCNESS**     |
| Accident        | 12              | Mistake         |
| Problem         | 9               | Problem         |
| Mistake         | 6               | Trouble         |
| War             | 3               | Fire            |
| Trouble         | 3               | Call            |
| Effort          | 2               | Accident        |
| Error           | 2               | Crime           |
| Conversation    | 2               |                |
| Friend          | 2               |                |
| Notion          | 2               |                |
| Noise           | 2               |                |
| Decision        | 9               | Mistake         |
| Choice          | 10              | Argument        |
| Claim           | 9               |                |
| Point           | 8               | Statement       |
| Case            | 5               |                |
| Error           | 5               |                |
| Effort          | 4               |                |
| Assumption      | 3               |                |
| Attempt         | 3               |                |
| Contribution    | 3               |                |
| Discovery       | 3               |                |
In conclusion, the Korean LP learners overuse the Delexical structures of the verb *make*, and misuse them as well. Korean LP and AP learners, moreover, showed a limited variety of verb-noun collocations compared to the data of the NSs.

4.5. Causative Uses

While only Korean LP learners revealed overuse in Delexical category, both the two Korean learner groups significantly overused the Causative category. Of particular note here is that this category also accounts for the majority of learner misuses with *make* in the learner corpora.

Altenberg and Granger (2001)’s study analyzed the distribution of three types of Causative *make*. They explained that causative *make* is a complex-transitive verb involving three types of object + complement construction: adjective structures (*make something possible*), verb structures (*make somebody realize something*) and noun structures (*make somebody a star*). Their data showed that while the Swedish learners overused adjective and verb structures, French learners underused adjective and noun structures (p. 181). The present study also adopted this sub-categorization of Causative use, and the distribution of these types in the three corpora is given in Table 6.
Table 6. Causative Uses of *Make*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complement</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>80(163.6)*</td>
<td>38(125.2)*</td>
<td>130(77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>84(171.7)*</td>
<td>48(158.1)*</td>
<td>80(48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>10(20.4)</td>
<td>1(3.3)</td>
<td>26(15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>174(355.8)*</td>
<td>87(286.6)*</td>
<td>236(140)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Normalized frequencies per 100,000 words are given in the parentheses.

The figures in Table 6 reveal obvious differences in the uses of verb structures between Korean learners and the NSs. Both the AP and LP significantly overuse the adjective and verb complements in Causative structure more than the NSs.

Table 7. Distribution of three Causative structures of *Make*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>LOCNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>80 46.0</td>
<td>38 43.7</td>
<td>130 55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>84 48.3</td>
<td>48 55.2</td>
<td>80 33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>10 5.7</td>
<td>1 1.1</td>
<td>26 11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>174 100</td>
<td>87 100</td>
<td>236 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As to Causative complements, the present study analyzed distribution of three complement types of Causative uses. Table 7 shows the percentage of each type. Korean learners take verb complements in almost half of the tokens of Causative category whereas the NSs take adjective complements. Korean learners scarcely take noun complements compared to the NSs. Most of the noun complements of LP learners were examples of misuses regarding article omission.

5. Effects of Proficiency and L1 Transfer

5.1. Role of Proficiency on Misuses of *Make*

Inquiry about the role of proficiency on the use of *make* by Korean
learners brings up mixed results. In Produce category, LP learners heavily overused *make* compared with AP learners ($p < 0.00$). This indicates that lower proficiency Korean learners heavily overuse Produce category more than advanced proficiency learners. In the Delexical category, LP learners significantly overused *make* in comparison with the NSs ($p = 0.00$), whereas APs did not show significant difference from the NSs ($p = 0.04$). While only Korean LP learners overused the Delexical category, both the two Korean learner groups significantly overused the Causative category ($p < 0.00$) than the NSs. The fact that LP and AP did not show significant difference in Causative use implies that even advanced learners still misuse the Causative category.

Korean learners do not only over/under-use Produce uses, but they also misuse them. Table 8 illustrates the percentage of misuses in three main categories of *make*.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Produce</th>
<th>Delexical</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LP</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>52.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LP learners did not only overuse *make* in Produce category but also misused *make* much more frequently than AP learners. In the Delexical category, LP learners overused *make* and showed higher frequency of misuse than AP learners as well. The Causative category shows the highest percentage of misuse than the other two categories, and LP learners misuse this category more frequently than AP learners.

To conclude, learner proficiency affects the percentage of misuses. LP learners show almost twice the amount of misuses as AP learners in all the three main categories (Produce, Delexical and Causative). In fact, more than half of the LP learners’ causative structures turned out to be misuses. This is considered due to the strong L1 transfer from Korean equivalent causative verb forms, “-*ke hata/madul*”, which will be discussed in the section below.
5.2. Role of L1 Transfer on Misuses of *Make*

This study investigated how many of the wrong or questionable structures (i.e. W, Q) seem to have been influenced by learners’ L1 and whether this influence varies depending on learner proficiency. Table 9 shows that the overall L1 influence on misuse of *make* is not related with learner proficiency: LP and AP show similar rate of L1 influence likely misuses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>AP</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W, Q</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 influence likely: n</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>82.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Secondly, I examined the percentage of misuses of three main uses and which uses were likely to have been influenced by L1. Among the three main uses of *make*, the Causative use showed the highest rate of misuse whereas the Delexical use revealed the lowest rate of misuse. The verb structure of Causative uses revealed the highest rate of misuse, leaving the noun structure out of the question that almost consists of article omission. The following example [7] and Table 10 illustrate the results.

[7] LP(141): And that can make me fool. (indefinite article “a” omission)
→ make me a fool.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Produce</th>
<th>Delexical</th>
<th>Causative Adj</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W, Q</td>
<td>58(33.5)</td>
<td>32(25.6)</td>
<td>48(40.6)</td>
<td>64(48.4)</td>
<td>10(90.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 influence likely: n</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L1 influence seems to have played a powerful role especially in Causative
structures where Korean equivalent word order and “-ke hata” causative are easily transferred. Half instances of Causative use (47%) were misuses affected by L1 transfer.

The following analysis is based on K-S Hong (2002)’s study on Korean causatives. L1 Transfer from the core meaning of “mandul” is detected in Produce and Delexical uses, and interference from “-ke ha/mandul-ta” is mainly found in causative use. The examples below illustrate some typical misuses.

[Transfer from “mandul” in Produce use]
[8] LP(82): ...make proper school environment
   (L1: kenkanghan hakkyo hwankyeng-ul mandul-ta)
   healthy school environment make
   \(\rightarrow\) create/establish safe and healthy school environment

[9] LP(104): ...punishment makes rude students
   (L1: mulyeyhan haksagntul-ul mandul-ta)
   rude students make
   \(\rightarrow\) can aggravate their bad behavior/ is not effective in disciplining student

These examples show cases where other lexically complex verbs can replace the verb make. Korean learners are examined to easily transfer the core meaning of the equivalent verb form “mandul” (produce in meaning) without searching for more proper complex verbs.


[Transfer from “mandul” and L1 word order in Delexical use]
[10] LP(161): they should try to make safe traffic condition
   (L1: ancenhan kyothong hwankyeng-ul mandul-ta)
   safe traffic system make
   \(\rightarrow\) have/maintain a safe traffic system
The Effect of Learner Proficiency and L1 Transfer on the ~

[11] LP(52): they (hard punishment) can make not good emotion to teachers
(L1: an-coun Kamceng-ul sensayngnimdul-ke mandul-ta)
not-good emotion to teachers make
→ also make teachers feel bad

Causative use presents more intricate L1 transfer. The following examples are typical misuses in causative use.

[Transfer from “-ke ha-/mandul-ta” in Causative use]
[12] LP(394): we should make cell phones while driving illegal action
[overgeneralization]
(L1: wuncencung hayntuphon sayong-ul bulbep-ulo mandul-ta)
while-driving cellular phone use illegal make
→ prohibit the use of cellular phones while driving

[13] LP(113): this experiment can make students don’t like to remind...
[overgeneralization]
(L1: haksayngdul-i kiekha-ki sil-ke ha-ta)
students to remind dislike make
→ hinder their recollection of

[14] LP(233): This make students can think themselves [overgeneralization]
(L1: haksayngdul-i susulo sayngkakhal-swu iss-ke ha-ta)
Students themselves think PAST-make
→ helps students think themselves

[15] LP(400): it makes help them. [superfluous insertion of make ]
(L1: towa cu-ke ha-ta)
help let/make
→ helps them

[16] LP(286): Most important thing is make children know that...[ literal translation of “al-ke ha-ta”]
(L1: elinitul-ul al-ke ha-ta)
children know make
→ let children know that.../remind children of...

[17] LP(348): Internet like bad replies that make people die . [literal translation of “cwuk-ke ha-ta”]
The various transfers are found above: examples [12] to [14] show overgeneralization of “ke ha/mandul-ta” causative in Korean instead of using more proper lexical verbs. Example [15] illustrates that superfluous word, make, is inserted, which results from the overuse of Korean equivalent verb form, “-ke hata”. Learners seem to overuse “make + noun object + verb” constructions in example [16] and [17], much of which, noticeably, are transferred from L1 word order. Learners are considered to employ this construction as a lexico-grammatical ‘teddy bear’.

While the overgeneralization of “-ke ha/mandul-ta” causatives in Korean gives rise to misuses of make, some overgeneralization falls even into the correct use of make like below.

[18] LP(340): Smoking could make some people irritated

[19] LP(191): ...physical punishment makes student angry.

Example [18] and [19] are the cases where active lexical verbs can be used instead: “irritate some people” and “upset/infuriate a student” although they are correct uses. Although those sentences are not the cases of misuse of make, they still reflects the fact that Korean learners heavily rely on the verb, make which carries the meaning “-ke ha/mandul-ta” in Korean.

To summarize, Korean learners are highly affected by L1 transfer when they use the verb make irrespective of their proficiency. Korean learners were examined to easily transfer the core meaning of the equivalent verb form “mandul” (produce in meaning) and the causative form of “-ke ha/mandul-ta” instead of employing appropriate lexical verbs.
6. Conclusion and Implications

Korean learners corpus data of two proficiencies showed that low proficiency-level learners (LP) significantly overused the Produce category more often than high proficiency-level learners (AP). While LPs slightly overused Delexical category than the NSs, APs did not show significant difference from the NSs. LPs also showed higher rate of misuse in the Produce, Delexical and Causative categories of the verb *make* than APs. Quantitatively, learner proficiency had an effect on the use of *make*.

More importantly, Korean learners were found to have difficulties with L1 transfer in the use of *make* irrespective of their proficiency. Results show that even advanced level learners rely on L1 equivalent forms, “*mandul-ta*” (in Produce meaning) and “*-ke ha/mandul-ta*” (in Causative meaning). Learners’ strong reliance on these forms indicates that learners easily employ the familiar uses of *make*, and avoid the use of unfamiliar various lexical verbs. For instance, learners might have used other causative verbs such as *let, have, and get* instead of the high frequency verb, *make*.

These results provide pedagogical implications that “high-frequency verbs are encountered very early in instructional programs, so learners are at a risk of having only a very crude knowledge of their grammatical and lexical patterning” (Altenberg & Granger, 2001: 190). L2 learners, as Montrul (2001: 70) phrased it, “analyze L2 input through their L1 mental representation at early stages of development”, which aggravates learners’ reliance on the high frequency verb *make*. This is because, as Helms-Park (2001) pointed out, learners’ L1 influences the acquisition of verbs when so-called L1-L2 translation equivalents could be found.

The fact that the majority of learners’ misuse results from L1 transfer and even advanced learners are not thoroughly free from interlingual interference emphasizes that teachers should be cautious about probable L1 transfer when teaching high frequency verbs. First, as some researchers argued (Lewis, 2000: Barfield, 2003), we should pay special attention to those areas where L1 and L2 differ in subtle meanings and collocations. Second, we have to help learners have clear understanding of the use
of verb, *make*. L2 learners do not have enough chance to encounter this verb in possible syntactic frames or collocation patterns. L2 learners usually have to acquire the correct use of this verb on the basis of limited input. This tricky verb can confuse learners, so teachers would educate their learners with more input and practice on possible exact constructions or collocations.

In conclusion, the problems learners are facing are not only over- or underuse of *make* but also misuse of the verb, presenting intricate aspects of L1 transfer. Pedagogically, hence, awareness-raising sessions and more practice might help learners get out of the vague L1 transferred knowledge of the use of *make*. 
References


Wang, Ying and Philip Shaw. (2008). Transfer and universality: collocation use in

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### Table 2a. Chi-square value and [significance]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>LP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>AP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>LP vs AP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAKE</td>
<td>273.85[1.6E-61]</td>
<td>40.75[1.7E-10]</td>
<td>16.30[5.4E-05]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4a. Chi-square value and [significance]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>AP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>AP vs LP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Delexical</td>
<td>7.28[0.00]</td>
<td>(4.18)[0.04]</td>
<td>(0.02)[0.87]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Causative</td>
<td>93.79[3.6E-22]</td>
<td>34.09[5.3E-09]</td>
<td>(0.09)[2.72]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Phrasal/Conventional</td>
<td>15.61[7.8E-05]</td>
<td>7.61[0.00]</td>
<td>(0.28)[0.59]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Non-significant chi-square values are enclosed within parentheses.

### Table 6a. Chi-square value and [significance]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complement</th>
<th>LP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>AP vs LOCNESS</th>
<th>AP vs LP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>29.25[64E-08]</td>
<td>7.00[0.00]</td>
<td>(1.85)[0.17]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>77.51[1.3E-18]</td>
<td>48.86[2.7E-12]</td>
<td>(0.02)[0.64]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>(0.57)[0.44]</td>
<td>2.79[0.09]</td>
<td>(3.97)[0.04]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>93.73[3.6E-22]</td>
<td>34.09[5.3E-09]</td>
<td>(0.09)[2.72]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Non-significant chi-square values are enclosed within parentheses.