

T.R.N.C
NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY



INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

IDENTIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE WRITTEN ERRORS OF
TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

MASTER THESIS
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Lefkoşa-2004

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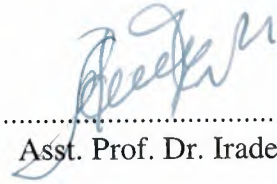
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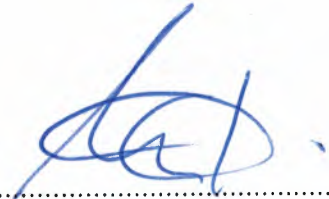
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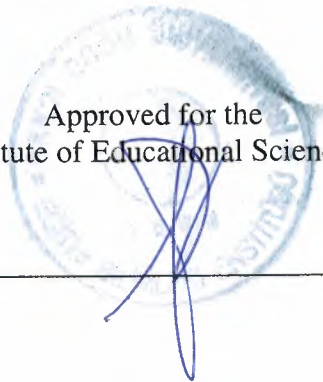


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ABSTRACT

Although much work has been devoted to the investigation of various aspects of error analysis in the past with the aim to provide descriptions of the different kinds of linguistic errors produced by learners, hardly any of them succeeded in making entirely clear what constituted the inner elements of error types. Consequently, this complicated shedding new light on the preparation of accurate descriptions of errors. However, in this research work, studies in the field of error analysis have been replicated on a new focus. It investigates the difficulties encountered by fifty-eight Turkish learners of English, studying at the English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature Department at the Near East University when exposed to writing in English. Their essays have been retrospectively assessed in order to study the following tasks:

1. To identify the types of errors and their constituent elements in essay writing by intermediate level L2 learners.
2. To evaluate the prevalence of one type of error over the others in essay writing of L2 learners at intermediate level.

The essays written by Turkish learners of English at intermediate level were collected and assessed according to the classification of error types by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982). In this research, error analysis was carried out using a plausible interpretation whereby the learners in question were unavailable to state their intentions. Subsequently, the errors were again broken down into sub-categories following the sub-classification of errors provided by Richards, 1971, and Raimes, 2003. Thereafter, the percentage of the categories and sub-categories of errors based on the descriptive statistics was calculated, to show the frequency of occurrence of different elements in each error type. Finally, an attempt was made to verify the reasons of the errors either on the basis of the scientific explanation or my own empirical knowledge. In some cases, I relied on my colleagues' experiences.

From the results obtained in the study, it would appear that omission errors and misinformation errors make up the majority of all four errors, with omission errors being the strongest overall. On the contrary, misordering errors and addition errors constitute the minority of all four errors, with misordering errors being the weakest overall.

After having analysed the errors within each sub-category, the major inner elements of errors are those of articles, prepositions, the verb 'be', the introductory subject 'there + be', singularity and plurality, the possessive pronoun used with 'of' and the formation of verb tenses. It has been found that NL transfer could possibly account for the majority of all errors.

This study is cross-sectional in design, in that it studies learners' errors at a single point in time. For future research, a longitudinal study would be beneficial to show a description of learners' L2 development over a period of time. Of additional interest would be an authoritative interpretation of errors whereby the learners are available to state their intentions.

ÖZET

Geçmişte, öğrenciler tarafından yapılan dilbilimi yanlışlarına açıklama getirmek amacıyla, hata analizlerinin bir çok değişik çeşidinde araştırma çalışmaları yapılmıştır. Ancak, bu çalışmaların neredeyse hiçbirisi hata çeşitlerinin temel elementlerini nelerin oluşturduğu konusuna ve akıcı olarak hata açıklamalarının hazırlanmasına ışık tutamamıştır. Bu araştırma da ise, hata analizi sahasındaki çalışmalar yeni bir yön bulmuştur. Çalışmamızda İngilizce öğretmenliği ile İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı bölümünde İngilizce eğitimi gören elli sekiz Türk öğrencinin, İngilizce yazarken yaşadıkları zorlukların sebepleri onların yazılarından yararlanılarak araştırılmıştır:

1. Orta derecedeki (level 2) öğrencilerin deneme yazılarındaki hata çeşitlerini açıklığa kavuşturmak.
2. Orta derecedeki öğrencilerin (level 2) deneme yazılarındaki belirli bir hatanın diğerlerine oranla yaygınlığını değerlendirmek.

Dulay, Burt, ve Krashen (1982) tarafından (orta derecede) İngilizce öğrenimi gören Türk öğrencilerin deneme yazıları toplanmıştır ve hata çeşitlerinin sınıflandırılmasına göre kontrol edilmiştir. Söz konusu öğrencilerin demek istediklerini ifade edemeyecek olmalarından dolayı, bu çalışmada hata analizleri “plausible”¹ olarak ele alınmıştır. Sonraki aşamada ise, Richards, 1971, ve Raimes, 2003, den sağlanan alt guruplara ayrılan hatalar yeniden alt kategorilere ayrılmıştır. Daha sonra ise, her hatadaki değişik elementlerin ortaya çıkış sıklığını göstermek maksadıyla; hataların kategori ve alt kategori yüzdelikleri açıklayıcı bir statistikle hesaplanmıştır. Sonuç olarak bu çalışmada kendi araştırmalarım sonucu öğrendiklerime ve bilimsel araştırmalara dayanarak hata sebeplerini araştırdım. Bazı durumlarda arkadaşlarımdan tecrübelerine de güvendim.

Çalışmadan sağlanan sonuca göre “omission errors” baskın olmak üzere “omission errors”² ve “misinformation errors”³ dört hatanın büyük çoğunluğunu oluşturmaktadır. Öte yandan, “misordering errors”⁴ ve “addition errors”⁵ en az rastlanan hata olurken, “misordering errors” bu dört hata grubunun en küçüğüdür.

¹ “plausible interpretation” - bu hatalar göreceli olarak değerlendirilmiştir

² “omission errors” - cümledeki gerekli kelimelerin eksikliği

³ “misinformation errors” - yanlış kelime seçimi veya kelime düzeninin kullanımı

⁴ “misordering errors” - kelime sırası yanlış olan cümleler

⁵ “addition errors” - cümledeki gereksiz eklemeler

Hataları kendi alt-kategorilerine göre analiz edecek olursak, bunların esas elementleri aşağıdaki gibidir: artikeller, edatlar, 'olmak' fiili, belirleyici özne 'var + dır', tekil ve çoğul isimler, mülkiyet belirten zamir, ve fiillerin zamanlara göre çekimi. Ayrıca olumsuz anadil transferinin hataların çoğunluğuna sebep olabileceği de anlaşılmıştır.

Bu çalışma çapraz kesişimli olarak düzenlenmiş ve öğrencilerin hatalarını bir seferde ele almıştır. Daha detaylı araştırma için ikinci dilin zaman içindeki gelişimini göstermede boylamsal bir çalışma faydalı olacaktır. Daha da detaylı hata açıklamaları için ise öğrencilerin de kendilerini ifade edebilecekleri "authoritative"⁶ bir çalışma tavsiye edilir.

⁶ "authoritative" - yapılan hatalar karşılıklı tartışılabilir bir ortamda konuşulur

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KEY TO SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

→	: After
←	: Before
≠	: Instead of
Ø	: Omission
~	: Separated
↔	: Wrong Position
> <	: Between
A	: Article
A _d	: Definite Article
Adj	: Adjective
Adj Or	: Adjective Order
Adj _t	: Adjunct
Adv	: Adverbial
Adv Comp	: Adverb of Completeness
Adv Deg	: Adverb of Degree
Adv Freq	: Adverb of Frequency
ATE	: Adverbial Time Expression
A _i	: Indefinite Article
Aux	: Auxiliary
Comp Adj	: Comparative Adjectives
Conj	: Conjunction
D	: Demonstrative Pronoun
Desc N	: Descriptive Noun
Desc S/S	: Describing Something to Someone
Dir Sp	: Direct Speech
E	: Embedded Sentence
FA	: Faulty Agreement
FP	: Final Position
Inf to	: Infinitive 'to'
Ins RP _i	: Insertion of Indefinite Relative Pronoun
Inv	: Inversion
L	: Lexical
Lit Trans	: Literal Translation
LV	: Linking Verb
Misc	: Miscellaneous
Mod	: Modal
N	: Noun
NP	: Noun Phrase
Obj	: Object
O _d	: Direct Object
O _g	: Overgeneralization
Om	: Omitted
OP _{s≠pl}	: Singular instead of Plural Object Pronoun
OP _i	: Indefinite Object Pronoun
Ph V	: Phrasal Verb
Pl	: Plural
PA	: Possessive Adjective

PP'o'	: Possessive Pronoun with 'of'
Pref	: Prefix
Prep	: Preposition
Prep Ph	: Prepositional Phrase
Rel Cl	: Relative Clause
Rel Pr	: Relative Pronoun
Rep Qu	: Reported Questions
Rep Sp	: Reported Speech
Sing	: Singular
Subj	: Subject
SP	: Subject Pronoun
SP _I	: Subject Pronoun 'I'
SP _{It}	: Subject Pronoun 'It'
Sup Adj	: Superlative Adjectives
Th+ V _{be}	: There + Verb 'be'
TM	: Tense Marker
V	: Verb
V _{be}	: Verb 'be'
VT	: Verb Tense

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

"I like writing because writing helps me relax For example I write diary because I feel like relax I write letters my friends so as to learn what happen to them. But there is big problem about composition. Because teacher gives you a little time so I'm not concentrate on paragraph."

Written by an NEU student

October 2003

The above-provided prologue expresses the effect secured by writing.

Communication is at the heart of all human interactions. It is "a process by which information is exchanged between individuals through a common system of symbols, signs, or behavior" (Merriam-Webster, 2003). "Communicative competence involves communicating in accordance with that fundamental system of rules that adult subjects master to the extent that they can fulfill the conditions for a happy employment of sentences in utterances" (Habermas, 1979). As we all know, we communicate orally and/or in writing. My focus in this paper is on the written part. As Penman (1998) stated: In spoken conversations with others, we make sense of the dialogue in a complex back-and-forth process of negotiation of meaning between speakers. In written texts, this back-and-forth negotiation is not possible. The sentence is written and it is read. Because there is no possibility of negotiating meaning of written documents, the inevitable problems of misunderstandings are exacerbated. As such, written documents require special care and attention, if misunderstandings are to be minimised. But such care is the exception more than the rule.

Hence, we can say that writing is an "intricate" and complex task; it is the "most difficult of the language abilities to acquire" (Allen & Corder, 1974:177). Its level of difficulty varies between native speakers who think in the language used (in our case it will be English) and non-native speakers who think in their own native language (in this case it will be Turkish). While writing, non-native speakers have, in general, to think about all those rules they need to apply, rules that native speakers are supposed to have

automatized. Therefore, non-native speakers are more prone to making mistakes and/or committing errors. In addition, by concentrating on ideas and simplicity when writing, learners fail to concentrate on editing.

It is essential here to make a distinction between mistake and error; both Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1998) reveal a criterion that helps us to do so: it is the self-correctability criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, but an error cannot. Errors are “systematic,” i.e. likely to occur repeatedly and not recognized by the learner. Hence, only the teacher or researcher would locate them, the learner wouldn’t (Gass & Selinker, 1994). And it is in this light that I choose to focus on students’ errors not mistakes.

1.1 Background to the Study

In accepted accounts of language transfer the focus of research was placed on the errors that learners produce. These errors occurred as a result of the negative transfer of mother tongue patterns into the learner’s second language learning.

During the last few decades views about language transfer have undergone considerable change and the importance of language transfer in foreign language learning has been reconsidered a number of times. In the 1950s it was often regarded as the most important factor to take into account in theories of second language learning as well as in approaches to second language teaching. In the 1960s its importance diminished as learners’ errors were seen as being evidence of “the creative construction process” and not of language transfer; the existence of language transfer virtually denied by some researchers. The new belief was that the foreign language was learned in the same way as the learner’s native language, and independently of it; learners followed their own ‘internal programme’. Consequently, most of the initial stages of research investigating foreign language acquisition were through the analysis of learner errors, with much of this work focusing on determining how much of foreign language acquisition resulted from native language *transfer* as opposed to being *creative construction*. The results of studies showed that despite many errors being the result of native language transfer, many others were not; learners were found to contribute

creatively to the learning process. For that reason, the results of error analysis were used to challenge behaviourist views of second language learning, whereby procedures such as imitation, repetition and reinforcement were thought to develop 'habits' of the second language. In recent years, however, a more balanced view has emerged in which the role of transfer is acknowledged and in which transfer is seen to interact with a host of other factors in ways not yet fully understood (Odlin, 1989; Ellis, 2001:19).

At this point I would like to illustrate the considerable variance in the proportion of transfer errors reported by different researchers. Dulay and Burt (1973) report that transfer accounted for only 3 per cent of the errors in their corpus of Spanish speaking learners of English, whereas Tran-Chi-Chau (1975) reports 51 per cent in adult, Chinese speaking learners of English. One of the main reasons for this variation is the difficulty in determining whether an error is the result of transfer or intralingual processes.

Table 1.1

Percentage of interference errors reported by various studies of L2 English grammar
Ellis, ctd in Ellis, 2001:302

Study	% of interference errors	Type of learner
Grauberg 1971	36	First language German – adult, advanced
George 1972	33 (approx)	Mixed first languages – adult, graduate
Dulay and Burt 1973	3	First language Spanish – children, mixed level
Tran-Chi-Chau 1975	51	First language Chinese – adult, mixed level
Mukkatesh 1977	23	First language Arabic – adult
Flick 1980	31	First language Spanish – adult, mixed level
Lott 1983	50 (approx)	First language Italian – adult, university

Commenting on the problem of error classification, Flick notes:

The assignment of a particular error to such categories as 'transfer', 'overgeneralization' or 'ambiguous' has been largely an arbitrary matter, subject to the individual biases and point of view of the researcher (Flick, ctd in Ellis, 2001:61)

It is further concluded that the methodology of error analysis failed to make entirely clear what constituted an 'error' and it proved difficult to prepare accurate descriptions of errors. This resulted in many studies being unreliable and difficult to repeat (Ellis, 2001:20).

1.2 Aim of the Study

The study is designed to identify what types of errors are faced more frequently in essay writing at the intermediate level in order to focus the attention of the English language teaching specialists on the learners' current problems. The error analysis could be viewed as an access to important information for objective assessment of L2 learning and teaching. Moreover it provides the means by which the teacher assesses learning and determines priorities for future effort. In fact, a bulk of research has been devoted to the investigation of various aspects of error analysis. However, the research work replicates the studies in the field of error analysis on a new focus, viz. it investigates the difficulties encountered by fifty-eight Turkish learners of English, studying at the English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature Department at the Near East University, hereafter ELT/ELL and NEU respectively, when exposed to writing in English.

In order to reach the aim of the study I had to handle the following tasks:

1. To identify the types of errors and their constituent elements in essay writing by intermediate level L2 learners.
2. To evaluate the prevalence of one type of error over the others in essay writing of L2 learners at intermediate level.

1.3 Scope of Study

While preparing this thesis a great deal of documents, manuals, books and magazines on the subject of transfer, in both the public and private libraries, were searched out. In addition, I made use of my nine-year experience in teaching English at private schools using techniques that are consistent with established theoretical principles and that others in our profession have found to be beneficial, practical and relevant to real-life circumstances in which most teachers work.

This study was carried out in two classes at the ELT/ELL Department at the NEU totalling fifty-eight students. I used their final exam results enabling me to obtain a more accurate picture of learners' difficulties when writing.

1.4 Limitation of the Study

Although this paper explores which types of errors are more dominant among the chosen study group, the main limitation of this study is that it only represents errors in essay writing of L2 learners at intermediate level. It does not cover elementary, secondary and tertiary levels.

Factors such as age, aptitude, cognitive style, motivation, personality and gender remain beyond the scope of this work.

1.5 Conceptual Definitions of the Study

The term *transfer* was used over a hundred years ago by Whitney (1881) to refer to cross-linguistic influences. Yet the study of transfer in foreign language learning has historically taken on a number of forms which are reflected in the terminology by which it has been variously designated: *interference*, *interlingual error*, *negative transfer*, *positive transfer*, *cross linguistic influence*.

The word 'transfer' is used by educational psychologists to refer to the use of past knowledge and experience in a new situation, e.g., a literate second language

learner does not have to learn that written symbols represent the spoken form of the new language.

The oldest definition, a narrow view based on a behaviourist framework (Fries, 1945 and Lado, 1957) is *transfer* as the use of prior linguistic information or the physically carryover of NL surface forms to an L2 context.

A working definition given by Odlin (1989:27) is as follows:

Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously and perhaps imperfectly acquired.

Corder (1983) suggested the need for a word other than 'transfer' which he claimed belonged to the school of behaviourist learning theory. He suggested the term *Mother Tongue Influence*. Sharwood Smith (1986) refined the idea still further by suggesting *Cross Linguistic Influence*, which would take into account the potential influence of L3 on L2 where another learned language, other than the L1 might have an effect on the learning of the L2. Also encompassed in the meaning of cross linguistic influence is the notion of possible L2 influence on L1.

Ellis (1994:54) prefers the term 'cross-linguistic influence' as a more suitable term for referring to the effects of the L1 on the L2. He sees the term *transfer* as being an inappropriate one; merely a metaphor for explaining L2 acquisition. He relates the term to the transferal of money from one account to another, whereby one account gains and the other loses. Yet, he says "when language transfer takes place there is no loss of L1 knowledge".

It would seem likely that an entirely adequate definition of transfer assumes an entirely adequate definition of language.

For this reason, in this work I have employed different linguistic terms. In order to avoid misinterpretation of the terms used, I hereby provide proper definitions that could be suitable for our purpose.

1. Contrastive Analysis (CA) - In the comparison of the linguistic systems of two languages, contrastive analysis is based on the following assumptions:
 - a) the main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
 - b) these difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis.
 - c) teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference.
2. Cross-linguistic influence - This term is used synonymously with TRANSFER.
3. Error - A deviation in learner language which results from incomplete knowledge of the correct rule. A learner is unaware of the error and is therefore unable to correct it.
4. Interlingual error – An error which results from LANGUAGE TRANSFER, that is, which is caused by the learners' native language.
5. Intralingual error - An error which results from faulty or partial learning of the TARGET LANGUAGE, rather than from language transfer.
6. L1 - A person's mother tongue or first language; the NATIVE LANGUAGE.
7. L2 - A person's target language or second language; the FOREIGN LANGUAGE.

8. Language transfer – The effect of one language on the learning of another.
9. Mistake - A deviation in learner language that occurs when learners fail to perform their competence. Caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspect of performance.
10. Negative transfer, or interference - The use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the TARGET LANGUAGE. For example, a Turkish learner of English may produce *two book* instead of *two books*.
11. Positive transfer, or facilitation - Transfer which makes learning easier, and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. For example, both Turkish and English have the word television (*televizyon* in Turkish).
12. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) – The processes by which people develop proficiency in a second or foreign language.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Historical Background to the Study

The study of interlingual difficulties resulting from language transfer has taken its origin from comparative analysis in the 18th century.

In 1786 Sir William Jones' research work on the similarities of Greek, Latin, Celtic and Germanic, presented at the Royal Asiatic Society in Calcutta, laid the foundation of Comparative Linguistics. Although a valuable background of Comparative Linguistics contributed by W. Jones was developed by the linguists of the 19th century, it acquired a new form in its nature only in the 20th century (Aitchison, 1992).

Thereafter, discussions of transfer in the 20th century begin with the work of American linguists, such as Charles Fries and Robert Lado, in the 1940s and 1950s (Odlin, 1989:6). Their work prompted much of the growth of research in second language acquisition. Increasingly, researchers have sought to identify the conditions that promote and inhibit transfer.

By the late 1960's, second language learning began to be examined in much the same way that first language learning had been studied for some time: learners were looked on not as producers of malformed, imperfect language replete with mistakes, but as intelligent and creative beings proceeding through logical, systematic stages of acquisition, creatively acting upon their linguistic environment as they encounter its forms and functions in meaningful contexts. According to Brown (1987:168), 'By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly and tediously succeed in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language.'

Cook (1996:9) says, "Learners are not willfully distorting the native system but are inventing a system of their own. No one is claiming that the learner's language

system takes precedence over the version of the native speaker or that learners should be content with some minimal language of their own”.

The idea of the learner's own system liberated the classroom and in part paved the way for the communicative language teaching of the 1970s and 1980s. Learners' sentences were indicative of their temporary language systems rather than an inadequate grasp of the target language. The 'mistake' was seen as an inevitable and natural part of the learning process, and not the fault of the teacher, the materials or even the student. Teachers were now able to use teaching activities whereby the students talked to each other rather than the teacher. Their mistakes were seen as minor irritants as opposed to major hazards. Hence the possibility of group-work and pair-work in which case the teacher did not have to continuously control the students' speech to identify their mistakes.

The first of two claims made by American scholars in the 1960s was that the existence of cross-linguistic differences made second language acquisition extremely difficult from first language acquisition. In the foreword to *Linguistics Across Cultures*, a highly influential manual on contrastive analysis by Lado (1957), Fries stated (ctd in Odlin, 1989:15):

Learning a second language ... constitutes a very different task from learning the first language. The basic problems arise not out of any essential difficulty in the features of the new language themselves but primarily out of the special "set" created by the first language habits.

Fries supported the behaviourist analysis of linguistic competence as a series of habits (Bloomfield, 1933). Native language influence was therefore the influence of old habits, some aspects having a positive influence and others a negative one (Odlin, 1989:15).

The second claim was that the difficulties of second language acquisition could be determined through contrastive analyses:

We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely

difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple ... and those elements that are different will be difficult. (Lado, ctd in Odlin, 1989:15).

By the 1970s these claims faced serious challenges.

2.2 Different Approaches to Transfer

Three approaches concerning transfer have dominated: contrastive analysis; error analysis; and its later development, an analysis of the transitional system called “interlanguage” (Odlin, 1989). However, in earlier contrastive analysis studies of the phenomenon, the influence of the native language was considered as interference in the acquisition and learning of the target language. Later research, involving error analysis and analysis of “interlanguage” systems of learners’ actual performance, suggests that the influence of transfer on the acquisition of the target language is more complicated. Other factors now being considered include knowledge about the target language itself, the learner’s communicative strategies, the instructional situation, and the combined effects of these factors.

There is a very close connection between the notion of ‘error’ and the notion of ‘interference’; the latter being a notion originating from skill research in psychology. As nearly all new skills are learned on the basis of existing skills, skill research has traditionally shown a keen interest in the phenomenon of *transfer* (Els et al., 1984). A distinction is usually made between *pro-active* and *retro-active* transfer; pro-active transfer being the transfer of existing skills onto new skills, and retro-active transfer being the transfer of new skills onto existing skills.

In either case, transfer may be positive or negative. Positive transfer, otherwise known as *facilitation*, is the transfer of one skill which assists in the learning of another skill due to similarities between both skills. On the other hand, negative transfer, otherwise known as *interference*, is the transfer of one skill which hinders the learning of another skill due to the differences between the two.

These two concepts were central to CA and reflected an essentially behaviourist model of language learning, which described the acquisition of language in terms of habit formation. Reflecting Skinner's interpretation of laboratory experiments on rats (1957), where positive and negative stimuli induced certain 'learned' behaviours, language acquisition (certainly foreign language acquisition) was described in the same way. The broad acceptance that these views had in the 1950s and 1960s encouraged the Audiolingual Method of teaching which focused on extensive drilling in order to form the required 'habits'. Error was seen as an unwanted deviation from the norm and an imperfect product of perfect input.

Challenging Skinner's model of behaviourist learning, Chomsky (1957) proposed a more cognitive approach to language learning which involved the use of a Language Acquisition Device. This device, he argued, was reserved exclusively for processing and producing language, and was separate from other cognitive processes. Chomsky argued that children were perceiving regularities and forming rules for how the language works rather than simply imitating other people, e.g., "He runned". I quote an utterance from my own child, "I didn't saw it".

We can distinguish between four types of transfer on the basis of direction and effect of transfer.

Table 2.1

Four types of transfer (Els et al., 1984:50)

	Positive transfer	Negative transfer
Pro-active transfer	Pro-active facilitation	Pro-active interference
Retro-active transfer	Retro-active facilitation	Retro-active interference

The disadvantage of the terms 'positive' and 'negative' transfer is that they imply a value judgement; they are not purely descriptive.

2.2.1 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Contrastive analysis, the first of the three approaches to transfer, was originally developed by Fries (1945) and expanded by Lado (1957). It is assumed that the learning of a second language is facilitated whenever there are similarities between that language and the mother tongue. Learning may be interfered with when there are marked contrasts between the mother tongue and the second language (Nickel, 1971).

Contrastive analysis emphasizes the influence of the mother tongue in learning a second language in phonological, morphological and syntactic levels. Examination of the differences between the first and second languages helps to predict the possible errors that can be made by L2 learners (Krishnaswamy & Verma, 1992).

The clearest exemplification of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (hereafter CAH), is provided by Lado (1957). In its strong form, the CAH claimed to be able to make predictions about the difficulties which learners of a particular L2 would experience, based on the differences between the L2 and the learner's L1; in its weak form as error analysis, the hypothesis claimed a certain explanatory power for learner's errors. As reflected in the name 'contrastive' analysis, the emphasis was certainly on differences and difficulties (and hence on errors and their eradication as bad habits transferred from the L1), but the CAH also made predictions about similarity and ease of learning. The pedagogical conclusions which arose from the CAH included focusing on differences (assuming these to be synonymous with difficulties) and practicing the new L2 'habits' by drills.

The strong claim has usually been made under the two assumptions that the structural similarities will lead to *facilitation* and differences will cause *interference*.

As Lado says (1957:2) "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture. If the transfer is positive, it will facilitate L2 learning (e.g., in Turkish, the number – adjective – noun sequence will be realized in the same order in English as in *bir kırmızı kalem* 'one red

pencil'. On the other hand, 'negative transfer' causes 'interference' (e.g., in Turkish, *üç çocuk* 'three child' instead of 'three children' because of the Turkish equivalent which does not take a plural marker).

By the 1970s empirical research was beginning to show that learning difficulties do not always arise from cross-linguistic differences and that difficulties which do arise are not always predicted by contrastive analyses. Different stages of development found in both first and second language acquisition has led researchers to question how different the two processes really were. Take, for example, the omission of *is*. This also occurs in the speech of children learning English as their native language: *That a ball*.

I myself have come across the following response in a question and answer drill:

Teacher: *What are you doing?*

Student: *Are you doing swimming.*

This is an instance of what Wagner-Gough (ctd in Ellis, 1997:123) refers to as an *incorporation strategy* involving 'borrowing' a chunk from the preceding discourse and then extending it by affixing some element to the beginning or end.

2.2.1.1 CA on Phonetic and Phonological Levels

A cross-linguistic comparison of sounds in two languages should indicate descriptions of the phonetics as well as the phonology of the native and target language. A phonetic description is necessary since sounds in two languages often show different characteristics, including both acoustic characteristics (e.g., the pitch of a sound) and articulatory characteristics (e.g., how widely the mouth is open in producing a sound). Two languages frequently have sounds which may seem identical but which in fact are acoustically different.

Learners' identification of the Turkish /ɯ/ and the English /i:/ illustrates the importance of phonetic similarity in interlingual identifications. Another factor that influences interlingual identifications is the set of relations implicit in the phonemic

system of a language. Since the /æ/ sound does not exist in Turkish, Turkish learners of English do not distinguish between the vowels /e/ and /æ/. They pronounce both *met* and *mat* as /met/.

2.2.1.2 CA of Suprasegmental Patterns

Although cross-linguistic influences on pronunciation frequently involve segmental contrasts, the influences are also frequently evident in **suprasegmental** contrasts involving stress, tone, rhythm, and other factors (Odlin, 1989:117). Stress patterns are crucial in pronunciation since they affect syllables and the segments that constitute syllables, as seen in the stress alteration in English between certain nouns and verbs, such as between *récord* and *recórd*. The first syllable in these two words has a different vowel sound, with the sound varying according to the acoustic prominence of the syllable. Such interactions have important implications not only for speech production but also for comprehension. Research reviewed by Cutler, (referred to in Odlin, 1989:117), indicates that stress patterns play a crucial role in listeners' recognition of words. When non-native speakers do not use a stress pattern that is a norm in the target language, vowels and consonants may also vary from the target pattern, and this can result in a total misperception by listeners.

Stress errors can result in intelligibility. In Turkish stress generally falls on the last syllable; therefore the Turkish learner of English has difficulty with English stress, thus, most Turkish learners of English pronounce 'contest' as 'con-TEST'.

One of the most important typological distinctions between languages, according to Odlin (1989:118) involves tone and intonation. In tone languages, pitch levels have phonemic significance. A common example of the phonemic status of tone in certain languages involves the Mandarin Chinese syllable *ma*, which, among other denotations represents "mother" when it is used with a high level tone, and "horse" with a low rising tone (Bloomfield) (ctd in Odlin, 1989:118).

There is evidence that speakers of English do have considerable difficulty in learning to identify and use tones in Mandarin (Chiang; Broselow, Hurtig, and Ringen, ctd in Odlin, 1989:118).

Pitch in English conveys important information about speakers' attitudes and emotional states. As such, pitch and other suprasegmental features, including stress, rhythm, and loudness, play a role in discourse similar to that of gestures and other paralinguistic signals.

Intonational signals have other functions besides suggesting speakers' attitudes and emotions; they also help to structure conversation by providing signals for openings and closings, for the managing of turns, and for other functions (Brazil, Coulthard, and Johns) (referred to in Odlin, 1989:119). Moreover, intonation often interacts with discourse and syntactic structures. There do seem to be some universal tendencies in the functions that suprasegmental units will have in phrases and clauses. For example, Bolinger (in Odlin, 1989:119) observes that a rising intonation is characteristic of *yes-no questions* in many languages (e.g., *Are you coming?* can have either an affirmative or a negative reply). Nevertheless, Odlin (1989:119) states that 'there is considerable cross-linguistic variation in suprasegmental systems, and the effects of similarities and differences in systems are evident in second language acquisition.'

Similarity or dissimilarity between native- and target-language intonation patterns can also affect production in other ways. One of the surest clues to the specific "foreign accent" of an individual appears to be the compilation of characteristics of sentence rhythm and pitch in the native language.

The effects of suprasegmental (or segmental) transfer may often be relatively unimportant. When speaking English, a German may "sound German" and a Turkish Cypriot may "sound Turkish Cypriot", but they may still succeed in communicating gracefully, fluently, and accurately in most respects. Nevertheless, non-native speakers may at times risk giving offence simply from the use of intonation patterns that signal one emotional state in the native language and a different one in the target language.

2.2.1.3 CA of Writing Systems

Any consideration of transfer involving writing systems must take into account the relation that frequently exists between pronunciation and writing. Odlin (1989:124) suggests that 'writing systems often reflect the sound pattern in a language, and therefore a contrastive analysis of writing systems often presupposes some familiarity with the phonetics and phonology of the languages being compared.' Much of the negative transfer evident in misspellings has its origins not in native language orthography but in native language pronunciation.

Successful reading and writing also presuppose a certain mastery of encoding and decoding skills. Such skills involve not only individual symbols but also *systems* of symbols. To become literate in an *alphabetic* system, one must come to recognise the correspondence between letters and phonemes.

Pedagogical practice reflects the fact that the more similar the writing systems of two languages are, the less time learners will need to develop basic encoding and decoding skills (Odlin, 1989:125). Turkish and English are extremely similar in their writing systems, whereas Chinese and English are not. Altunkaya (1997:14) describes the overlap between the Turkish and the English writing systems:

"... some of the letters are not familiar to a Turkish reader; that is, from the Turkish alphabet three letters are added (q, v, w). [In the Turkish writing system], it can be seen that each character stands for one single sound in Turkish, but the situation is a bit complex in English."

Both Turkish and English use Latin alphabets and it is therefore possible to transfer much of a Turkish student's reading habit from Turkish to English. There is a close relationship between the symbols and the sounds in Turkish, but the correspondence between the sound and writing in English is more complex. Thus a Turkish speaking student who has established the habit of automatic association between the symbol and sounds will no doubt have reading problems. The irregularity of the English spelling system certainly causes a large amount of difficulty for Turkish

students learning to read English. For instance, in English one sound is represented by a sequence of two vowel letters: ee, ea, ei, ie representing the same sound /i:/.

2.2.1.4 CA of Word Order Patterns

There is evidence that age and native language also interact in the lexical and syntactic development of second language learners (Odlin, 1989:138).

Analysing data from several studies of first and second language acquisition, Zobl (ctd in Odlin, 1989:139) argues that word order transfer varies with the chronological age in which a second language is acquired. Up to about the age of three, the second-language word orders used by children are quite variable, with the variation being governed, according to Zobl, by discourse considerations, similar to those that govern languages with flexible word order. For example, a three-year-old child whose native language was French produced the following sentence: *Elephant plane is this* ("This is the plane elephants fly on"). The sentence reflects, in Zobl's analysis, an interaction between the relatively flexible word order of French and the tendency of young children to use word orders determined by discourse factors. From about the age of four up to about the age of ten, a period of "syntactic conservatism" develops. In that period, children are more inclined to stick with one word order, which may or may not be that of the target language. In contrast to children, adults and adolescents do not show as much "conservatism" in their use of word order.

In very young bilingual children words and phrases are often mixed from the two languages up until the age of three, at which point it begins to taper off. For example, in Turkish, daha books ("more books").

Odlin (1989:140) believes that young children who mix languages may not always be aware of the existence of two separate languages, but individuals who code-switch do have such an awareness.

Among the most controversial topics concerning the acquisition of second language syntax is the extent of word-order transfer, especially regarding the two basic

word orders, SVO and SOV. Despite reported instances of basic word-order transfer, a number of skeptics have contended that such transfer does not take place, and others have argued that if it does take place, it is a negligible phenomenon.

Since the basic word-order of Turkish is SOV and the basic word-order of English is SVO, transfer might take place.

2.2.2 Error Analysis

Error analysis emphasizes “the significance of errors in learners’ **interlanguage** system” (Brown, 1994:204).

It was Corder who first advocated in the ELT/applied linguistics community the importance of errors in the language learning process. In Corder (1967), he mentions the paradigm shift in linguistics from a behaviouristic view of language to a more rationalistic view and claims that in language teaching one noticeable effect is to shift the emphasis away from *teaching* towards a study of *learning*. He emphasizes great potential for applying new hypotheses about how languages are learned in L1 to the learning of a second language (in Richards, 1974:21).

Corder goes on to say that in L1 acquisition we interpret child's 'incorrect' utterances as being evidence that he is in the process of acquiring language and that for those who attempt to describe his knowledge of the language at any point in its development, it is the 'errors' which provide the important evidence (in Richards, 1974:23). In second language acquisition, Corder proposed as a working hypothesis that some of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. (It does not mean, however, the course or sequence of learning is the same in L1 and L2.) By classifying the errors that learners made, researchers could learn a great deal about the SLA process by inferring the strategies that second language learners were adopting. For learners themselves, errors are 'indispensable,' since the making of errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. (Selinker, 1992:150)

Many attempts at classifying errors have resulted in the distinction between errors of competence and errors of performance. The former is the result of the application of rules of L1 by the L2 learner which do not (yet) correspond to the L2 norm; learners are not aware of their errors and therefore do not correct them. This type of error is a developmental feature of interlanguage. The latter is the result of mistakes in language use. They show themselves as repeats, false starts, corrections or slips of the tongue. In this instance, the learner is able to correct himself (Corder, ctd in Els et al., 1984:52).

While analyzing errors, we use either the term *authoritative* or *plausible*. An authoritative interpretation is one whereby the learner is available to state his intention in the mother tongue, and a plausible interpretation is where the learner is unavailable and the teacher has to infer what was intended. Consider the following example: *I am studying the English*. If analyzed as an authoritative error, we may interpret the utterance with the learner's help to mean that the learner is here to study the English language. As a plausible error, we infer what was intended and may wrongly interpret the utterance to mean that the learner is here to study the English people and not the language.

Corder (1967:161-170) suggested that there was structure in learner language, and that certain inferences could be made about the learning process by describing successive states of the learner language, noting the changes and correlating this with the input. Moreover, he argued that the appearance of error in a learner's production was evidence that the learner was organizing the knowledge available to them at a particular point in time. Errors, he stated, were the most important source of information, accounting for the fact that learners have a 'built in syllabus' and that a process of hypothesis formulation and reformulation was continuously occurring.

Corder (1967; 1974) identified a model for error analysis that included three stages:

1. Data collection: Recognition of idiosyncrasy
2. Description: Accounting for idiosyncratic dialect
3. Explanation (the ultimate object of error analysis).

Brown (1994:207-211) and Ellis (1995:51-52) elaborated on this model. Ellis (1997:15-20) and Hubbard et al. (1996:135-141) gave practical advice and provided clear examples of how to **identify and analyze** learners' errors. The initial step requires the **selection** of a corpus of language followed by the **identification** of errors. The errors are then **classified**. The next step, after giving a grammatical analysis of each error, demands an **explanation** of different types of errors.

Moreover, Gass & Selinker (1994:67) identified six steps in conducting an error analysis: Collecting data, Identifying errors, Classifying errors, Quantifying errors, Analyzing source of error, and Remediating for errors.

2.2.2.1 Segmental Errors

Although cross-linguistic differences in phonetics and phonology have important consequences for perception and comprehension, Odlin (1989:115) writes that 'the most salient consequences of linguistic differences are production errors which result in pronunciation patterns that diverge from those found in the target language.' An error taxonomy devised by Moulton (ctd in Odlin, 1989:115) takes into account, though not all, of the complexity found in second language pronunciation. Although many of the assumptions about phonological theory and transfer that are implicit in Moulton's classification have been challenged, his taxonomy still provides a valuable analysis of the range of second language **segmental errors** (i.e., errors involving vowels and consonants). Based mainly on a contrastive analysis of English and German, Moulton's taxonomy recognises four types of errors: (1) phonemic errors; (2) phonetic errors; (3) allophonic errors; and (4) distributional errors.

Phonemic errors can arise when the phonemic inventories of two languages differ. For example, English has a phonemic contrast between the voiced alveolar nasal /n/ and the voiced velar nasal /ŋ/. Thus, English has minimal pairs such as /sɪn/ ("sin") and /sɪŋ/ ("sing"). While the former consonant has phonemic status in Turkish, the latter does not.

Phonetic errors in Moulton's classification involve cases of cross-linguistic equivalence at the phonemic but not the phonetic level. Thus, the Turkish high front vowel /ɪ/ and the English high front vowel /i:/ differ in their acoustic properties as in 'bin' /bɪn/ and 'bean' /bi:n/.

Allophonic errors can arise in cases of interlingual identifications of phonemes in two languages. Odlin, (1989:116) states that 'a particular sound or allophone that is a manifestation of a native language phoneme is not always an accepted manifestation of a corresponding target language phoneme.' For example, the English phoneme /w/ does not exist in Turkish. As the Turkish phoneme /v/ has the allophone [w] occurring before rounded vowels, a Turkish student may pronounce both 'west' and 'vest' as /vest/. As a result, he may fail to distinguish minimal pairs such as these.

Distributional errors sometimes resemble allophonic errors. The Turkish phonemes / b, d, g, dʒ / do not occur in the word final position, and therefore the position of these sounds within a word may affect the pronunciation of the English sound as in 'bulb', 'bed', 'bag', 'badge'. In such cases, transfer errors may occur since the learner has the tendency to pronounce the final phonemes as /p, t, k, tʃ/ respectively ('bulp' /bʌlp/, 'bet' /bet/, 'back' /bæk/, 'batch' /bætʃ/).

2.2.2.2 Pronunciation Errors

According to Özen (1978:51), 'pronunciation of a language consists of sounds: vowels and consonants; suprasegmentals including stress, pitch and juncture; intonation and rhythm, and their sequences. All of these components of pronunciation have the power to change the meaning of an utterance.' He goes on to say,

'Pronunciation of a language means two different things to the speaker and to the listener. For the speaker it means the production of the pronunciation items and their sequences; and for the listener it means the recognition and the identification of those items and their sequences when heard during conversation.'

When a speaker speaks the language, he unconsciously encodes everything into the sound system; and when an individual listens to someone, he is not aware of the sound system that reaches his ears. Yet, whatever he understands passes through the sound system too.

Pronunciation items and their sequences have phonemic values, that is, they have the power to change one meaning into another. For this reason, if not learned properly and as accurately as possible, a lot of confusion may arise.

The pronunciation system of each language is unique. This means that the pronunciation systems of languages are different from one another. There are no two languages whose pronunciation systems are alike. Even those languages which are closely related to each other show differences in their pronunciation systems.'

The results of scientific research (in Özen, 1978:112), have shown that the speakers of one language can neither pronounce language sounds of another, nor can they hear language sounds other than those of their native language easily. He says,

"It is evident that during the process of learning a foreign language, learners tend to transfer their entire language system to that language ... the speaker of one language listening to another does not actually hear the foreign language sound units. Instead, he hears his own. Phonemic differences in the target language will be missed by him if there is no similar phonemic differences in the native language."

In comparing the sound system of English with that of Turkish, we would find that Turkish does not have the phoneme that might pass as English /ð/ as in the words /ðei/, /fa:ðə/, and /bri:ð/. Turkish speakers have difficulty pronouncing and hearing the phoneme, since the form, articulation, and the distribution of this phoneme is completely different from any of the sounds appearing in the Turkish language. Turkish speakers tend to replace it with /d/, which is a dental sound in Turkish and very close in the mouth to the position for /ð/.

- a) form: The English sound /ð/ is an apico-interdental voiced slit fricative consonant; on the other hand, the /d/ in Turkish is a dental voiced stop consonant.
- b) articulation: The /ð/ is made by inserting the tip of the tongue either between the upper and the lower teeth, or by putting the tip of the tongue very close to the back of the upper teeth in such a way that a slight audible friction noise is heard during the production of this sound; the /d/ in Turkish is made by touching the tip of the tongue to the upper teeth.
- c) distribution: The /ð/, which never occurs in Turkish, appears in all the three environments (initial, medial and final): 'they', 'father', 'breathe'. The /d/ in Turkish also appears in initial, medial, and rarely final position: 'dede', 'badem', 'ad'.

Although these two sounds occur in all positions and both of them are voiced, the point to be known is that the place of articulation for these two sounds is different; therefore a problem appears.

Özen (1978:52) summarises pronunciation "as the acquisition of an adequate command of the spoken language." He adds, 'students learning other languages can hardly be said to have mastered a foreign language unless they have a command of its spoken symbols.

The fundamental method by which a student learns to pronounce English is by imitating the pronunciation of English speakers. Sometimes imitation does fail, however. Although the teacher may pronounce a word many times for the learner, the learner may still be unable to say it exactly as the teacher does. In this case the teacher can then write out the word for the learner, sound by sound, using symbols which are always pronounced in the same way. One of the most typical features of English, according to Prator (1957:1) is the manner in which its unimportant, unstressed vowels are pronounced.

2.2.2.3 Errors of Competence and Performance

Errors of competence have been divided into two types of deviation, interlingual

and intralingual, both based on different operating principles (Corder, ctd in Odlin, 1989:53). Intralingual operating principles occur in L2 learning as well as in L1 learning; whereas the interlingual operating principle is specific to L2 learning.

We therefore need to distinguish between *interlingual* and *intralingual* foreign language learning problems:

In the first instance, the learning problem is caused by the structure of the native language; the problems resulting from language transfer caused by the learner's native language. According to Brown (1987:177) the initial stages of learning a second language are characterized by a good deal of interlingual transfer from the native language. He says, "before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only linguistic system in previous experience upon which the learner can draw." We have all heard English learners say "sheep" for "ship" or "the house of John" instead of "John's house. Turkish learners may say, "He knocked the door (*kapıyı çaldı*)," instead of "He knocked at the door". He explains these errors as being a result of negative interlingual transfer. In spite of the fact that it is not always clear that an error is actually the result of transfer from the native language, many such errors are evident in learner speech. Fluent knowledge of the learners' native language certainly aids the teacher in identifying and analyzing such errors.

In the second instance, the foreign language errors cannot be accounted for on the basis of interference from the mother tongue. In this case, the problems cannot be retraced to differences between the native language and the foreign language, although they do relate to a specific interpretation of the target language and show themselves as universal phenomena, in any language learning process. It is now clear that intralingual transfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. Researchers have found that the early stages of language learning are characterized by a predominance of interference (interlingual transfer), but once learners have begun to acquire parts of the new system, more and more intralingual transfer - generalisation within the target language - is manifested (for further information see Taylor, ctd in Brown, 1987:178).

Early reference to intralingual L2 learning problems can be seen in Corder (1967:167). An example is that of overgeneralisations such as *seed* (=saw) found in both L1 and L2 learning: *I seed him*.

Negative intralingual transfer, or overgeneralization, can be illustrated in such utterances as “Does John can sing?” “He goed” and “I don’t know what time is it.” The teacher cannot always be certain of the source of an apparent intralingual error, but repeated systematic observations of a learner’s speech data will often remove the ambiguity of a single observation of an error. For example, in an analysis of the translations of Turkish sentences into English we come across the following types of error in producing the main verb following an auxiliary:

1. present tense *-s* on a verb following a modal
2. *-ing* on a verb following a modal
3. present tense *-s* on a verb following *do*

Els et al. (1984:51) refers to ‘errors’ in both instances as being “inevitable, necessary and systematic stages in the language learning process.”

At this point we shall exemplify the errors.

1. *Interlingual phonological errors*

The dog is beautiful (/k/ instead of /g/)

There is a pub on the corner (/p/ instead of /b/)

A black board (/t/ instead of /d/)

Three cars (/t/ instead of /θ/)

2. *Interlingual morphosyntactic errors*

I will give you all the *informations* (L1 bilgiler = L2 information)

3. *Interlingual lexical errors*

- a. *selection of wrong word when words are phonetically related in L1 and L2* (the so-called ‘false friends’)

Hasan *complemented* his son on his success (L1 yüceltti = L2 complimented)

He showed his *sympathy* towards her (L1 sempati = L2 affection)

She went into the *corridor* (L1 koridor = L2 hallway)

b. selection of wrong word in the case of divergence between L1 and L2

I like *whole* people (L1 bütün = L2 all)

He was a total *foreigner* to me (L1 yabancı = L2 stranger)

Between all the magazines on the shelf, there was an interesting one
(L1 arasında = L2 among/amongst)

c. word innovation as a result of literal translation from L1

He can't read *right* (L1 doğru = L2 correctly)

I am *reading* German (L1 okuyorum = L2 studying)

The grapes are *cooked* (L1 pişti = L2 ripe)

She speaks English *extremely comfortably* (L1 gayet rahat = L2 very fluently)

I will *make a bath* before I go out (L1 banyo yapmak = L2 have a bath)

I *came* (L1 geldim = L2 I am back)

4. Intralingual phonological errors

F/oo/d (/v/ instead of /u:/, cf. look)

Bever/a/ge (/e/ instead of /i/, cf. age)

5. Intralingual morphosyntactic errors

a. innovation as a result of overgeneralization

The *peoples* (people)

They *goed* to school (went)

There are two *childs* in my family (children)

She doesn't *gets* up early (get)

b. deviation in word order

I *very much* like swimming (I like swimming very much)

Six people *there are* in my family (There are six people in my family)

I yesterday went to the cinema (I went to the cinema yesterday)

6. *Intralingual lexical errors*

selection of wrong word as a result of phonetic relatedness within L2

She walked into the *chicken* (kitchen)

I took all the money *accept* the coins (except)

I *except* she'll be there (expect)

7. *Errors of performance*

I wanted *I wanted* to go home (repeat)

He's *She's She's* got brown hair (correction + repeat)

I always *bruy* two loaves of *bread* (anticipation)

Els et al. (1984:57) concludes that in most cases we are dealing with morphosyntactic errors that would be classified under (5) by Richards (1971:206) as illustrated below.

At this point we shall illustrate errors in the English of L2 learners from various L1 backgrounds on a non-contrastive basis, as first described by Richards (ctd in Els et al., 1984:56):

(1) *Errors in the production of verb groups*

be + verb stem for verb stem

I am live in Nicosia

be + verb stem + *-ed* for verb stem + *-ed*

The children are go to bed

wrong form after *do*

He did not went

wrong form after modal verb

She cannot swims

be omitted before verb + stem + *-ed*

I born in İstanbul

-ed omitted after *be* + part. verb stem

The garden is cover with leaves

be omitted before verb + *-ing*

He driving too fast

verb stem for verb stem + -s

It eat mice

(2) Errors in the distribution of verb groups

be + verb + -ing for *be* + verb + -ed

I am boring

be + verb + -ing for verb stem

She is coming from Turkey

be + *not* + verb + -ing for *do* + *not* + verb

She is not liking the food

be + verb + -ing for verb + -ed in narrative

At the weekend we were watching TV

verb stem for verb + -ed in narrative

One day I visit my grandparents

have + verb + -ed for verb + -ed

They had finished already

have + *be* + verb + -ed for *be* + verb + -ed

They have been married in England last summer

verb (+ -ed) for *have* + verb + -ed

We visit(ed) them every weekend up to now

be + verb + -ed for verb stem

This taxi is carried six persons

(3) Miscellaneous errors

wrong verb form in adverb of time

We shall see her before she will leave

object omitted or included unnecessarily

He won the competition and we congratulated

errors in tense sequence

If I leave now, I catch the train

confusion of *too/so/very*

I am very tired to go out

(4) Errors in the use of prepositions

In the night

I live in Number 8, Green Park

I came here on June

(5) *Errors in the use of articles*

omission of *the*

Queen's name is

Elizabeth

the used instead of \emptyset

I am going to the home

a instead of *the*

A worst holiday ever

a instead of \emptyset

I will have a spaghetti

omission of *a*

He is clever boy

(6) *Errors in the use of questions*

omission of inversion

Where he is going?

be omitted before verb + *-ing*

Where he going?

omission of *do*

What she do?

wrong form of/after auxiliary

Do she always eat that?

Did he died?

Inversion omitted in embedded sentences

Please tell me where is he going

It is possible to classify deviant utterances as follows (Dulay and Burt in Ellis, 2001:60):

- developmental errors: those errors that are similar to L1 learning errors;
- interference errors: those errors that reflect Turkish structure;
- unique errors: those errors that are neither 'developmental' nor 'interference' errors

A number of factors influencing the probability of occurrence of interference are as follows:

- a) Amount and nature of input: interference is especially likely to occur when the L2 input is limited in quantity and scope. For example, *I don't know how do you do it.*
- b) Level of linguistic analysis: more L2 learning research has been done at the levels of morphology and syntax than at the phonological and lexical levels. For example,
 - (i) at the morphological level demonstrative adjectives preceding plural nouns are not pluralized in Turkish, therefore '*bu kitaplar*' becomes '*this books*' instead of '*these books*'.
 - (ii) at the syntactic level there may be a difference in word order. The learner may use the subject pronoun after the direct object as in the case of *Ben çayı severim*, which when translated could be realized as *Tea I like* instead of *I like tea*.
- c) Linguistic distance between L1 and L2: interference shows itself especially strongly between related linguistic systems. For example, adverbial forms of Turkish verbs correspond to adverbial clauses in English: *gelinceye kadar / Until I come*.
- d) L2 learning stage: interference is most frequent in the initial stages of the learning process. For example, *We stayed in Mersin 15 days* instead of *We stayed in Mersin for 15 days*.
- e) Task force: interference is likely if the focus of L2 use is on correct grammatical forms rather than on communicative effectiveness. For example, in Turkish, when a noun is used as the predicate of a sentence, it is customary to omit *bir* and use simply the noun, as in *Mehmet doktordur* which is translated as *Mehmet is doctor*. On the other hand in English, it is customary to use the article 'a' as in *Mehmet is a butcher*.

2.2.3 Interlanguage Transition

Although Selinker (1972) coined the term "interlanguage", it was Corder (1967) who is considered responsible for raising issues that became central to studies of interlanguage. Interlanguage as ctd in Brown (1987:169) "refers to the separateness of a

second language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target languages". Nemser (1974:55) referred to it as the *Approximate System*, and Corder (1967) as the *Idiosyncratic Dialect or Transitional Competence*.

The term *interlanguage*, introduced by Selinker (1972), refers to the systematic knowledge of an L2 that is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language. Interlanguage was defined by Selinker, Swain, and Dumas (ctd in Connor, 1999:13) as a "system ... distinct from both the native language and the target language." More recently interlanguage research has been condemned for looking at syntax in an exclusively syntactic framework, excluding semantics, phonology, and pragmatics. Hence Rutherford, (ctd in Connor, 1999:13), requesting interlanguage research on functional perspectives in language in the light of pragmatics and discourse linguistics.

Brown (1987:168) says, 'The learners ... construct what to them is a legitimate system of language in its own right – a structured set of rules which for the time being provide order to the linguistic chaos that confronts them.'

From the above we can easily say that interlanguage is the learner's language in L2. It is a unique linguistic system that draws, in part, on the learner's L1, but is also different from it and also from the target language. It is the systematic development of learner language that reflects a mental system of L2 knowledge.

Ellis (1994:19) says, "learners are ... actively involved in shaping the grammars' they are learning. Learners 'create' their own rules."

The concept of interlanguage as put forward by Ellis (1994:33) involves the following beliefs about L2 acquisition:

- The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which brings about comprehension and production of the L2. This system of rules is viewed as a 'mental grammar' and is referred to as an 'interlanguage'.

- The learner's grammar is permeable. That is, it changes over time. Omission, overgeneralization and transfer errors constitute evidence of internal processing. For example, in errors of omission, learners leave out the articles 'a' and 'the' and leave the -s off plural nouns. 'Eated' instead of 'ate' is an example of overgeneralization. Transfer errors reflect learners attempts to make use of their L1 knowledge.
- The learner's grammar is transitional. Learners change their grammar at intervals by adding rules, deleting rules and restructuring the whole system resulting in what is known as an **interlanguage continuum**. Initially learners begin with a very simple grammar where only one form of the verb is represented, but over time they add other forms. For example, *listen – listening – listened*.
- Some researchers argue that learners are likely to have competing rules at any stage of development. Others argue that interlanguage systems are homogeneous and that variability reflects the mistakes learners make when they try to use their knowledge to communicate.
- Learners employ various **learning strategies** to develop their interlanguages. The different kinds of errors learners produce reflect different learning strategies. For example, omission errors suggest that learners in some way are simplifying the learning task by ignoring grammatical features that they are not yet ready to process. Overgeneralization and transfer errors can also be seen as evidence of learning strategies.
- The learner's grammar is likely to fossilize. That is, the interlanguage stops developing before it reaches L2 fluency. Selinker suggests that only about five per cent of learners go on to develop the same mental grammar as native speakers. The majority stop some way short. The occurrence of **backsliding** is typical of fossilized learners. Fossilization does not occur in L1 acquisition and is therefore unique to L2 grammars.

Interlanguage research questions whether there is a natural order of acquisition in unstructured, 'real life' second language situations, and if so, whether the variability that occurs when learners use the new language is more systematic than it first appears.

Suppose a Turkish learner of English says, 'Me go no school'. It is a sentence relating to the temporary language system of the learner at the time of producing the sentence. 'Me' shows that they do not distinguish 'I' and 'Me'; 'no' that negation consists for them of adding a negative word after the verb; and so on.

Criticisms of the CAH had begun to emerge from the late 1960s onwards: early examples include Corder and Wardhaugh (ctd in Els et al., 1984:50). It soon became clear, for instance, from studies of learners' errors that structural similarity between L1 and L2 did not always lead to positive transfer in production, often because the learner was overgeneralising a rule in the L2. On the other hand, errors did not always occur where L1-L2 contrast would have predicted

There are many different ways to describe the progression of linguistic development that learners display as their attempts at production successively approximate the target language system. Learners are so variable in their acquisition of a second language that stages of development defy description. Brown (1987:175) thinks in terms of four stages, based on observations of what the learner does in terms of errors alone.

The first is a stage of *random errors* in which the learner is only vaguely aware that there is some systematic order to a particular class of items.

The second, or *emergent*, stage of interlanguage fields finds the learner growing in consistency in linguistic production. The learner has begun to discern a system and to internalize certain rules. These rules may not be "correct" by target language standards, but they are nevertheless legitimate in the mind of the learner. This stage is characterized by some "backsliding", in which the learner seems to have grasped a rule or principle and then regresses to some previous stage. Generally at this stage the

learner is still unable to correct errors when they are pointed out by someone else. Avoidance of structures and topics is typical. Consider the following conversation between a learner (L) and a native speaker (NS) of English:

- L: I go to New York.
 NS: You're going to New York?
 L: [doesn't understand] What?
 NS: You will go to New York?
 L: Yes.
 NS: When?
 L: 1972.
 NS: Oh, you *went* to New York in 1972.
 L: Yes, I go 1972.

The third stage is a truly *systematic* stage in which the learner is now able to manifest more consistency in producing the second language. While those rules inside the head of the learner are still not all "well formed", they are more internally self-consistent and, of course, they are more closely approximating the target language system. The most salient difference between the second and third stage is the ability of learners to correct their errors when they are pointed out – even very subtly – to them. Consider the English learner who described a popular fishing resort area.

- L: Many fish are in the lake. These fish are serving in the restaurants near the lake.
 NS: [laughing] The *fish* are serving?
 L: [laughing] Oh, no, the fish are *served* in the restaurants!

The final stage, the *stabilization* stage, is characterized by the learner's ability to self-correct. Here the learner has relatively few errors and has mastered the system to the point that fluency and intended meanings are not problematic. The system is complete enough that attention can be paid to those few errors that occur and corrections made without waiting for feedback from someone else. It is at this point that

learners can stabilize too fast, allowing minor errors to slip by undetected, and thus manifest *fossilization* of their language.

At this point Brown (1987:176) makes it clear that these stages of systematicity do not describe a learner's total second language system.

2.3 Different Factors Affecting Transfer

The study of transfer should not be restricted by the above-mentioned factors. Non-structural factors affecting transfer include those not only related to individual variation, but also to the age of the learner, and human awareness of language, especially as it exists in social contexts.

2.3.1 Individual Variation

Individual variation is one of the most important characteristics of language. Despite the existence of different languages, there are also differences seen within languages in dialects and speech styles providing evidence of the staggering range of possible variation. No two people speak exactly the same: differences in voice quality, intonation, and vocabulary choice are among the most common distinguishers as well. The existence of such differences poses an important problem for the study of transfer. Contrastive analysis, the structural basis for predictions of transfer, normally relies on comparisons of *collective*, not *individual*, linguistic behaviour.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research by Stern (1994) has examined a number of other essential factors affecting transfer. These include 1) social context, 2) learner characteristics, 3) learning conditions, 4) the learning process and 5) the learning outcome.

1. Social Context

Considering the effect of social context on transfer, Odlin (cited in Ellis, 2001:317-318) suggests that negative transfer is less likely in classroom settings than in natural settings. In the former, learners will adhere to target-language norms and try to

avoid negative transfer. In the latter, learners may show less regard for target-language norms and language mixing will be freely permitted with no concern for what is 'grammatical' or 'ungrammatical', thus encouraging negative transfer.

2. Learner Characteristics

The following diagram identifies six general factors that contribute to individual learner characteristics in some depth. These are age, aptitude, cognitive style, motivation, personality and gender.

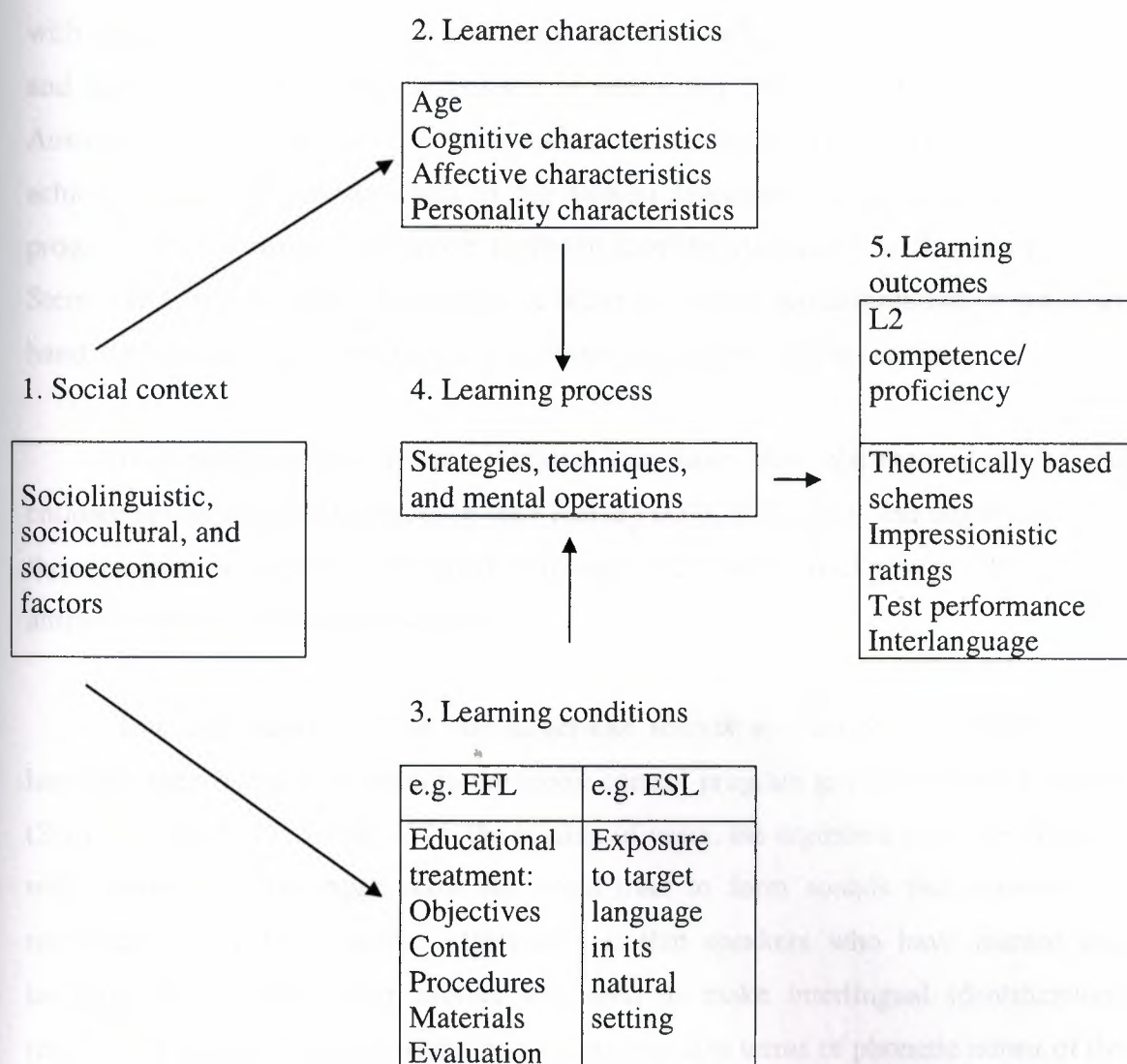


Figure 2.1 Framework for examination of second language learning (Stern, 1994:338)

i) Age

A question that has aroused considerable interest is whether adults learn a foreign language in the same way as children. A common sense approach to this issue suggests that adult and child SLA are not the same. Adults are able to focus more easily on the purely formal features of a language. However, this difference need not lead to differences in the route through which learners pass, which may be the product of a language faculty that does not change with age.

Nevertheless, there is a common belief that children learn a second language with greater ease than adults. If true, there may be a definite relation between transfer and ageing. In a theoretical comparison of adults and children as language learners, Ausubel (cited in Stern, 1983:363) concluded that although children are more likely to achieve native-like pronunciation in the foreign language, adults make more rapid progress in other aspects of foreign language learning. According to Krashen et al (in Stern, 1983:366) the older the learner the better the rate of acquisition, but on the other hand, the younger learner will usually be better in terms of final attainment.

It is possible that differing abilities that have been observed in adults and children are related to differences in their literacy skills, their use of the target language, their manner of learning the target language, their social background, their social attitudes, and many other factors as well.

One explanation for the non target-like sounds so commonly found in adult language speech is an alteration in the motor control program governing speech organs (Scovel, in Stern, 1983:138). With the passing of years, the argument goes, the program will change and no longer allow the vocal tract to form sounds that learners can nevertheless perceive. Another explanation is that speakers who have learned one language much earlier than another will tend to make interlingual identifications resulting in a target language sound being categorized in terms of phonetic norms of the native language. Flege (1981) suggests that the simultaneous acquisition of two languages in childhood may be the only situation in which such identifications can be avoided; by establishing early two distinct sets of phonemic norms, young bilingual

children may have an advantage over older children and adults learning a second language.

ii) Aptitude

Aptitude refers to the special ability some people have for learning a second language. Cook (1996:100) states that aptitude is usually the ability to learn a foreign language in a classroom situation, and not the ability that some people have for learning in real-life situations. One of the most important abilities is a “phonetic coding ability”, which Carroll (ctd in Odlin, 1989:132) defines as “an ability to identify distinct sounds, to form associations between these sounds, and symbols representing them, and to retain these associations.”

Carroll (ctd in Ellis, 1994:495-496) identified four factors in language aptitude:

1. *Phonemic coding ability* (the ability to identify and remember new sounds in a foreign language). This ability is seen as related to the ability to spell and to handle sound-symbol relationships.
2. *Grammatical coding ability* (the ability to identify the grammatical functions of words in sentences).
3. *Inductive language learning ability* (the ability to work out meanings without explanation in a new language).
4. *Rote learning ability* (the ability to remember words, rules, etc. in a new language). This ability is believed to be involved in vocabulary learning.

A person with high language aptitude can learn more quickly and easily than a person with low language aptitude, all other factors being equal (Carroll, ctd in Skehan, 1989:7).

iii) Cognitive Style

Cognitive style has attracted much attention, although with uncertain outcomes. It refers to the way learners perceive, conceptualize, organize and recall information. Witkin et al. (ctd in Stern, 1994:373) defines it as a ‘characteristic self-consistent mode of functioning which individuals show in their perceptual and intellectual activities’.

When learning a foreign language, different learners may prefer different solutions to learning problems. For example, some learners may want explanations for grammatical rules; others may not.

iv) Motivation

Learner motivation and needs have always had a central place in theories of SLA as it determines a language learner's desire to be successful. In foreign language learning, it usually refers to the long-term, fairly stable attitudes in the students' minds. Two types of motivation are generally distinguished:

1. *instrumental*: wanting to learn a language for a career goal or other practical reason.
2. *integrative*: learning the language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it

v) Personality

Personality may be a factor accounting for the varying degrees of success that individuals have in approximating pronunciation patterns in the target language.

Two personality characteristics that appear to interact with transfer are anxiety and empathy. An attempt was made by Guiora and Guiora et al. (ctd in Stern, 1983:381) to relate empathy to the capacity to pronounce the language in a native-like manner. Their studies sought to show that the more outgoing an individual's character is, the more attainable a native-like pronunciation of foreign language sounds will be.

vi) Gender

Two principles identified by sociolinguistic research (ctd in Ellis, 1994:202) suggest that women may be better at learning a foreign language than men; they are likely to be more adaptable to new linguistic forms in the foreign language input and they will be more likely to rid themselves of interlanguage forms that deviate from target language norms.

A number of studies imply that women attempt the task of learning a second language differently from men.

3. Learning Conditions

Up until the 1970s, language teaching was mainly concerned with classroom learning where, as a rule, the foreign language is treated more deliberately and more analytically. The belief in the seventies was that language learning could be better achieved in natural conditions; outside the classroom in the target language environment, whereby there are opportunities for constant and varied language use (Stern, 1994:391).

4. The Learning Process

Researchers have tried to study the *strategies* and *techniques* of foreign language learners. In Stern's view (1994:405) strategy relates to the general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, and techniques to particular forms of observable learning behaviour.

Three types of strategy used by foreign language learners have been defined (O'Malley and Chamot, ctd in Cook, 1996:105):

1. *Metacognitive* strategies: involving planning and thinking about learning, such as evaluating oneself.
2. *Cognitive* strategies: involving conscious ways of tackling learning, such as note-taking, using dictionaries, relating new information to old.
3. *Social* strategies: learning by interacting with others.

5. The Learning Outcome

It is undeniable that learners' abilities differ vastly, with much of the individual variation reflecting different degrees of second language skill. Some evidence suggests that there is a relation between proficiency and transfer (Odlin, 1989).

Taylor (ctd in Odlin, 1989:133) has argued that less proficient learners will rely more on transfer. Since less advanced learners have less information, they will tend to draw more on their native language for likenesses that appear relevant. On the other hand, more advanced learners know much more about the target language and can more often make likenesses on the basis of that information.

2.3.2 Communication Strategies

According to Brown (1987:180), communication strategies are one of the main sources of learner error, and include processes of interlingual and intralingual transfer and the context of learning as a learner tries to get a message across to a hearer or reader. He refers to a communication strategy as pertaining 'to the conscious employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reason not available to the learner at that point in communication.' Faerch and Kasper (ctd in Brown, 1987:180) define communication strategy as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal."

There has been a great deal of attention in recent years to the role of communication strategies in second language acquisition.

Brown (1987:181) refers to an article on "easifying" second language learning whereby Cohen and Aphek (1981) were able to observe both "good" and "bad" communication strategies. Among "good" strategies used by subjects in their research were word association and generating their own rules; in other words, students generated new forms of language by inference. For example, one of their subjects generated a passive verb form of Hebrew completely through intralingual generalization. These same subjects were guilty of "bad" communication strategies such as failing to produce grammatical markers carefully. And some "neutral" strategies were detected: creating forms through guessing and preplanning phrases or utterances.

In a study that examined children's second language communication strategies, Chesterfield and Chesterfield (cited in Brown, 1987:181) discovered that children are quite creative in their attempts to get messages across in a second language.

Brown (1987:183) examines four broad strategies of communication as proposed by Tarone:

1) Avoidance: Brown (1987:183) describes avoidance as a common communication strategy that can be broken down into several subcategories and thus distinguished from other types of strategies. The most common type of avoidance strategy, he says, is *syntactic* and *lexical* avoidance within a semantic category. He asks you to consider the following conversation:

L: I lost my road.

NS: You lost your *road*?

L: Uh, ... I lost. I lost. I got lost.

The learner avoided the lexical item *road* entirely, not being able to come up with the word *way* at that point.

Brown (1987:184) then goes on to say that a more direct type of avoidance is *topic* avoidance, in which a whole topic of conversation (say, talking about what happened yesterday if the past tense is unfamiliar) might be avoided entirely. Learners manage to devise ingenious methods of topic avoidance: changing the subject, pretending not to understand (a classical means for avoiding answering a question), simply not responding at all, or noticeably abandoning a message when a thought becomes too difficult to continue expressing.

2) Prefabricated Patterns: Another common communication device is to memorize certain stock phrases or sentences without internalized knowledge of the components of the phrase. "Tourist survival" language is full of prefabricated patterns, most of which can be found in pocket bilingual "phrase" books which list hundreds of stock sentences for various occasions. "How much does this cost?" "Where is the toilet?" "I don't speak English" "I don't understand you" are the sorts of prefabricated patterns that one

sometimes learns at the beginning of a language learning experience when the structure of the language is not known. Such phrases are rote memorized to fit their appropriate context.

It can be noted that children learning a first language develop certain prefabricated patterns (/ju:/ - “do you”, *gonna* - “going to”; *I dunno* - “I don’t know”, and both adults and children do the same in second language learning. Patterns like *can you*, *where’s*, *let’s*, and many other useful phrases are sometimes mastered early in the acquisition process, before the structures are really known.

3) Appeal to Authority: A common strategy of communication is a direct appeal to authority. Learners say, if “stuck” for a particular word or phrase, directly ask a native speaker (the authority) for the form (“How do you say”). Or they might venture a possible guess and then ask for classification from the native speaker of the correctness of the attempt. They might also choose to look a word or structure up in a bilingual dictionary.

4) Language Switch: Finally, when all else fails – when appeal, avoidance, transfer, and other strategies are all incapable of producing a meaningful utterance – learners may resort to language switch. That is, they may simply use their native language whether the hearer knows that language or not. Sometimes just a word or two are slipped in, in the hope that the hearer will get the gist of what is being communicated. But at other times relatively long stretches of native language discourse emerge from learners. Surprisingly, the context of communication, coupled with some of the universals of nonverbal expression, sometimes enable learners to communicate an idea in their own language to someone unfamiliar with that language.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In the 1970s, the study of errors by means of Error Analysis replaced Contrastive Analysis, which preferred to predict the errors that learners make by comparing and contrasting the linguistic systems of two languages in order to identify their structural similarities and differences. The belief of CA was that errors in the second language are mainly the result of differences between the learner's native language and the language being learnt. Nevertheless, EA proved preferable to CA amongst researchers as it provided a methodology for investigating learner language and therefore constitutes an appropriate starting point for the study of learner language.

Researchers are interested in errors because they are believed to contain valuable information on the strategies that people use to acquire a language (Richards, 1974; Taylor, 1975; Dulay and Burt, 1974). Moreover, according to Richards and Sampson (1974:15), at the level of pragmatic classroom experience, error analysis will continue to provide the means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching and determines priorities for future effort. According to Corder (1974), error analysis has two objects: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical object serves to "elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language." And the applied object serves to enable the learner "to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes."

The data necessary for the study has been obtained by asking the subjects to write a composition. When examining errors, we must remember that what second language learners produce by means of either speech or writing may not always conform to what one expects native speakers of the target language to produce, and in addition may not be an exact translation of the native language either.

This study is cross-sectional in design, whereby the written errors of two groups of subjects were studied at a single point in time in order to investigate my initial

research questions. The errors examined were made by both male and female Turkish learners of English in their first year at the ELT/ELL department at the NEU.

3.2 Subjects

A total of fifty-eight first year students (nineteen male students and thirty-nine female students) studying in the ELT and ELL Departments of the NEU participated in this research. The students selected were all from the same background; that being both Turkish Cypriot and Turkish mainland Turkish. Their identities have been kept confidential. The level of students participating in the study has been considered as intermediate.

3.3 Materials

The essays written by fifty-eight intermediate L2 learners at the final exam for the Fall Term of 2002/2003 Academic Year have been retrospectively assessed. Notwithstanding the fact that the learners represented two different groups taught by two different teachers, the environment and conditions for both groups have been determined to be similar, i.e. the groups studied carried out their essay performance in the classroom environment by completing the essays under the same choice of topics; either describing their bedroom or a dramatic event in their life.

The level of the learners in both groups has been considered to be intermediate.

3.4 Procedure

A number of studies in the 1960s provided descriptions of the different kinds of linguistic errors produced by learners (Ellis, 2001:55). In an attempt to challenge the widely held belief that learner errors were the result of L1 interference, Richards (cited in Ellis, 2001:55) examined errors made by learners from different language backgrounds and illustrated the different kinds of errors relating to the production and distribution of verb groups, prepositions, articles and the use of questions. What he failed to do was to quantify the errors and it is therefore unknown to what extent his linguistic categories

accounted for all the errors he examined. Duskov, ctd in Ellis, 2001:55, on the other hand, identified errors in the written work of 50 Czech learners of English. Although she had little difficulty in assigning errors to general linguistic categories such as 'word order', it was found difficult to classify them accurately into subcategories. A language guide by Raimes, 2003 listing a selection of linguistic problem areas is shown in Appendix A.

By looking at other studies by Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974c), the results of oral data collected from Spanish and Chinese children showed that the 'acquisition orders' for a group of English morphemes remained the same regardless of the learners L1. Larsen-Freeman (1976b) used a battery of five different tests of reading, writing, listening, speaking and imitating on Arabic, Japanese, Persian and Spanish learners of English. She found that the learners' native language made little difference to the order accuracies she obtained. Differences in morpheme orders occurred on different tasks, for example, plural *-s* and third person *-s* rose in the rank order in the reading and writing tasks but orders on production tasks, that is, speech and imitation, agreed with Dulay and Burt's order.

Since a scientific explanation of differences between error types has not found its clear-cut boundaries, it can be argued that a large number of learners' errors are ambiguous with regard to source. We must therefore be extremely careful when identifying the cause of any given error type. Ellis (2001:62) states the case of one researcher identifying the source of an error as transfer, whereas another identified the same source of the same error as intralingual. The example he gives is that of Duskova (1969) interpreting article deletion in Czech learners of English as interference, while Dulay and Burt (1974b) interpreted the same error in Spanish children learning English as intralingual. Thus, it is not easy to distinguish between intralingual and interlingual errors and as an alternative to a linguistic classification of errors, I will use a surface strategy taxonomy proposed by Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, (ctd in Ellis, 2001:55). This seems suitable for our purposes as it presupposes that learners operate on the surface structures of the target language rather than creating their own, unique structures. First, the errors will be classified under four categories: omissions, additions, misinformations and misorderings (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982).

Table 3.1

A Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Errors

(categories and examples taken from Dulay, Burt and Krashen in Ellis, 2001:56)

Category	Description	Example
Omissions	The absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance.	She sleeping.
Additions	The presence of an item that must not appear in well-formed utterances.	We didn't went there.
Misinformations	The use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.	The dog ated the chicken.
Misorderings	The incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.	What daddy is doing?

Although this taxonomy may have a pedagogic application, it is criticized by Ellis as being of little value as it does not represent mental processes (Ellis, 2001:56). In my case the taxonomy proposed by Dulay, Burt and Krashen failed to enable me to describe the internal elements that the error types consist of. I therefore found the sub-categorization offered by both Richards, 1971 (refer back to page 28) and Raimes, 2003 (refer to Appendix A) more suitable to describe the different elements of error types.

This research involves four main stages:

1. collection of materials
2. diagnostic stage
3. statistic stage
4. prognostic stage

Actually this breakdown of stages partially overlaps with the five steps offered by Corder (1974). He suggests five steps in EA research:

1. Collection of a sample of learner language
2. Identification of errors
3. Description of errors
4. Explanation of errors
5. Evaluation of errors

It is important to mention here that my research work has excluded the final stage due to the reason that it is beyond the aim of this work.

Now I will briefly outline each stage included in the procedure of the study.

1. Collection of Material

In the first stage of the work I collected material for the study. I studied the final exam essays of fifty-eight L2 learners of intermediate level. The learners represented two different groups taught by two different teachers, the environment and conditions for both groups have been determined to be similar, i.e. the groups studied carried out their essay performance in the classroom environment by completing the essays under the same topics.

2. Diagnostic Stage

As it is mentioned by Corder (1967), the diagnostic stage tells us the learner's state of the language. The diagnostic stage of my research aims at revealing, identifying and describing the errors of the essays. Although I found a Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Errors (by Dulay, Burt and Krashen) suitable for identifying the error types, it failed to enable me to describe the internal elements of the error types. Accordingly, the classification of error types by Dulay, Burt and Krashen is followed by the sub-classification provided by Richards, 1971 and Raimes, 2003 in the diagnostic stage of the study.

In fact, in the process of the study I also found that there is a lack of detailed information on the elements of each error type, i.e. the division of errors into omission, addition, misinformation and misordering is not informative enough for the teachers to identify what element has been omitted, added, misinformed or misordered. Accordingly I found the sub-classification of error types through taxonomies by both Richards, 1971 and Raimes, 2003 to be reasonable (refer to page 28 and Appendix A respectively). I believe that a sub-classification of this kind enables me to demonstrate what elements and what type of errors are the most frequent, and need more attention to be focused on.

This stage acquires great significance in the study since it identifies the error types, which might be the pivotal point for the prognostic stage. In order to identify the types of errors one should consider two main factors, those of language and learner, provided by Ellis (2001:49).

Table 3.2

Factors to be considered when collecting samples of learner language (Ellis, 2001: 49)

Factors	Description
A Language	
Medium	Learner production can be oral or written
Genre	Learner production may take the form of conversation, a lecture, an essay, a letter, etc.
Content	The topic the learner is communicating about
B Learner	
Level	Elementary, intermediate, or advanced
Mother tongue	The learner's L1
Language learning experience	This may be classroom or naturalistic or a mixture of the two

In fact the language factor in error analysis is of great importance since it might vary depending on the functional styles of language which could be classified as formality of occasion, the medium used and the genre (Aitchison, 1992).

Here I faced two problems: The first problem is caused by the lack of clear-cut definition of an error. The definition of an error as a deviation from the norms of the target language does not specify what parameters of language should be taken as norms. Due to the reason that the parameters of language norms may vary according to the type of functional styles (registers), and accordingly to varieties of language, their identification should be of primary concern in EA. Actually the standard of the English language, like that of any developed language, is not so homogeneous as it may seem. The peculiar choice of language means is primarily predetermined by the aim of the communication. One set of language media stands in opposition to other sets of language media with other aims, and these other sets have other choices and arrangements of language means. In English standard we distinguish five major registers like:

1. The language of belles-lettres
2. The language of publicistic style
3. The language of newspaper
4. The language of scientific prose
5. The language of official documents

This research studies the materials of essays as one subdivision of the language of prose. Accordingly the essays should follow the norms of the prose.

The actual situation of the communication has evolved two varieties of language – the spoken and the written. The situation in which the spoken variety of language is used, and in which it develops, can be described concisely as the presence of an interlocutor. The written variety, on the contrary, presupposes the absence of an interlocutor. The spoken language has a considerable advantage over written (like gestures, intonation etc). The written language has to seek means to compensate for what it lacks. Therefore the written language requires more careful organization and deliberate choice of words and constructions.

The second problem in the way of EA resulted from the vague distinction between an error and mistake in practice. Notwithstanding the fact that a scientific

explanation of differences between an error and mistake has found its clear cut boundaries, it is still too vague in application, i.e. it is not always feasible to identify whether a deviation of norms of the target language happens due to the lack of knowledge of the correct rule, as in error, or due to the reason that a learner fails to perform their competence, as in mistake. This distinction between error and mistake is particularly problematic in the written variety as the learner is not available to provide an authoritative interpretation.

3. Statistic stage

The calculation of the categories of error types by percentages is based on the descriptive statistics. In fact, I calculated the percentage of categories and sub-categories of errors to show the frequency of occurrence of different elements in each error type.

4. Prognostic stage

Some researchers limit their research work by just simply describing the errors or mistakes. However, some find it significant to carry on with explaining their sources. I prefer advocating the latter method of investigation, viz. to explain the reasons of the existence of errors. I made an attempt to verify the reasons of the errors on the scientific basis. However, in cases when I failed to realize it, I relied on my colleagues and my personal empirical knowledge.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The assessment of fifty-eight essays written by intermediate level L2 learners has revealed the prevalence of one type of error among the others. The following figure illustrates the obvious discrepancy among the error types.

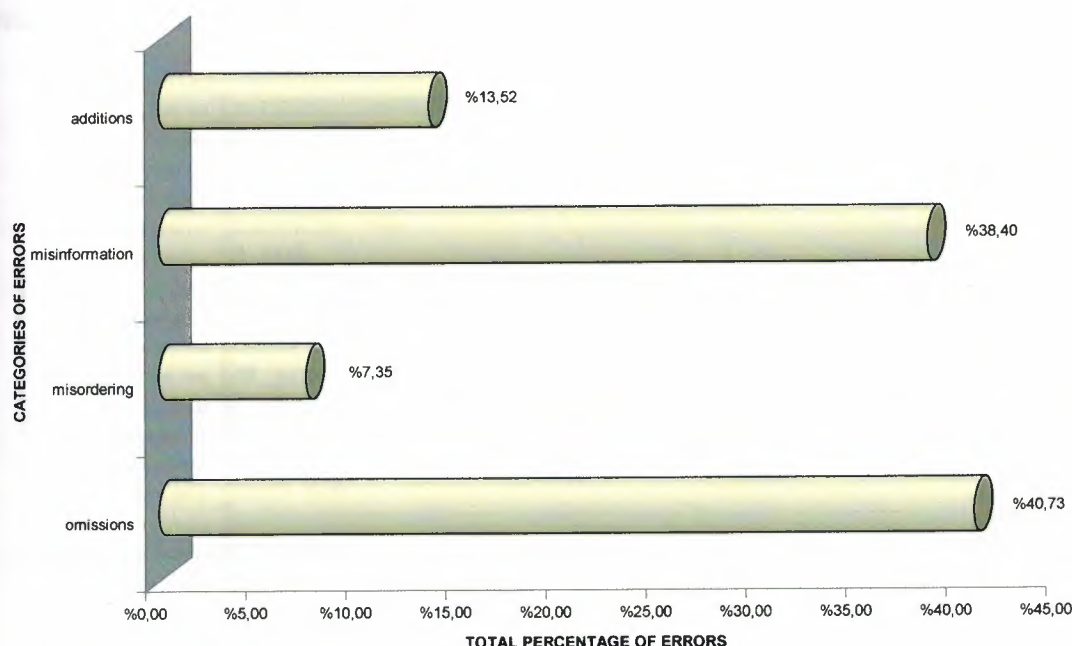


Fig. 4.1 Classification of Errors

According to the obtained results the omission errors and misinformation errors constitute the majority of all four errors i.e. 40.73% and 38.40% respectively, with omission errors being the strongest overall. Whereas misordering errors and addition errors constitute the minority of all four errors i.e. 7.35% and 13.52% respectively, with misordering errors being the weakest overall.

Although a Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Errors proposed by Dulay, Burt and Krashen is suitable for identifying the error types, (as Fig. 4.1 indicates), it fails to enable me to describe the internal elements that the error types consist of. I found that description of different elements of error types could be more objective and plausible if

it is based on the sub-categorization offered by both Richards (1971), presented on page 28, and Raimes (2003), provided in Appendix A.

4.1 Omission Errors

Language learners omit some linguistic forms because of their complexity. Figure 4.2 clearly indicates the differences between the various sub-categories of omission errors.

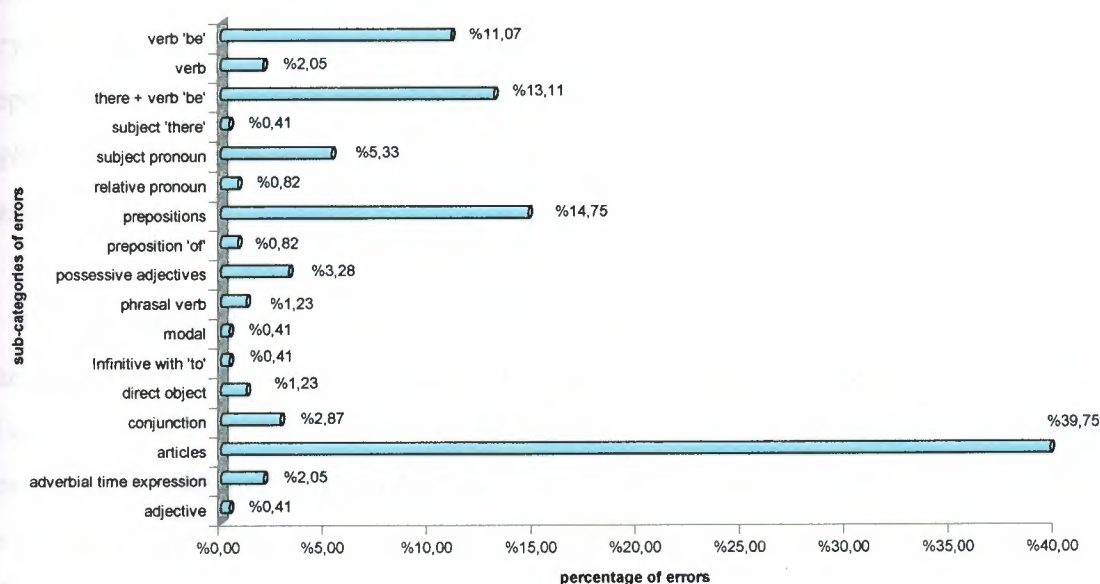


Fig. 4.2. Sub-categorization of Omission Errors

Firstly, we need to analyze the different sub-categories of omission errors.

It can be observed that 39.75% of omission errors are based on articles. There is no definite article in Turkish; the number “one” may be used as an indefinite article. At this point we may be able to say, that since the systems of the target language English and the source language Turkish are not the same, errors coming from Turkish may not exhibit the exact translation of Turkish. In Turkish, the indefinite article “a” or “an” is expressed by the word “bir”. Unlike English, “bir” is not necessarily used before a noun and this could possibly account for the omissions. For example, omission of the article in *In ∅ organized room* (*Düzenli bir oda içinde*) may seem to be clearly due to a difference in the grammatical systems of Turkish and English.

The next most observable errors are those related to prepositions, which consist of 14.75%. Prepositions pose a great difficulty for Turkish ESL learners since there are no separate words for prepositions (such as to, at, in, on, from) in Turkish. They are represented by suffixes which are attached to nouns or pronouns. In English, there are different prepositions that have very similar uses (*in the morning*, *on Monday morning*, *at night*). In Turkish, there may or may not be suffixes that represent the preposition (sabah, sabah**leyin**, Pazartesi sabah). Prepositions have been called the biggest little words in English. They are usually quite short and insignificant looking, but they have very important functions. It may be in instances where the learner is unsure of which preposition to use that they may choose to omit this particular element. For example, *∅ Right side of the table, there was a dressing table* (Masanın sağ tarafında bir makyaj masası vardı).

The omission of the introductory subject *there* is the third most observable omission error that needs to be addressed, constituting 13.11% of omission errors. It is followed by the verb 'be' and a noun group to introduce the idea of the existence or presence of something. In Turkish, "var + dır" is used to show existence in which case the systems of the target language English and the source language Turkish can be said to be the same. Yet in the example, *In the drawer, socks* (Çoraplar çekmecedeydi), the introductory "subject + be" is omitted. This could possibly be due to lack of knowledge of the target language or even carelessness. During my teaching of composition, I have noticed that in the student's course book the space order outline shows this abbreviated form, and the learner has incorrectly transferred this to his writing. This error could possibly be related to misunderstanding.

The linking verb 'be', representing 11.07% of omission errors, tends to be omitted as in the example *My bedroom ∅ very tidy* (Yatak odam çok tertiplidir). In Turkish, the verb "to be" is represented by suffixes. They are attached to non-action words and form non-action verbs in a sentence. This omission could possibly be due to the use of a native-language pattern leading to the inappropriate form in the target language.

The fourth most noticeable omission error is that of the subject pronoun, comprising 5.33%. Since the suffix-verb specifies the person of the verb in Turkish, it is not necessary to use the personal pronouns except for emphasis and learners could be carrying this knowledge over to their use of English.

Possessive adjectives represent 3.28% of omission errors. In Turkish, except for emphasis, it is unnecessary to use the possessive adjective since they are represented by the possessive suffix. Therefore an error such as ... *by beating* \emptyset *rivals* seems clearly due to the system of Turkish.

Due to the reason that nearly all the English conjunctions have their equivalents in the Turkish language, conjunctions represent only a minor percentage of all omission errors, that being 2.87%.

The adverbial time expression 'for' is represented by "-den beri" in Turkish and it may be the fact that the system is the same in Turkish and English that accounts for there being minimal errors of 2.05%.

Surprisingly, main action verbs were omitted and these error omissions constitute 2.05%. I can only assume this to be lack of concentration or the like.

Omission of the direct object constitutes a mere 1.23%, but this is very minor and possibly due to carelessness.

Although the system of English and Turkish are different, omission errors relating to phrasal verbs do not appear problematic for learners and represent 1.23%.

The preposition 'of' to show possession has been omitted in 0.82% of instances. Although this concept exists in Turkish, it is represented by adding a suffix to the noun.

Turkish has no relative pronoun and this could relate to the minor omission error of 0.82%.

0.41% of errors relate to omission of the adjective. There is no plausible explanation due to the system of English being the same as Turkish.

Omission of the particle 'to' with the infinite form of the verb constitutes 0.41% of omission errors. In Turkish, the infinitive suffixes are either “-mek” or “-mak” and again are added to the verb stem to form the infinitive of the verb.

0.41% represents omission of a modal verb. This error might appear to be lack of knowledge on behalf of the learner.

The final error made up of 0.41% is related to the omission of the subject 'there'. This concept appears in Turkish and for this reason there is possibly a minor error.

4.2 Addition Errors

It is obvious that there are differences in phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis in all languages and learners sometimes add unnecessary and incorrect elements to their sentences. We can illustrate the various sub-categories for addition errors in the following figure:

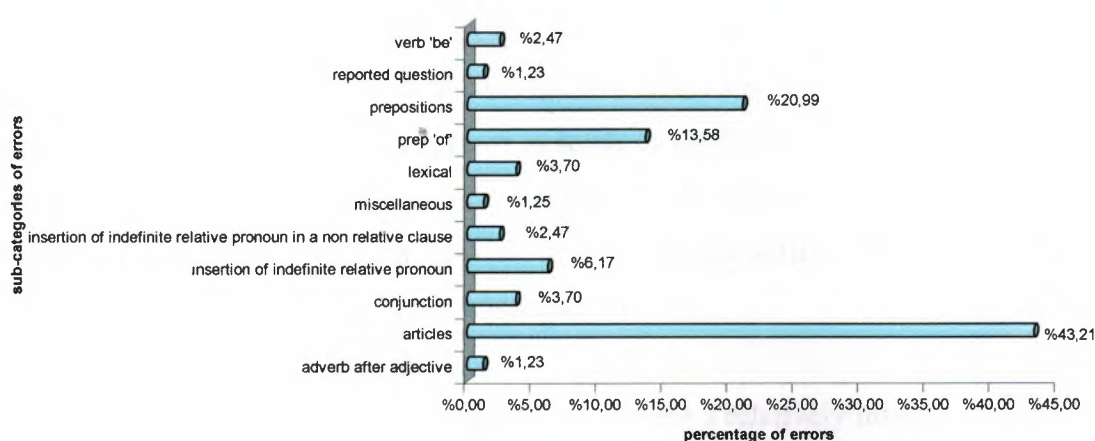


Fig. 4.3. Sub-categorization of Addition Errors

A conspicuous prevalence of errors in articles and prepositions of omission errors can be observed in addition errors represented by Figure 4.3.

As it is above illustrated 43.21% of addition errors are those of articles. The learners tend to add the indefinite article 'a' and on closer inspection this appears to be a vowel insertion between two consonant sounds. For example, *My house is a nice* (*Evim güzeldir*). This could be linked to the fact that in Turkish there are no instances of consonant clusters except in borrowed words.

The addition of particular prepositions, constituting 20.99% of addition errors, could be due to the effect of the native-language on the learning of the target language. For instance, *I started to primary school* (*İlkokula başladım*). As a result, when students are not sure, they often compare that sentence with its Turkish equivalent, giving a literal translation of that Turkish preposition in English.

In Turkish, there is only one form to denote possession and the form is the "of phrase". On the other hand, in English, there are two forms to denote possession either by adding an apostrophe and an *s* or by using the "of phrase". I would say that the overuse of the "of phrase" is therefore likely to be related to the system of Turkish and accounts for 13.58% of errors.

Addition errors within relative clauses total 6.17%. In all instances the indefinite pronoun "it" was added at the end of each relative clause containing a transitive phrasal verb. On closer examination, this appears to relate to the Turkish form. For example, in the statement, *Üzerinde çalışmak için kullandığım bir masa vardır* the preposition within the independent clause, in this case *üzeri*, takes the suffix "de" which translates as "it". Therefore, we have the literal translation *on it*.

Conjunctions, as in the omission case, represent a relatively minor percentage of all addition errors, that being 3.70%. In English, when describing somebody or something, we use a certain adjective order before the noun. These adjectives are separated by commas and not conjunctions. For example, *There was a nice yellow and, small carpet* would be realized in English as *There was a nice small yellow carpet*.

We also have what appears to be a 'literal translation' from L1 to L2 in use of lexis. These errors constitute 3.70% of addition errors. For example, *I like blue and yellow colour*. In English, we would omit the word *colour*. The other example, *It has got big stereo music* is possibly due to the Turkish influence of 'music system'. In English, we refer to it as a 'stereo system'.

The insertion of the indefinite relative pronouns in clauses other than relatives clauses constitutes 2.47% of addition errors. As there are no relative pronouns in Turkish, I can only suggest it to be a lack of knowledge of the usage of the relative pronoun.

The verb "be" accounts for 2.47% of the addition errors. The case that the learner inserts the auxiliary "be" unnecessarily can be explained by the assumption that the function of the auxiliary 'be' in English can be carried out by the present simple and the present continuous tense in the Turkish language.

Errors representing 1.23% of addition errors were by placing the adverbial *very much* after an adjective. In this instance, I am sure the learner has simply tried to overemphasize a feeling and used this element in the wrong structure.

Addition errors in the use of reported speech are also very minor at 1.23%. In English, we do not use *that* when reporting requests, advice or orders. This error would therefore appear to be a case of incomplete learning of a rule.

4.3 Misinformation Errors

Learners produce erroneous sentences because of incorrect selection of syntactic, phonologic and lexical items which are viewed as misinformation errors. Wrong selection causes incorrect sentences and comprehension problems. There are a large number of error elements that have been identified within the category for misinformation errors and for this reason we will illustrate the sub-categories for

misinformation errors in two different figures. The following figure represents the most significant error elements for misinformation errors:

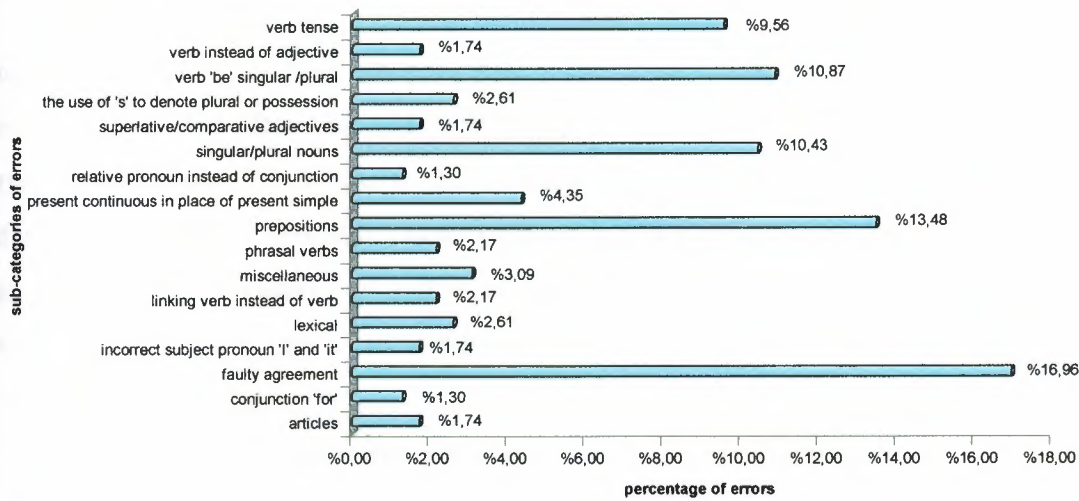


Fig. 4.4. Sub-categorization of Misinformation Errors (1)

As Figure 4.4 illustrates, errors in the distribution of verb groups, i.e. faulty agreement, represent 16.96% of the total. Here we are dealing with errors such as *I was exciting* or *I exctd*. Due to the system of English and Turkish being different, I feel the learner has not yet fully learnt the various grammatical structures.

In misinformation, as in other sub-categorization, prepositions prevail over other error elements, viz. they represent 13.48% of errors. In fact, prepositions seldom have a one to one correspondence between English and Turkish. An English preposition may be translated by several Turkish prepositions (*içinde*, *pencerede*, *üstünde*, *üzerinde*, *önünde*, *altında*, *yanında*, *arkasında* being equivalent to *in*, *at*, *on*, *above*, *in front of*, *under*, *next to*, *behind* respectively).

The third most significant error consisting of 10.87% is that of the misuse of the verb 'be' before singular/plural nouns. For example, *There is two red carpets*, *My bedroom are clean and big* and *There were a table and a chair*. There is no verb and noun agreement in the Turkish sentences with numerals. For example, *Odada beş*

öğrenci vardır. Although the noun is in plural, the verb “dır” (be) is in singular but not in plural “dırlar”.

There are differences between Turkish and English in terms of singularity and plurality, and errors in their use constitute 10.43% of misinformation errors. Turkish uses singular nouns after numerals and therefore errors such as *two person* or *3 CD player* would appear to be due to the differences between the two systems. In other instances, there are uncountable nouns in English that can be pluralized in Turkish, for example, *furniture*, *underwear* and *equipment*. Accordingly, we can suggest all the errors within this sub-category to be related to previously acquired L1 knowledge.

The next misinformation error that needs to be addressed here is in the production of verb groups whereby the learner chooses the wrong verb tense, for example, *Before that day he call me*. Errors of this kind represent 9.56% and again are quite significant. Here I feel that the errors arise due to the complexity of the English language tense structure.

Errors in the use of the present continuous tense referring to habitual actions represent 4.35% of misinformation errors. Bayramoğlu (1987) states: In Turkish, the use of the present continuous tense, especially in present-day colloquial Turkish, also conveys the sense of habitual or repeated action that is also conveyed by the present habitual tense in Turkish and in American English. The example she gives is *Her gün okuyorum* instead of *Her gün okurum*. In our essays, we have examples such as *I am listening to music every night* or *every night cleaning my bedroom*. In these instances, we can say that the errors are possibly due to the system of Turkish.

Lexical errors of 2.61% would appear to be due to incomplete learning. For example, *When you first get in the room* or *These things were daily usages*.

2.61% of errors is in the confusion of the possessive ‘s’ and the plural ‘s’, for example, *Her families and friend’s photographs are on this table* and *...and continued till my 30 metre’s shot*. Again, due to the fact the language systems are different in

Turkish and English, I would suggest this to be incomplete learning of the different forms.

Confusion between the linking verb 'be' and the verb 'have' constitutes 2.17% of misinformation errors despite the fact in Turkish these forms are represented by 'olmak' and 'var' respectively.

Errors in the use of phrasal verbs represent 2.17% of errors. There is no equivalent form in Turkish.

Errors in the use of articles represent 1.74% of misinformation errors. As stated previously, in Turkish there are no definite articles, and therefore they prove difficult for the Turkish learner.

The choice of the incorrect subject pronoun 'it' instead of 'I' or vice versa, constituting 1.74% of errors, would seem to be due to lack of concentration and carelessness.

Misinformation errors relating to comparative and superlative adjectives consist of 1.74%. There are equivalent forms in Turkish that may account for the minor errors.

In 1.74% of cases, the verb has been used in place of the adjective. By translating *Evim rahatdır* there is a clear pattern of a literal translation on behalf of the learner, whereby the wrong form is chosen in the example error *My house is relax*. In Turkish, there is a distinction between the verb 'rahatlamak' and the adjective 'rahat' in which case we can only assume incomplete knowledge.

Errors in the use of the conjunction 'for' constitute 1.30% of errors. Although 'for' can be used to talk about somebody's purpose in doing something, it is always followed by a noun. So in the example *I woke up early ... for joining the tour* we assume incomplete knowledge on the part of the learner. 'For ...ing' can also be used after a description of a positive or negative reaction. An example of this could be 'I'm angry with you for waking me up'. Therefore an error such as *He feared for loosing the*

elections could possibly be incomplete learning of a particular form together with the incorrect choice of lexis. Although the first example could be seen as a result of Turkish influence, *katılmak için*, it does not seem to be the case in the second, *kaybetmekten*.

Finally, in 1.30% of errors a relative pronoun has been used instead of a conjunction. There are different ways to express ideas in English, and here I feel the learner has possibly confused two different thoughts.

Although there are many different sub-categories, the majority of the elements of errors are quite insignificant. These insignificant elements of misinformation errors can be illustrated in the following figure:

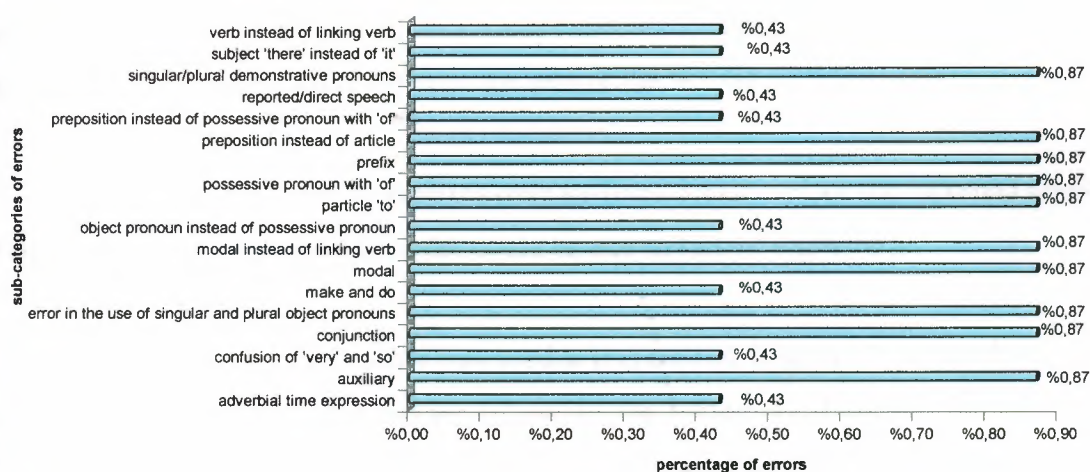


Fig. 4.5 Sub-categorization of Misinformation Errors (2)

Although there are eleven sub-categories, there are only two main percentages of 0.87% and 0.43%. I will begin by explaining the known facts regarding those of 0.87%.

The data on the incorrect choice of auxiliaries could be explained by the fact that the function of the periphrastic auxiliary in English is carried out by inflected forms in Turkish. As a supposition, Turkish learners of English find it difficult to transfer.

As with omission errors, conjunctions in this sub-category represent only a minor percentage of all misinformation errors due to the fact that one can find the equivalent for almost all English conjunctions in Turkish.

In Turkish, there are suffixes that convey plurality of object pronouns, and errors in this respect would therefore appear to be lack of knowledge.

Errors in the use of a modal are again in the minority, as are those errors related to the use of the *possessive* with *of*. In these instances, we could say the learner has incomplete knowledge.

The infinitive form has been used without the particle 'to'. Although reflected as suffixes on the main verb, the same concept appears in Turkish in which case we can only assume incomplete knowledge on the part of the learner.

In Turkish, there are no prefixes only suffixes, and therefore the incorrect choice of the prefix, in the example *unuseful*, could be due to lack of knowledge.

Errors whereby the learner has used a preposition instead of an article clearly seem to be the result of the learner following the pattern of Turkish. For example, *Opposite to door* and also *The walls were painted with light pink colour* are translated into Turkish as *Kapının karşısında* and *Duvarla açık pembe bir renkle boyandı*.

Finally in Turkish, plural nouns are preceded by singular demonstrative adjectives, whereas in English they are not. For example, ... *that sweet days* translated as ... *o tatlı günler*. We can therefore suggest all the errors within this sub-category to be related to previous acquired L1 knowledge.

4.4 Misordering Errors

Although there are a number of sub-categories consisting of 0.43% each, the elements of errors within them are quite insignificant and could therefore be explained as being incomplete knowledge on the part of the learner.

Violation of word order occurs due to the misordering of words in sentences. We can illustrate the various sub-categories for misinformation errors in the following figure:

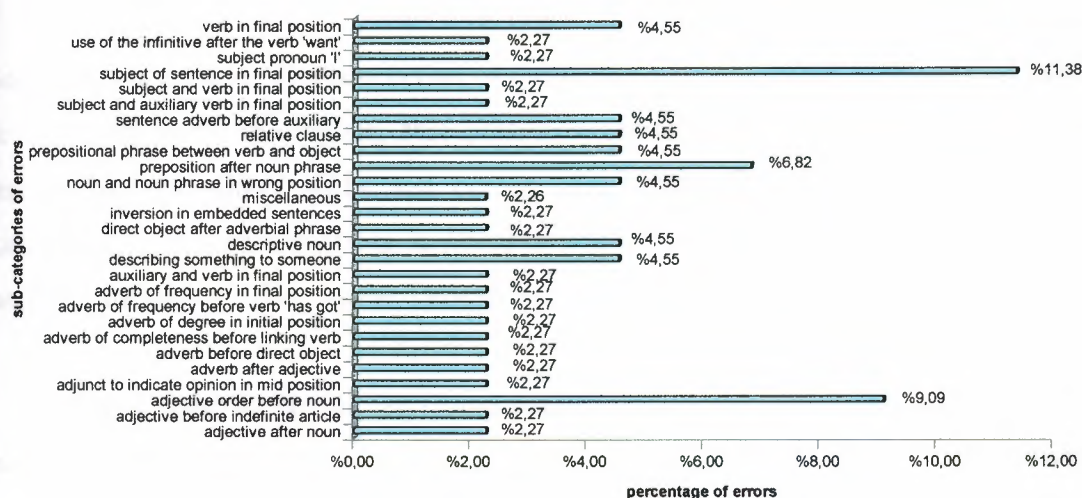


Fig. 4.6. Sub-categorization of Misordering Errors

And finally, as Figure 4.6 illustrates the error elements can be described as follows:

The subject has, in 11.38% of cases, been placed in final position. For example, *In my bedroom never open the door* is neither the case in English or Turkish, and we can therefore only suggest this to be lack of knowledge of the English system on the part of the learner.

9.09% of ordering errors were due to the adjective order before nouns. In English, when you use more than one adjective in a noun group, the usual order for the adjectives is: qualitative adjectives, followed by colour adjectives, followed by classifying adjectives whereas Turkish does not require such a rigid order of homogeneity. For example, ... *a little white wooden house*. Errors in this respect are possibly due to this discrepancy.

Another significant misordering error of 6.82% that needs to be addressed is that related to the position of the preposition within a prepositional phrase. In some instances, the preposition was placed in final position after the noun phrase. This may be related to the Turkish system. For example, ... *wall on the* is translated ... *duvarda*.

A number of sub-categories each constituting 4.55% of misordering errors now need to be pinpointed. The first is that of the sentence adverb 'also' being placed before the auxiliary verb. In English, this particular sentence adverb usually goes in mid position after auxiliary verbs and before other verbs. We can translate the given example *[I] also was wondering* as *[Ben] ayrıca merak da ediyordum*. This is possibly due to L1 influence, whereby the Turkish equivalent clearly shows the structure.

The second relates to describing something to someone. In English, when you describe something to somebody we say *I want to describe my bedroom to you*, whereas in Turkish it is said *Yatak odamı size tarif etmek isterim*. Looking at the word order of the Turkish equivalent, this could account for a Turkish learner writing *I want to describe you my bedroom*.

Another error constituting 4.55% is that of a descriptive noun. Misordering of the elements could be due to the word order of Turkish, as in the example *During like this tour*, the learner seems to have clearly followed the pattern of Turkish, *Böyle bir tur sırasında*.

The noun as the object of the sentence has been misplaced with the noun of a prepositional phrase. Again, these errors account for 4.55% of misordering errors. For example, *There is near computer table on the computer* seems clearly due to a lack of knowledge of English, and by looking at the Turkish equivalent, *Bilgisayar masasının üzerinde bilgisayar vardır*, there appears to be an influence from Turkish regarding the word order.

An error of 4.55% is of the prepositional phrase being placed between the verb and the object. For example, *There is in front of bed a radio*. An error of this kind could be due to the Turkish system, whereby this sentence would be realized as *Yatağın*

önünde bir radyo vardır. The learner may have incomplete knowledge of the English system. The learner, knowing that 'there is' is placed in initial position, they may fall back on previous knowledge if unsure of the remaining word order.

The next error of 4.55% is the use of 'which' as the subject of the verb in a relative clause being incorrectly placed after the verb. In the example *The bedroom was very organized which I stayed in it*, we see that the relative pronoun has been separated from the subject it defines. The system of Turkish corresponds to that of English, *Kaldığım yatak odası çok düzenli idi*, in which case we could say the learner has incomplete knowledge of the English system.

In 4.55% of cases, the verb has been placed in final position. There is a SOV word order in the syntactic structure of Turkish, whereas in English the verb follows the subject. I feel the learner has therefore carried his knowledge over to English. For example, *On the windows two beautiful, white and clean curtains hang.*

A number of misordering errors constituting 2.27% will now be discussed.

The first relates to the adjective being placed after the noun it modifies. For example, *It was today very bad.* This would appear to be a transfer of knowledge if we were to compare it with the Turkish equivalent *Bugün çok kötü idi.*

The next is whereby the indefinite article has been placed between the adjective and the noun. On closer inspection, this would appear to be influence from L1. We can compare the English interpretation of *There is big a balcony* with the Turkish equivalent *Büyük bir balkon vardır.*

Another relates to the adverb being placed before the direct object. In the example *I like very flowers*, we can see the similarity in the Turkish *çiçekleri çok severim.* In English, an adverb does not usually go between the verb and the direct object. We put it in end position, after the object.

In English, adverbs of completeness are placed after the linking verb, whereas in Turkish, it appears that the adverb is in initial position. For example, the sentence *Kesinlikle çok düzenli bir kişidir* has been translated as *He absolutely is a very organized person*, whereby the adverb has been placed after the subject. The learner, aware that the subject in English is never 'hidden', may have purposely put the subject in initial position directly followed by the adverb.

The incorrect positioning of the adverb of frequency before the verb 'has got' would appear to be due to the influence of Turkish. We can translate the example *She always has got a clean bedroom* as *Onun her zaman temiz bir yatak odası var*. It would appear in Turkish that the adverb is placed directly after the main subject.

A further error relates to the auxiliary and verb in final position. For example, *On the floor a new cleaned carpet was lying*. This is clearly the pattern in Turkish as can be seen in the equivalent sentence *Yeni temizlenmiş bir halı yerde yatıyordu*.

Looking at the example *I'll never forget the day that my first attendance of school team elections*, we can see that the direct object has been incorrectly placed after the adverbial phrase. By looking at the equivalent sentence in Turkish, *Okulumun ilk günündeki okul takımı seçimlerini hiç unutmayacağım*, the learner seems to have followed an L1 word order pattern.

In Turkish, the tense and the verb are represented by suffixes in final position. When we compare the Learner's sentence in English with that of the Turkish equivalent, we can see a certain pattern. For example, the Turkish statement *Belki o saat işte en mutlu kişi bendim* has been interpreted as *Maybe the happiest person at that time in the work I am*.

For the same reasons, the subject and verb have been placed in final position. By comparing the learner's statement of *But in the exam unfortunately I failed* with the Turkish equivalent *Ama maalisef sinavı geçemedim*, we can see a clear pattern.

The remaining errors consisting of 2.27% are in respect of the following: an adjunct to indicate your opinion, the use of the adverb 'so', adverbs of degree, adverb of frequency in final position, inversion in the use of questions in embedded sentences, subject pronoun 'I', and the use of the infinitive after the non-auxiliary verb 'want'. I feel these errors may be due to incomplete knowledge of the English system.

The obtained results allow us to conclude that major errors are made in the use of articles, prepositions, the verb 'be', the introductory subject 'there', singularity and plurality, the possessive pronoun used with 'of', and the formation of verb tenses which can be explained either due to L1 and L2 differences, lack of knowledge, lack of attention or even to time pressure.

After careful analysis of the errors within each sub-category, our study showed that 42.66% of errors could possibly be attributed to L1 and L2 differences. An itemized account is provided in Appendix F.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

After careful analysis of the learner 'errors', our study showed that 42.66% of errors could possibly be attributed to influence from L1, details of which are provided in Appendix F. We must bear in mind that when analysing learner 'errors', it is difficult, for example, to form a clear idea of what exactly is an error. It is also difficult to establish for certain what caused a learner to make a particular error – analysis is usually carried out in the absence of the learner in question and it is not always the case that the analyst is proficient in the learner's mother tongue. So it is not always easy to establish whether an error is attributable to interference or, for example, simple lack of concentration, classroom misunderstandings, pure accident, or even interference from another, third, language the learner has been in contact with. In this research, error analysis was carried out using a plausible interpretation whereby the learner was unavailable to state his intention.

5.1 Summary

This present study contributes to the study of error analysis by studying essay writing by Turkish learners of English, studying at the ELT and ELL Department at the Near East University.

The purpose of this study aimed at replicating studies in the field of error analysis to identify the types of errors in essay writing of L2 learners at intermediate level and their constituent elements and to evaluate the prevalence of one type of error over the others, in order to focus the attention of the English language teaching specialists on the learners' current problems. The error analysis could be viewed as an access to important information for objective assessment of L2 learning and teaching. Moreover it provides the means by which the teacher assesses learning and determines priorities for future effort.

The essays written by fifty-eight L2 learners at intermediate level were collected and assessed according to the classification of error types by Dulay, Burt and Krashen

(1982), shown on page 47. This was followed by the sub-classification of errors provided by Richards, 1971 and Raimes, 2003, shown on pages 28 and 79 respectively. Thereafter, the percentage of the categories and sub-categories of errors based on the descriptive statistics was calculated, to show the frequency of occurrence of different elements in each error type. Finally, an attempt was made to verify the reasons of the errors on the scientific basis.

From the results obtained, it would appear that omission errors and misinformation errors constitute the majority of all four errors, with omission errors being the strongest overall. On the other hand, misordering errors and addition errors constitute the minority of all four errors, with misordering errors being the weakest overall.

After having analyzed the different sub-categories within each category, it has materialized that articles, prepositions, the verb 'be', the introductory subject 'there', singularity and plurality, the possessive pronoun used with 'of' and the formation of verb tenses constitute the major errors made by Turkish learners of English.

5.2 Pedagogical Suggestions for Further Research

The results in this research shed light on the fact that Turkish learners of English at intermediate level might be facing two kinds of problems in essay writing: translation from Turkish, their mother tongue, and incomplete learning of grammatical rules and conventions. The data obtained clearly estimated all the major and minor errors made by Turkish learners of English.

Errors in the use of articles do by far constitute the major element of errors, as do prepositions, and are prevalent throughout. It is on these that I wish to make the following comments.

The correct use of the articles (*a/an* and *the*) is one of the most difficult points in English grammar. There is no definite article in Turkish; the indefinite article 'a' or 'an' is expressed by the word 'bir' although it is customary to omit 'bir' before a noun when

the noun is used as the predicate of a sentence. In English, it is customary to use the indefinite article. With this knowledge, it is therefore not unexpected to observe the majority of omission errors to be based on articles. What is unforeseen is the equally strong number of addition errors relating to articles. Although commenting on speech, research by Cook (1996:43) reveals that Egyptian-Arabic learners of English often add an epenthetic vowel /i/ to avoid two- or three-consonant clusters. The example he gives is that of 'children' /tʃildrən/ becoming 'childiren' /tʃildirən/ in their speech because the consonant cluster combination /dr/ is not allowed. A part of their language is being carried over into English. He says, "The clash between the syllable structures of the L1 and L2 is resolved by the temporary expedient of adding vowels, a true interlanguage solution. It is not just the sequence of phonemes in the sentence that matters but the abstract syllable structure that governs their combinations."

It is also difficult to use prepositions correctly in a foreign language. Most English prepositions have several different functions (for instance, one well-known dictionary lists eighteen main uses of *at*), and these may correspond to several different prepositions in another language. Although there are equivalent forms in Turkish, for example, in - *içinde*, on - *üstünde*, under - *altında*, prepositions pose a great difficulty for Turkish ESL learners since there are no separate words for prepositions in Turkish; they are represented by suffixes attached to nouns or pronouns. Also in English, there is no exact rule as to their use. Often the correct preposition cannot be guessed, and learners have to learn the expression as a whole. It is easy for the learner to understand the expressions, but not so easy for a learner to produce correctly (Swan, 1995). Therefore, possibly an investigation focusing on collocations in English of Turkish students may help the learner to discern the way in which words are used together regularly.

Having tried to verify the reasons of the errors on the scientific basis to the best of my ability, I can only suggest that teachers of English should be careful in teaching these individual elements and in certain instances should teach English through comparative grammar. In this respect, language teaching should be viewed from the perspective of the L1. Awareness and understanding of the potential difficulties that may arise with the transfer of forms and meanings from the native language are crucial

for teaching success in foreign language classrooms. It is as important to be aware of similarities when we are learning a language as it is to learn the differences.

For future research, an error analysis could be carried out whereby the learner is available to state his intention. An authoritative interlocutor could be applied in spoken classes to identify the problems due to either L1 transfer, lack of knowledge, or lack of concentration. In spoken language, the interlocutor enables us to correctly interpret the learners' intentions and to establish the cause of any errors. This might enable the researcher to identify the problems faced when studying written essays i.e. in the absence of the author.

This study is cross-sectional in design, in that it studies learners' errors at a single-point in time. Of greater interest for future research is a longitudinal study to provide a description of learners' L2 development. This would show language errors that either persist over a period of time, with little improvement, or reduce.

In addition, further research could be carried out to identify writing difficulties of students at a wider age group: especially elementary, secondary and advanced levels. Furthermore, errors could be examined according to gender, age and nationality.

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APPENDIX A

LANGUAGE GUIDE TO TRANSFER ERRORS

LANGUAGE FEATURES	LANGUAGE	SAMPLE TRANSFER ERROR IN ENGLISH
ARTICLES		
No Articles	Russian, Chinese, Japanese, Farsi, Urdu, Swahili	Sun is hot. I bought book. Computer has changed our lives.
No indefinite article with profession	Arabic, French, Haitian Creole, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese	He is student. She lawyer.
Definite article with days, months, places, idioms	Arabic	She is in the bed. He lives in the Peru.
Definite article used for generalization	German, Spanish, Greek, French, Portuguese	The photography is an art. The books are more expensive than the disks.
No article used for generalization	Haitian Creole	Bird can fly.
Definite article with proper noun	German, Spanish, Greek, French, Portuguese	The Professor Brackett teaches in Frankfurt.
No definite article	Hindi, Turkish	Store on corner is closed.
No indefinite article	Korean (uses <i>one</i> for <i>a</i> and depends on context)	He ran into one tree.
VERBS AND VERBALS		
<i>Be</i> can be omitted	Russian, Arabic, Haitian Creole, Chinese	India more than religious than Britain. She working now. He always cheerful.
No progressive forms	French, German, Russian, Greek	They still discuss the problem. When I walked in, she slept.
No tense inflections	Chinese, Thai, Vietnamese	He have a good time yesterday. When I was little, I always walk to school.
No inflection for person or number	Japanese, Chinese, Korean, Russian, Thai	The singer have big band.
Past perfect form with <i>be</i>	Arabic	They were arrived.
Different tense boundaries from English	Arabic, Farsi, Chinese, Haitian Creole, French	I study here for a year. He has left yesterday.
Different limits for passive	Japanese, Korean, Russian	They were stolen their luggage.
Voice	Thai, Vietnamese	My name based on Chinese characters. A miracle was happened.

No- <i>ing</i> (gerund)/infinitive distinction	Arabic, Chinese, Farsi, French, Spanish, Greek, Vietnamese, Portuguese	She avoids to go. I enjoy to play tennis.
Infinitive not used to express purpose	Korean	I go out for having my dinner.
Overuse of progressive nouns	Hindi, Urdu	I am wanting to leave now.
WORD ORDER AND SENTENCE STRUCTURE		
Verb precedes subject.	Hebrew, Russian, Spanish (optional), Tagalog, classical Arabic	Good grades received every student in the class.
Verb-subject order in dependent clause.	French, Haitian Creole	I knew what would decide the committee.
Verb last	Korean, Japanese, Turkish, German (in dependent clause), Bengali, Hindi	...(when) the teacher the money collected.
Coordination favored over subordination	Arabic	Frequent use of <i>and</i> and so
Relative clause or restrictive phrase precedes noun it modifies	Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Russian	The enrolled in community college student... A nine-meter high impressive monument to Lenin... He gave a too difficult for me book.
Adverb can occur between verb and object or before verb	French, Haitian Creole, Urdu (before verb)	I like very much clam chowder. They efficiently organized the work.
<i>That</i> clause rather than infinitive	Arabic, French, Haitian Creole, Spanish, Hindi, Russian	I want that you stay. I want that they try harder.
Inversion of subject and verb rare	Chinese	She is leaving and so am I.
Conjunctions occur in pairs	Chinese, Farsi, Vietnamese	Although, she is rich but she wears simple clothes. Even if I had money, I would also not buy that car.
Subject can be omitted (especially pronoun)	Chinese, Spanish, Thai, Japanese	Is raining.
Commas set off a dependent clause.	Russian, German	He knows, that we are right.
No equivalent of <i>there</i> <i>is/there are</i>	Russian, Korean, Japanese, Spanish, Portuguese, Thai (uses adverb of place and <i>have</i>)	This article says four reasons to eat bananas. In the garden has many trees.
NOUNS, PRONOUNS, ADJECTIVES, ADVERBS		
Personal pronouns restate subject	Arabic, Spanish, Gujarati	My father he lives in California.

No human/nonhuman distinction for relative pronoun (who/which)	Arabic, Farsi, French, Russian, Spanish, Thai	Here is the student which you met her last week. The people which arrived...
Pronoun object added at end of relative clause	Arabic, Farsi, Hebrew	The house that I used to live in it is big.
No distinction between subject and object forms of pronouns	Chinese, Spanish, Thai, Korean, Gujarti	I gave the forms to she.
Nouns and adjectives have same form	Chinese, Japanese	She is very beauty woman. They felt very safety on the train.
No distinction between <i>he/she, his/her</i>	Farsi, Thai, Bengali, Gujarti	My sister dropped his purse.
No plural form after a number	Farsi, Chinese, Korean	Four new lamp...
No plural (or optional) forms of nouns	Japanese, Thai, Chinese, Korean	Several good book...
No relative pronouns	Korean	The book is on the table is mine.
Adjectives show number	Spanish	I have helpfuls friends
Double negatives are routinely used	Spanish	They don't know nothing.
Pronoun subjects can be omitted.	Thai, Spanish	My boss complained when she saw the mess.

APPENDIX B

OMISSIONS

Group A Male

1. A_i In Ø organized room (cf. In *an* organized room)
Düzenli bir oda içinde
2. A_d In Ø 90th minute (cf. In *the* 90th minute)
Doksanıncı dakikada
3. A_d We were proud of Ø success (cf. We were proud of *the* success)
Başarıdan gururduyduk
4. PA By beating Ø rival (cf. By beating *our* rival)
Karşı takımını yenerek
5. A_d In Ø final we got the cup (cf. In *the* final we got the cup)
Finalde kupayı aldık
6. A_d Awarded by Ø football federation (cf. It was awarded by *the* football federation)
Futbol federasyonu tarafından verildi
7. V I still Ø that sweet days (cf. I still *remember/think of* those sweet days)
Hale o güzel günleri düşünüyorum
8. A_i I added Ø few more thinks (cf. I added *a* few more things)
Birkaç şey daha ekledim
9. SP_I V_{be} While Ø Ø Ø television Ø speaker announcing the results of Ø elections
A_d V (cf. While *I was watching* television *the* speaker announced the results of *the* elections)
10. A_i There was Ø well organized little bookshelf (cf. There was *a* little well organized bookshelf)
Çok düzenli küçük bir kitap rafı vardı
11. A_d Close to Ø wall (cf. close to *the* wall)
Duvara yakın
12. A_d There are three different parts of Ø bookshelf (cf. There are three different parts of *the* bookshelf)
... kitap rafının üç farklı bölümü vardı
13. Prep ... books ordered Ø the most biggest to the smaller (cf. ... books are

- arranged *from* the biggest to the smallest)
... kitaplar büyükten küçüğe doğru sıralandı
14. Rel Pr One part has philosophy books Ø are ordered in historical periods (cf. One part has philosophy books *and/which* are ordered in historical periods)
Bir bölümde tarihi döneme göre sıralanmış filosofy kitapları vardı
15. A_d Near Ø philosophy books (cf. Near *the* philosophy books)
Philosophy kitaplarının yanında
16. A_i ... two cassette player and Ø mini disc player /cf. ... two cassette players and *a* mini disc player)
... iki kaset çalar ve mini disk çalar
17. A_d ... exam for Ø sport academy (cf. ... exam for *the* sports academy)
... spor akademisi için sınav
18. V A_d I started Ø to Ø gym (cf. I started *going* to *the* gym)
Cyme başladım
19. A_d I started to play ... for Ø sport academy (cf. I started to play ... for *the* sports academy)
Spor akademisi için oynamaya başladım
20. A_d ... until Ø exam time (cf. ... until *the* time of the exam)
... sınav zamanına kadar
21. ATE I did exercise Ø nearly eight monts (cf. I did exercise *for* nearly eight months)
Hemen hemen sekiz ay eksersiz yaptım
22. A_d It was Ø most exciting experience (cf. It was *the* most exciting experience)
Çok heyecan verici bir tecrübeydi
23. A_i It is Ø very good ability to have (cf. It is *a* very good ability to have)
Çok iyi bir beceridir
24. A_d I had to practice with Ø team (cf. I had to practice with *the* team)
Takımla pratik yapmak zorundaydım
25. A_d On Ø left corner there was a bathroom (cf. In *the* left corner, there was a bathroom)
Sol köşede bir banyo vardı

Group B Male

1. A_d The computer is next to Ø telephone (cf. The computer is next to *the* telephone)
Bilgisayar telefonun yanındadır
2. V_{be} A_d The computer Ø near Ø bed (cf. The computer *is* near *the* bed)
Bilgisayar yatağa yakındır
3. A_d It was small but quite Ø pretty room Ø I've ever seen (cf. It was small, Rel Pr but quite *the* prettiest room *that* I've ever seen)
Gördüğüm en küçük ve tertibli odaydı
4. V_{be} My bedroom Ø very tidy (cf. My bedroom *is* very tidy)
Yatak odam çok tertipli
5. V_{be} My picture Ø on the wall (cf. My picture *is* on the wall)
Resmin duvarda
6. Prep I am listening to music every night Ø Ø room (cf. I listen to music every PA night *in my* room)
Yatak odamda her akşam müzik dinlerim
7. V_{be} My radio Ø very expensive (cf. My radio *was* very expensive)
Benim radyom çok pahalıdır
8. Prep I like sleeping Ø my bedroom (cf. I like sleeping *in my* bedroom)
Yatak odamda yatmayı çok seviyorum
9. V_{be} I am very good time and Ø very happy in my room (cf. I have a good time and *am* very happy in my room)
Yatak odamda çok güzel vakit geçiririm ve çok mutluyum
10. A_d The neaty of Ø room ... (cf. The neatness/tidyness of *the* room ...)
Odanın temizliği
11. A_d At the left side of Ø room (cf. On the left side of *the* room)
Odanın sol tarafında
12. V_{be} A clean rug Ø on the floor (cf. A clean rug *is* on the floor)
Yerde temiz bir halı var
13. A_i ... such as Ø ball, football shoes (cf. ... such as *a* ball, football shoes)
... yani top, futbol ayakkabısı
14. SP_{It} I know that Ø Ø my birthday date (cf. I knew that *it was* my birthday)

- V_{be} Benim doğum tarihi olduğu için biliyordum
15. Prep My best friends and girl friend came Ø our home (cf. My best friends and girlfriend came *to* our home)
Benim en iyi arkadaşlarım ve kız arkadaşım evemize geldi
16. Prep ... and also was wondering Ø my birthday presents especially of mine girlfriend (cf. ... and [I] was also wondering *about* my birthday presents, especially from my girlfriend)
... ve özellikle kız arkadaşımından gelen doğum hediyesinin ne olacağını merak ediyordum
17. Prep everything was Ø a straight line (cf. Everything was *in* a straight line)
herşey bir düz çizgi şeklindeydi
18. Th+V_{be} Beside them Ø Ø a lot of pens and pencils in their box (cf. Beside them, *there were* a lot of pens and pencils in their box)
Bunların yanı sıra, bir çok kalem ve tükenmez kalem kutuların içindeydi
19. A_d ... a gardrop was organized in Ø row (cf. ... a wardrobe was organized in *a* row)
... dolap bir sıra gibi organize edildi
20. O_d ... there was a rubbish Ø (cf. ... there was a rubbish *bin*)
... bir çöp bidonu vardı
21. V_{be} Her name Ø Bakiye (cf. Her name *is* Bakiye)
İsmi Bakiyedir
22. O_d She put Ø in the wasing macine (cf. She put *them* in the washing machine)
Onları çamaşır makinesine koydu
23. A_d She is going to tidy Ø work table (cf. She is going to tidy *the* desk)
Çalışma masasını tertipliyecek
24. Prep My bedroom has got Ercondetion and Ø Ø winter Ø was hot, Ø Ø
A_d Conj Øsummer Ø was cold (cf. My bedroom has got air conditioning and *in the winter it is hot, and in the summer it is cold*)
SP_{It} Odamda air condition var, kışın sıcak yazın serin olur
25. A_i My bedroom has got Ø big shelf (cf. My bedroom has got *a* big shelf)
Yatak odamda bir büyük raf var
26. A_i My bedroom has got Ø very big balcony (cf. My bedroom has got *a* very

- big balcony)
Yatak odamın büyük bir balkonu var
27. SP_{It} I love my bedroom. Because Ø Ø very good and comfortable (cf. I love
V_{be} my bedroom, because *it is* very nice and comfortable)
Yatak odamı seviyorum, çünkü çok güzel ve rahattır
28. V_{be} One day I Ø late (cf. One day I *was* late)
Bir gün geç kaldım
29. A_i I saw Ø crash (cf. I saw *a* car crash)
Bir araba kazası gördüm
30. A_d A_i ... Ø Jeep did Ø spin in Ø street (cf. ...*the* jeep did *a* spin in *the* street)
... Jeep caddede kaydı ve döndü
31. ATE I didn't talk Ø one hour (cf. I didn't talk *for* one hour)
Bir saat hiç konuşmadım
32. A_d I had socked with Ø crashed (cf. I was shocked with *the* crash)
Kazadan dolayı şokdaydım
33. A_i My house has got Ø big garden, ... Ø practical the kitchen ... (cf. My
house has got *a* big garden, ... *a* practical kitchen ...)
Evimin büyük bir bahçesi var ... çok pratik bir mutfağı var
34. SP_I In my freetime Ø watched TV Ø my room and playing Ø Ø computer (cf.
Prep In my freetime *I* watch TV *in* my room and play *on the* computer)
A_d Boş vaktimde odamda TV izlerim ve computerle oynarım
35. A_i I am Ø very good time (cf. I have *a* very good time)
Çok güzel vakit geçiririm
36. Conj She get up early Ø after start cleaning her room (cf. She gets up early
and afterwards/then starts cleaning her room)
Sabah erken kalkar ve odasını tertipler
37. SP Then Ø taka a dustbin box (cf. Then *she* takes a rubbish bag)
Sonra çöp sepeti çıkarır
38. SP_I Every night Ø cleaning my bedroom (cf. Every night *I* clean my
bedroom)
Her akşam yatak odamı tertiplerim

1. Prep 'of' My house the outside is nice (The outside *of* my house)
Evimin dışı güzeldir
2. A_i It is Ø very beautiful and large garden (cf. It is *a* very beautiful and large garden)
Çok güzel ve büyük bir bahçedir
3. A_d along Ø inside of the fence Ø Ø flowers (cf. Along *the* inside of the Th+V_{be} fence, *there are* flowers)
içerde çit boyunca çiçekler var
4. A_i ... Ø small fountain (cf. *a* small fountain)
... küçük bir fiskiye
5. Th+V_{be} ... around the fountain Ø Ø trees (cf. ...around the fountain, *there are* trees)
... fiskiyenin etrafında ağaçlar var
6. Th+V_{be} ... on the side of the garage Ø Ø white vines (cf. ... on the side of the garage, *there are* white vines)
... garajın etrafında beyaz üzüm asması var
7. A_i ... it is surrounded by beautiful lawns and Ø garden (cf. ... it is surrounded by beautiful lawns and *a* garden)
... güzel çim ve bahçe ile çevrilidir
8. Ph V The floors are Ø Ø polished wood (cf. The floors are *made of* polished wood)
Yer cilalanmış tahta ile kaplıdır
9. V_{be} ... the garage Ø well organized and clean (cf. ... the garage *is* well organized and clean)
... garaj çok düzenli ve temiz
10. Prep Some children came Ø our home (cf. Some children came *to* our home)
Bazı çocuklar evimize geldi
11. Prep Many visitors came Ø our house (cf. Many visitors came *to* our house)
Evimize çok ziyaretçi gelir
12. A_i We moved to Ø new country (cf. We moved to *a* new country)
Yeni bir ülkeye taşındık
13. Prep ... and did not want to Ø Ø problems to talk (cf. ... and did not want to PA talk *about* my problems)

- ... problemlerimle ilgili konuşmak istemedim
14. A_d I had to learn Ø language (cf. I had to learn *the* language)
Dili öğrenmek gerekiyordu
15. ATE I had to stayed in the hospital Ø one week (cf. I had to stay in the hospital *for* one week)
Hastahanede bir hafta kalmam gerekti
16. A_d ... all of Ø time (cf. ... all of *the* time)
... bütün zaman boyunca
17. Prep I only talked Ø him on the phone (cf. I only talked *to* him on the phone)
Onunla sadece telefonda görüştük
18. ATE My mother stayed with me Ø a day (cf. My mother stayed with me *for* a day)
Annem benimle bir gün kaldı
19. ATE My best girlfriend stayed with me Ø two days (cf. My best girlfriend stayed with me *for* two days)
Benim en iyi kız arkadaşım iki gün benimle kaldı
20. A_d Ø Most important subject (cf. *The* most important thing)
En önemli şey
21. A_i I took participate in Ø rafting tour (cf. I took part in *a* rafting tour)
Rafting turuna katıldım
22. A_i I hadn't joined like that Ø tour before (cf. I hadn't joined *a* tour like that before)
Daha önce öyle bir tura katılmadım
23. A_i ... we all had Ø good time (cf. ... we all had *a* good time)
... hepimizi çok güzel vakit geçirdik
24. V_{be} ... when we Ø faced with big waves (cf. ... when we *were* faced with big waves)
... büyük dalgalarla karşılaştığımızda
25. Adj ... there was only Ø dangerous event (cf. ... there was only *one* dangerous event)
... sadece bir tehlikeli olay vardı
26. A_i ... during like this Ø tour, Ø person meet to new people (cf. ... during *a* tour like this, *a* person meets new people)

- ... böyle bir turda insan yeni arkadaşlarla tanışılar
27. A_i ... in Ø good position (cf. ... in *a* good position)
... iyi bir posisyonda
28. Prep Ø The left side of the room ... (cf. *On* the left side of the room ...)
Odanın sol tarafında
29. Prep Ø The right side of the room ... (cf. *On* the right side of the room ...)
Odanın sağ tarafında
30. V_{be} In my bedroom Ø never open the door (cf. In my bedroom the door *is* never open)
Yatak odamda kapı hiç bir zaman açılmaz
31. A_d I can see Ø whole Ø my body (cf. I can see *the* whole *of* my body)
Prep 'of' Vücüdümün tümünü görebilirim
32. Conj I have a beautiful lamp which is very smart and childish Ø Ø has bugs
SP_{It} bunny pictures neither (I have a beautiful lamp which is very smart and childish, *and it* has bugs bunny pictures too)
Üzerinde Bugs Bunny resimleri olan çok güzel çocuksu bir lambam var
33. Prep Ø Ø Next shelf there is my reading books (cf. *On the* next shelf there are
A_d my reading books)
Sol taraftaki rafta benim okuma kitaplarım var
34. A_d ... when I open Ø curtains ... (cf. ... when I open *the* curtains ...)
... perdeleri açtığımda
35. A_i There is Ø bookcase (cf. There is *a* bookcase)
Kitap dolabı var
36. Prep Ø My bedroom Ø is a phone on the big table (cf. *In* my bedroom, *there* is
Subj a phone on the big table)
Yatak odamda büyük masanın üzerinde bir telefon var
37. Prep I like it, because Ø Ø the free time ... (cf. I like it, because *in my* free time ...)
PA Seviyorum, çünkü boş vaktimde ...
38. V_{be} My dormitory room Ø on the second floor (cf. My dormitory room *is* on the second floor)
Benim odam koğusun ikinci katındadır

39. A_i ... you will see two large windows with Ø golden bedspread is under the windows (cf ... you will see two large windows with *a* golden bedspread under the windows)
... iki büyük pencere var ve bu pencerelerin altında altın renkli bir yatak örtüsü var
40. A_d ... and chair sit next to Ø bookcase (cf. ... and a chair next to *the* bookcase)
... kitap dolabının yanında bir sandalye var
41. A_i I am Ø well organized person (cf. I am *a* well organized person)
Ben çok düzenli biriyim
42. Prep Ø The outside of the gardroop there is a big mirror (cf. *On* the outside of the wardrobe, there is a big mirror)
Dolabın dışında büyük bir ayna var
43. A_i I had never seen such Ø organized and a neat bedroom before (cf. I had never seen such *an* organized and a neat bedroom before)
Daha önce hayatımda böyle düzenli temiz bir yatak odası görmedim
44. Conj It has a big mirror on the wall Ø that I can see whole my body (cf. It has a big mirror on the wall *so* that I can see the whole of my body)
Duvarda bütün vücudumu görebileceğim büyük bir ayna var

Group B Female

1. Mod In front of the window the view of the picture Ø Ø Ø (cf. A picture *could* V_{be} V *be seen* in front of the window)
Pencerenin önünde resmin görüntüsü var
2. Th+V_{be} In the corner Ø Ø Ø pillow, on the bed (cf. In the corner, *there was a* A_i pillow on the bed)
Köşedeki yatağın üzerinde bir yastık var
3. V_{be} The picture Ø on the wall (cf. The picture *was* on the wall)
Resim duvarın üzerindeydi
4. Th+V_{be} In front of the bed, Ø Ø Ø mirror (In front of the bed, *there was a* mirror) A_i Yatağın ön tarafında bir ayna var
5. Th+V_{be} Under the table, Ø Ø Ø chair and drawer (cf. Under the table, *there was* A_i a chair and a drawer)

Masanın altında bir çekmece ve bir sandalye var

6. Th+V_{be} In the book shelf Ø Ø Ø book and paper (cf. On the book shelf, *there was a book and paper*)
A_i

Kitap rafında bir kitap ve kağıt var

7. V_{be} On the floor, Ø the rug (cf. On the floor *was the rug*)
Yerde bir halı vardı

8. Th+V_{be} On the table, Ø Ø Ø lamp and books (cf. On the table, *there was a lamp and books*)
A_i

Masanın üzerinde bir lamba ve kitap var

9. Th+V_{be} On the bed, Ø Ø Ø baby (cf. On the bed, *there was a doll*)
A_i Yatağın üzerinde bir bebek var

10. V_{be} The radio Ø on the table (cf. The radio *was on the table*)
Radyo masanın üzerindedir

11. Th+V_{be} In the gardolap Ø Ø clothes (cf. In the wardrobe, *there were clothes*)
Elbiseler dolaptaydı

12. Th+V_{be} In the drawer, Ø Ø socks (cf. In the drawer, *there were socks*)
Çoraplar çekmecedeydi

13. Th+V_{be} ... in the radio, Ø Ø Ø cassette (cf. In the radio, *there was a cassette*)
A_i ... Radyo ve kaset çalarda bir kaset vardı

14. Prep Ø Ø Right side of the table, there was a dressing table (cf. *On the right side of the table, there was a dressing table*)
A_d

Masanın sağ tarafında bir makyaj masası vardı

15. A_i There was mirror with Ø stand (cf. There was a mirror with *a stand*)
Ayakları olan bir ayna vardı

16. A_i There was a small table for books and Ø light (cf. There was a small table for books and *a light*)

Kitaplar ve lamba için küçük bir masa vardı

17. A_i It has got Ø big stereo music in my room (cf. There is *a big stereo system in my room*)

Odamda büyük bir müzik sistemi var

18. PA I like Ø stereo (cf. I like *my stereo*)

Müzik sistemimi seviyorum

19. A_d ... from Ø window (cf. from/through *the window*)

- ... pencereden
20. A_d I see Ø mountains (cf. I see *the* mountains)
Dağları görüyorum
21. A_d When I look outside from Ø window ... (cf. When I look outside through *the* window ...)
Pencereden dışarı baktığımda ...
22. A_i The future is Ø very important thing for me (cf. The future is *a* very important thing for me)
Gelecek benim için çok önemlidir
23. A_d I like Ø computer (cf. I like *the* computer)
Bilgisayarlara severim
24. Prep He studied Ø "Ege Üniversitesi" (cf. He studied *at* Ege University)
Ege Üniversitesinde okudu
25. A_d We went to Ø beach to swim (cf. We went to *the* beach to swim)
Yüzmek için plaja gittik
26. A_i ... you take Ø one-day trip (cf. ... you take *a* one-day trip)
... bir günlük geziye çıkarsınız
27. A_d ... we went to Ø disco (cf. ... we went to *the* disco)
... diskoteğe gittik
28. Prep A_i We went Ø Ø ancient building (cf. We went *to an* ancient building)
Eski tarihi binalara gittik
29. A_i It was Ø really romantic night (cf. It was *a* really romantic night)
Gerçekten çok romantik bir geceydi
30. Ph V Her songs were very good to dance Ø (cf. Her songs were very good to dance *to*)
Şarkıları dans etmek için çok güzeldi
31. A_d We went to Ayvalık to eat Ø popular "Ayvalık Tost" (cf. We went to Ayvalık to eat *the* popular "Ayvalık Toast")
Ayvalığın mesur tostunu yemek için Ayvalığa gittik
32. Prep The bed is Ø front of the window (cf. The bed is *in* front of the window)
Yatak pencerenin önündedir
33. V_{be} The bookshelf Ø next to the wardrobe (cf. The bookshelf *is* next to the wardrobe)

Kitap dolabı elbise dolabının yanındadır

34. V_{be} Prep The door Ø Ø corner at the left (cf. The door *is in the* corner on the left)
A_d

Kapı solda köşededir

35. Prep A_d ... is Ø Ø corner of the left (cf. ... is *in the* corner on the left)

Kapı solda köşededir

36. Prep A_d It's Ø Ø corner of the right (cf. It's *in the* corner on the right)

Sağda köşededir

37. A_d Next to Ø bed (cf. Next to *the* bed)

Yatağa yakın

38. Prep The books inside the library were Ø order (cf. The books in the bookcase were *in* order)

Kitap dolabındaki kitaplar düzenliydiler

39. Prep Everything in my room is Ø its place (cf. Everything in my room is *in* its place)

Odamdaki herşey yerli yerindedir

40. Th+V_{be} Inside my bedroom Ø Ø two and small portable radio (cf. In my bedroom, *there are* two small portable radios)

Yatak odamda iki küçük radyo var

41. A_d Ø Computer is small (cf. *The* computer is small)

Bilgisayar küçüktür

42. Th+V_{be} Ø Ø Pictures on the wall (cf. *There are* pictures on the wall)

Duvarı resimler var

43. Prep I am very happy Ø my room (cf. I am very happy *with* my room)

Ben odamdan çok memnunum

44. P A I like Ø bedroom (cf. I like *my* bedroom)

Yatak odamı seviyorum

45. Prep There is a cupboard next Ø the bed (cf. There is a cupboard next *to* the bed)

Yatağın yanında bir dolap var

46. SP_I V Every night Ø Ø my lessons hard (cf. Every night, *I study* hard)

Her akşam ağır çalışırım

47. SP_{It} V_{be} I like my bedroom, because Ø Ø very comfortable (cf. I like my

- bedroom, because *it is* very comfortable)
Yatak odamı seviyorum çünkü çok rahattır
48. Prep A_d I look Ø Ø window outside (cf. I look outside *through the* window)
Pencereden dışarı bakarım
49. P A I go to Ø bedroom (cf. I go to *my* bedroom)
Yatak odama giderim
50. Prep A_i Ø My bedroom is Ø TV and Ø telephone (cf. *In* my bedroom is *a* TV and *a* telephone)
Yatak odamda bir televizyon, birde telefon var
51. SP_{It} V_{be} My bedroom is very beautiful because Ø Ø very big (cf. My bedroom is very beautiful, because *it is* very big)
Yatak odamda çok güzel çünkü büyüktür
52. A_d V_{be} Ø Cupboard Ø opposite of the window (cf. *The* cupboard *is* opposite the window)
Dolap pencerenin karşısındadır
53. V_{be} The chair Ø in front of the desk (cf. The chair *is* in front of the desk)
Masanın önünde bir sandalye var
54. Conj There's a bed, mirror, Ø armchairs in my bed (cf. There's a bed, mirror, *and* armchairs in my bedroom)
Yatak odamda bir yatak, bir ayna ve koltuklar var
55. SP_I Ø Always study on my desk (cf. *I* always study at my desk)
Ben her zaman masamda çalışırım
56. SP_I V_{be} ... because sometimes Ø Ø very messy (cf. ... because sometimes *it is* very messy)
... çünkü bazen çok dağınıktır
57. Prep Next Ø my bedroom Ø Ø two chairs (cf. Next, *in* my bedroom, *there* are two chairs)
Th+V_{be} Yatak odamda iki sandalye var
58. Inf to I learnt Ø play the guitar Ø my father (cf. I learnt *to* play the guitar *by* my father)
Prep Babam bana gitar çalmasını öğretti
59. A_d You can using Ø computer there (cf. You can use *the* computer there)
Orda bilgisayarı kullanabilin

60. V_{be} The bedroom windows Ø very good (cf. The bedroom windows *are* very good)
Yatak odanın pencereleri güzeldir
61. A_d You can see Ø mountains (cf. You can see *the* mountains)
Dağları görebilin
62. A_d I like my balcony in Ø summer (cf. I like my balcony in *the* summer)
Yazın balkonumu seviyorum
63. Conj Prep I like big pillows which is Mickey Mouse or Tweety Ø something
O_d like that Ø Ø (cf. I like big pillows which have Mickey Mouse or Tweety, *or* something like that *on them*)
64. Conj PA Ø I'm tired I go to Ø bedroom (cf. *When* I'm tired, I go to *my* bedroom)

APPENDIX C

ADDITIONS

Group A Male

1. Conj There was a nice yellow *and*, small carpet (cf. There was a nice small yellow carpet)
Sarı küçük bir halı vardı.
2. PP'o' Opposite *of* the gardolap (cf. Opposite the wardrobe)
Dolabın karşısı.
3. A_i ... and *a* shampoo (cf. ... and shampoo)
... ve şampuan.
4. PP'o' I am happy to live inside *of* my room (cf. I am happy to stay in my room)
Odamda kalmaktan mutluyum
5. A_i ... with *a* pleasure (cf. ... with pleasure)
... zevkle (seve, seve)
6. PP'o' I was doing all *of* kinds of gym (cf. I was doing all kinds of gymnastics)
Her çeşit jimnastiği yapıyordum.
7. Misc *Nearly it takes* two or three months later (cf. two or three months later)
İki veya üç ay sonra.
8. Ins RP_i I did all of them *that* joking, running, gym ... (cf. I did all of them: jogging, running, gymnastics)
Yürüme, koşma, jimnastik; hepsini yaptım.
9. A_i I was in *a* shock (cf. I was in shock)
Şok olmuşum.
10. Prep I had to practice ... twice *in* a day (cf. I had to practice ... twice a day)
Günde iki kere deneme yapmalıyım.
11. A_i I have *a* very good skills (cf. I am very skilled)
Çok yetenekliyimdir.

Group B Male

1. PP'o' Inside *of* the vase (cf. Inside the vase)
Vazonun içinde

2. A_i We should organize all of our rooms in *an* order (cf. We should keep our rooms tidy)
Tüm odalarımızı bir düzene koymalıyız.
3. A_i Everything in the room is in *an* order (cf. Everything in the room is in order)
Odadaki herşey düzenlidir (yerli yerindedir).
4. Prep In addition *to*, ... (cf. In addition, ...)
Bunun yanısıra, ...
5. A_i ... everything is in *a* good order (cf. ... everything is in good order)
Herşey uyum içindedir (düzenlidir).
6. Prep His bedroom door is made of *by* pine trees (cf. His bedroom door is made of pine)
Onun yatak odası kapısı çam ağacındandır.
7. Prep I woke up *with* cheerfull (cf. I woke up cheerful)
Neşeli kalktım (uyandım).
8. N I know that my birthday *date* (cf. I knew that it was my birthday)
Doğum günüm olduğunu biliyordum.
9. Prep A_d My big brother was a student *at the* abroad (cf. My big brother was a student abroad)
Büyük erkek kardeşim yurt dışında öğrenciydi.
10. PP'o' On the top *of* shelf (cf. On the top shelf)
Rafın üst gözünde (en üzerinde).
11. A_d ... when she is in *the* bed (cf. ... when she is in bed)
... o yataktayken.
12. A_d Prep I finished *the* work and went *to* home (cf. I finished work and went home)
İşi bitirdim ve eve gittim.
13. A_d My house has got ... regular *the* store room, practical *the* kitchen, clean *the* bathroom, big *the* garage, and clean *the* toilet (cf. My house has got ... a regular sized store room, a practical kitchen, a clean bathroom, a big garage, and a clean toilet)
Evimde güzel bir kiler, kullanışlı bir mutfak, temiz bir banyo, büyük bir garaj ve temiz bir tuvalet vardır.

14. A_i She like reading *a* books (cf. She likes reading books)
Kitap okumayı sever.

Group A Female

1. A_i My house is *a* nice (cf. My house is nice)
Evim güzeldir.
2. A_d ... on the previous day of *the* bayram (cf. ... the day before bayram)
... Bayram gününde
3. Prep I started *to* primary school (cf. I started primary school)
İlkokula başladım.
4. A_d After years, I overcame *the* most difficulties (cf. Over the years, I
have overcome most difficulties)
Yıllar geçtikçe birçok zorluklar atlattım.
5. Prep We started *to* our tours (cf. We started our tours)
Turlarımıza başladık.
6. Rep Qu Our guide had told us *that* what we would do (cf. Our guide had told
us what we would do)
Rehberimiz bize ne yapacağımızı söyledi.
7. Prep ... person meets *to* new people (cf. ... a person meets new people)
... kişi yeni insanlarla karşılaşır.
8. Abv→Adj I was really amazed *very much* (cf. I was really amazed)
Çok şaşkındım.
9. Prep Now I'll describe to you *about* her room (cf. Now I'll describe her
room to you)
Şimdi odasını size tarif edeceğim.
10. A_i I awared of *a* slow music (cf. I was aware of slow music)
Müziğin yavaş olduunun farkında idim.
11. Prep I asked *to* her (cf. I asked her)
Ona sordum.
12. Prep ... it looked *like* very good (cf. ... it looked very good)
... çok güzel göründüm.
13. A_i ... drinking *a* coffee (cf. drinking coffee)
... kahve içmek.

14. A_i I have got *a* posters (cf. I have got posters)
Posterlerim vardır.
15. Ins RP_i I have a big table that I put my computer on *it* (cf. I have a big table
that I put my computer on)
Bilgisayarımı koyacağım büyük bir masam vardır.
16. Ins RP_i It has a small table to put my books and work on *it* (cf. It has a small
table to put my books and work on)
Kitaplarımı ve çalışmalarımı koyabileceğim küçük bir masası vardır.
17. Ins RP_i There is a table which I use *it* for study (cf. There is a table which I use
for studying on)
Çalışabileceğim bir masa vardır.
18. A_i ... is *a* blue and yellow (cf. ... is blue and yellow)
Yatak odam mavi ve sarıdır.
19. N I like blue and yellow *coular* (I like blue and yellow)
Mavi ve sarıyı severim.
20. A_i It is *a* comfortable (cf. It is comfortable)
Rahattır.
21. A_i My bedroom lamp is *a* red (cf. My bedroom lamp is red)
Yatak odamın lambası kırmızıdır.
22. A_i It is *a* beautiful (cf. It is beautiful)
Güzeldir.
23. V_{be} You will see two large windows with golden bedspread, *is* under the
windows (cf. You will see two large windows with a golden
bedspread under the windows)
Pencerenin altında altından yatak örtüsü olan iki tane büyük pencere
göreceksin.
24. Prep Opposite *to* the table there is a bed (cf. Opposite the table, there is a
bed)
Masanın karşısında yatak var.
25. PP'o' Opposite *of* my table (cf. Opposite my table)
Masamın karşısında.

1. Ins RP_i The bedroom was very organized and *which* comfortably (cf. The bedroom was very organized and comfortable)
Yatak odası çok düzenli ve rahattı.
2. A_i My bedroom is ... *a* relax (cf. My bedroom is ... *relaxing*)
Yatak odam rahatlatıcıdır.
3. Conj N My bedroom is very dark *or darkness* (cf. My bedroom is very *dark*)
Yatak odam çok karanlık.
4. N It has got big stereo *music* in my room (cf. There is a big stereo in my room)
Odamda büyük bir steryo var.
5. A_d There are twenty school books on the top *the* shelf (cf. There are twenty school books on the top shelf)
Üst rafta yirmitane okul kitabı var.
6. A_d ... five novel book on the bottom *the* shelf (cf. ... five novels on the bottom shelf)
... alt rafta beş tane roman.
7. PP'o' The bed is opposite *of* the desk (cf. The bed is opposite the desk)
Yatak masanın karşısındadır.
8. PP'o' The ward-rop is opposite *of* the window (cf. The wardrobe is opposite the window)
Dolap pencerenin karşısındadır.
9. Prep Opposite *to* the table ... (cf. Opposite the table ...)
Masanın karşısında.
10. PP'o' Inside *of* the door ... (cf. Inside the door ...)
Kapının içinde ...
11. PP'o' The bed is opposite *of* the door (cf. The bed is opposite the door)
Yatak kapının karşısındadır.
12. PP'o' Cupboard opposite *of* the window (cf. The cupboard is opposite the window)
Dolap camın karşısındadır.
13. Conj There are ten books and *and* radio (cf. There are ten books and a radio)
On tane kitap ve radyo var.

14. A_i There was *a* big bookshelves (There were big bookshelves)
Büyük kitaplıklar vardı.
15. Prep There was a large bed opposite *to* the TV (cf. There was a large bed
opposite the TV)
Televizyonun karşısında büyük bir yatak vardı.
16. Prep Behind *to* the bed ... (cf. Behind the bed ...)
Yatağın arkasında ...
17. A_i My bedroom is *a* very big (cf. My bedroom is very big)
Yatak odam çok büyük.
18. Prep Sometimes come *to* my friend (cf. Sometimes my friend comes)
Arasıra arkadaşım gelir.
19. A_i There is *a* one 10m² balcony (cf. There is a 10m² balcony)
Balkon 10m² var.
20. A_i ... because it's *a* very good (cf. ... because it's very nice)
... güzel olduğu için.
21. A_i My friend's bedroom is *a* very good (cf. My friend's bedroom is
very nice)
Arkadaşımın yatak odası çok güzeldir.
22. A_i My friend's bedroom is *a* quite (cf. My friend's bedroom is quiet)
Arkadaşımın yatak odası sessizdir.
23. V_{be} The bedroom *is* smell good (cf. The bedroom smells nice)
Yatak odası hoş kokar (kokuyor).
24. Ins RP_i The bedroom was very organized which I stayed in *it* (cf. The
bedroom which I stayed in was very organized)
Kaldığım yatak odası çok güzel düzenlenmişti.
25. Ins RP_i There is my desk which I study on *it* (cf. There is my desk which I
study at)
Çalıştığım sıra buradadır.

APPENDIX D

MISINFORMATION

Group A Male

1. A I was selected as *a* best shooter (cf. the)
En iyi atıcı scildim
2. s pl N ... organized furnitures (cf. furniture)
Düzenli mobilyalarr
3. FA In organized room everything *become* easier (cf. becomes)
Düzenli bir odada herşey daha kolay
4. V_{be} s pl There *is* nature and football star pictures on my cupboard (cf. are)
Dolabımın üstünde tabiyat ve futbol yıldızı resimleri var
5. Prep *In* the second level (cf. On)
İkinci düzeyde
6. V_{be} s pl There *is* carpets on the floors (cf. are)
Yerde karpetler var
7. V_{be} s pl Most of them *is* about football (cf. are)
Çoğu futbolla ilgili
8. Prep ... and [I] put them *to* their places (cf. in)
... ve yerlerine koyarım
9. Poss 's' ... and continued till my 30 metre's shot (cf. metres)
≠ pl 's' ... ve otuz metrelik atısa kadar devam ettim
10. s pl N ... by beating *rival* in final (cf. ... by beating our rivals in the final)
... rakiblerimizi finalde yenerek
11. FA My photos and success *published* in nearly every newspaper (cf. was published)
Başarılarım ve resmin her gazetede yayınlandı
12. D s pl ... *that* sweet days (cf. ... those sweet days)
... o tatlı günler
13. Prep *In* every shelf of my table (cf. On)
Masamın her rafında
14. Conj 'for' He feared *for* loosing the elections (cf. He feared loosing the elections)
Seçimleri kaybetmekten korktu

15. Pref He had *pre-study about* the circumstances of the elections (cf. He had
Ph V reviewed the circumstances of the elections)
Seimlerin durumu ile ilgili bir n alıřma yaptı
16. F A While television speaker *announcing* the results (cf. While the television
speaker was announcing the results)
Televizyon spekeri sonuları aıklarken
17. Misc I heard that it was completely the *pronouncing wrong* (cf. I heard that it
was announced completely incorrect)
Sonuların yanlış aktarıldığını duydum
18. F A I *exctd* (cf. I was exctd)
Heycanlıydım
19. Prep ... *at* the left side close to wall (cf. ... on the left side close to the wall)
... sol tarafta duvara yakın
20. SAdj ... *the most biggest to the smaller* (cf. ... the biggest to the smallest)
En bykten en kuua
21. Ø Poss 's' ... had *children* book which was about *children* health (cf. ... had a
children's book which was about children's health)
... ocuk saėlıėıyla ilgili bir kitabı vardı
22. s pl N ... 3 CD *player*, 2 casette *player* (cf. 3 CD players, 2 cassette players)
...  CD alıcı, ikide kaset alıcı
23. F A The blackboard *was hanged* at the opposite wall (cf. The blackboard
hung on the opposite wall)
Tahta karřı duvarda asılıydı
24. s pl N underwears (cf. underwear)
i amařırları
25. s pl N two *person* (two people)
iki kiři
26. Ph V I'll never forget the year that I *attend to* exam (cf. I'll never forget the
year that I attended/sat the exam)
Sınava girdiėim/katıldığım yılı hi bir zaman unutmayacaėım
27. Prep ... *in* a snowy day (cf. ... on a snowy day)
... karlı bir gnde

28. ATE I was joking and running ... *along* three months (cf. I was jogging and running ... for three months)
Üç ay boyunca/süresince koşuyordum
29. Prep ... *at* the morning (cf. ... in the morning)
... sabah
30. Ph V *Coming to* the exam I was bored and *in stress* (cf. Coming up/Leading up
F A to the exam I was bored and stressed)
Sinava gelirken canım sıkıldı ve stresliydim
31. Prep I can take all the balls *under* difficult positions (cf. I can take all the balls from difficult positions)
Bütün topları zor pozisyonlarda alabilirim
32. F A If I hadn't done these things, I *could unsuccessful* (cf. If I hadn't done these things I could have been unsuccessful)
Bunları yapmamış olsaydım başarısız durdum

Group B Male

1. V_{be} s pl There *were* a table and a chair (cf. There was a table and a chair)
Bir masa ve bir sandalye vardı
2. SAdj ... quite *pretty* room I've ever seen (cf. ... quite the prettiest room that I've ever seen)
... gördüğüm en güzel odaydı
3. PC ≠ PS I *am listening* to music every night (cf. I listen to music every night)
Her akşam müzik dinlerim
4. make vs do I *make* homework in the room and *studied* (cf. I do my homework in my
VT room and study)
Odada ödev yaparım ve çalışırım
5. VT PC ≠ PS In my freetime *watched* TV in my room and *playing* computer (cf. In my freetime I
watch TV in my room and play on the computer)
Boş vaktimde odamda televizyon izlerim ve computerle oynarım
6. LV≠V I *am* very good time (cf. I have a very good time)
Çok iyi zaman geçiririm
7. Prep *At* the right side of the room (cf. On the right side of the room)

- Odanın sağ tarafında
8. V_{be} s pl Everything *were* organized (cf. Everything was organized)
Herşey düzenliydi
9. Pref *unuseful* (cf. useless)
kullanışsız
10. s pl N ... every *people* (cf. ... every person)
... herkes
11. L The *neaty* of room (cf. The neatness of the room)
Odanın temizliği
12. s pl N My friend is a very organized *people* (cf. My friend is a very organized person)
Arkadaşım çok düzenli biri
13. L When you first *get* in the room (cf. When you first go in/into the room)
Odaya ilk geldiğinde
14. Prep *At* the left side (cf. On the left side)
Sol tarafta
15. Prep *At* the middle (cf. In the middle)
Ortada
16. L ... a very comfortable bed which was also very *neaty* (cf. ... a very comfortable bed which was also very neat/tidy)
... çok rahat ve temiz bir yatak
17. Prep *At* the right side (cf. On the right side)
Sağ tarafta
18. Prep *On* the corner of the room (cf. In the corner of the room)
Odanın köşesinde
19. F A His crowded wardrobe *locate* in front of the bed (cf. His full wardrobe is located in front of the bed)
Kalabalık dolabı yatağın ön tarafındağı
20. V_{be} s pl There *is* two red coloured and expensive carpets (cf. There are two expensive, red carpets)
İki kırmızı renkli pahalı halı var
21. s pl N One of my dramatic *event* in my life (cf. One of the dramatic events in my life)

- Hayatımın dramatik olaylarından biri
22. F A My mom and father *was prepared* me a *pastha* (cf. My mum and dad prepared a cake for me)
Annem ve babam benim için bir pasta hazırladı
23. Aux I *wasn't* know that (cf. I didn't know that)
Onu bilmiyordum
24. VT I *was exciting* (cf. I was exctd)
Heycanlıydim
25. PP'o' ... especially *of mine* girlfriend (cf. ... especially my girlfriend's)
... özellikle benim kız arkadaşımın
26. VT Mod Before that day he *call* me *had* come to my birthday party, but at that time his girlfriend *dead* in a car accident (cf. Before that day he called me to say that he could come to my birthday party, but at that time his girlfriend had died in a car accident)
O günden önce beni aradı ve partime geleceğini söyledi fakat o zaman kız arkadaşının bir trafik kazasında öldü
27. Misc I don't have *any* (cf. I don't have one)
Hiç yok
28. F A She *get up* early after *start* cleaning her room (cf. She gets up early and afterwards/then starts cleaning her room)
Sabah erken kalkar ve odayı temizlemeye başlar
29. F A Firstly, *clening* the table (cf. Firstly, she cleans the table)
İlk önce masayı temizler
30. F A Then *taka* a dustbin box (cf. Then she takes a rubbish bin)
Ondan sonra çöp sepetini alır
31. F A After she *take* a dirty or bad small pillow (cf. Afterwards, she takes a dirty or bad smelling pillow)
Ondan sonra kötü kokulu veya kirli yastığı alır
32. F A She *like* reading (cf. She likes reading)
Okumayı sever
33. F A A She *take a* books and *put* them on the sellf (cf. She takes the books and puts them on the shelf)
Kitapları alır ve rafa koyar

34. VT After the *study*, she is going to tidy work table (cf. After studying, she is going to tidy her desk)
Çalışmadan sonra, çalışma masasını temizleyecek
35. PC ≠ PS Every night *cleaning* my bedroom (cf. Every night I clean my bedroom)
Her akşam odamı temizler
36. VT My bedroom has got Ercondetion and winter *was* hot, summer *was* cold (cf. My bedroom has got air conditioning and in the winter it is hot, and in the summer it is cold)
Odamda air condition var kışın sıcak olur yazın soğuk olur
37. VT One Jeep *go* on left (cf. One Jeep was going in the left hand lane)
Bir jeep solda gider
38. Ph V Prep Jeep did spin in street and *fly away in the* garden (cf. The Jeep did a spin
A in the street and flew/went off the road into a garden)
Jeep yoldan kaydı ve bahçeye uçtu
39. Mod≠LV I *had socked* (cf. I was shocked)
Bunu görmekten şok oldum
40. Mod≠LV I *had socked with* crashed (cf. I was shocked by the crash)
Prep Bu kazadan şok oldum

Group A Female

1. LV≠V It *is* very beautiful and large garden (cf. It has a very beautiful and large garden)
Çok güzel ve büyük bir bahçe
2. s pl N four luxurious *bathroom* (cf. four luxurious bathrooms)
dört lüks banyo
3. Misc After *the* is a wide curving staircase (cf. Then there is a wide curving staircase)
Kavışli bir merdiven
4. LV≠V It *is* nice seats (cf. It has nice seats)
Koltuklar güzel
5. V≠Adj My house *is relax* (cf. My house is relaxing)
Evim rahatdır

6. VT Some of my friends ... *come* to my house (cf. Some of my friends ... came to my house)
Bazı arkadaşlarım benim evime geldi
7. Prep ... magazines were placed *in* different shelves (cf. ... magazines were placed on different shelves)
... dergiler değişik raflarda, yerleştirildi
8. Prep≠ Opposite *to* door (cf. Opposite the door)
A Kapının karşısında
9. Prep≠ On the right *to* the desk (cf. On the right of the desk)
PP'o' Masanın sağında
10. Prep≠ The walls were painted *with* light pink colour (cf. The walls were painted
A a light pink colour)
Duvarlar açık pembe bir renkle boyandı
11. SP_I≠ *I* was full of old fation clothes (cf. It was full of old fashioned clothes)
SP_{It} Eski moda elbiselerle doluydu
12. V_{be} s pl There *was* clothes *belong* to my father (cf. There were clothes belonging
F A to my father)
Babama ait olan elbiseler vardı
13. Prep The thoughts *about* Bulgarian emmigrants wer not so good (cf. The thoughts of Bulgarian emigrants were not so good)
Bulgar göçmenlerle ilgili düşünceleri pek iyi değildi
14. L I do not want *return back* to Bulgaria (cf. I do not want to return/go back to Bulgaria)
Bulgaristana geri dönmek istemiyorum
15. O_g I had *to stayed* (cf. I had to stay)
Kalmak zorundaydım
16. Prep The nurses took care *with* me (cf. The nurses took care of me)
Nursler bana iyi baktı / benimle ilgilendi
17. s pl N My roommates were old and polite *woman* (cf. My roommates were polite, old women)
Oda arkadaşlarım yaşlı ve kibar kadınlardı
18. Prep L Most important subject *from everything* (cf. The most important thing of all)

En önemli olan

19. Conj 'for' I woke up early ... *for joining* the tour (cf. I woke up early ... to join the tour)
Erken kalktım tura katılmak için
20. O_g Conj We *didn't faced* with any bad *and* dangerous events (cf. We didn't face any bad or dangerous events)
Hiç kötü veya tehlikeli bir olayla karşılaşmadık
21. VT My friend *fall* in the river (cf. My friend fell in the river)
Arkadaşım nehre düştü
22. VT She *fall* and she nearly died (cf. She fell and she nearly died)
Düştü ve neredeyse ölüyordu
23. A If I have *a* chance in the future (cf. If I have the chance in the future)
Eğer gelecekte şansım olursa
24. F A ... person *meet* to new people (cf. A person meets new people)
... kişi yeni arkadaşlarla tanışır
25. F A She ... never *comb* her hair, *wash* her face rarely (cf. She ... never combs her hair, rarely washes her face)
Pek yüzünü yıkamaz, saçını taramaz
26. F A I *awared* of a slow music (cf. I was aware of slow music)
Yavaş müziği farketmişim
27. s pl N The *furnitures* (cf. The furniture)
mobilyalar
28. s pl N There were a lot of *book* (cf. There were a lot of books)
Çok kitaplar vardı*
29. D_{s pl} If she had read all *that* books (cf. If she had read all those books)
Eğer o kitapları okumuş olsaydı
30. Dir Sp She answered *that*: "Yes I had" (cf. She answered that she had / She answered, "Yes, I have")
Evet diye cevap verdi
31. F A I *was continue to amazing* (cf. I continued to be amazed)
Hayretler içerisinde kalmaya devam ettim

32. O_g I *thicked* that; maybe her successful is depends on her wonderful room
(cf. I thought that maybe her success depends/is dependant on her wonderful room)
Belkide onun başarısı güzel odasına bağlıdır düşündüm
33. L These things were *daily usages* (cf. These things were used daily)
Bunlar günlük kullanılır
34. PC≠PS She is always on internet, she *is chatting* all day (cf. She is always on Internet; she chats all day)
Her zaman internette sohbet eder
35. Pl≠'s Her *families* and friend's photographs are on this table (cf. Her family's and friend's photographs are on this table)
Onun ailesinin ve arkadaşlarının resimleri bu masanın üstündedir
36. SP_{it}≠SP_i It never *drinking* and *eating* (cf. I never drink or eat)
PC≠PS Hiç yeyip içmem
37. V_{be} s pl There *is a* cosmetics (cf. There are cosmetics)
S pl N Kozmetikler var
38. VT It *was* very important *open* the window (cf. It is very important to open Part 'to' the window)
Pencereyi açmak çok önemlidir
39. Aux It *doesn't* dirty (cf. It isn't dirty)
Kirli değil
40. SP_{it}≠SP_{it} I *was* very important *clean* the room (cf. It is very important to clean the VT room)
Part 'to' Odayı temizlemek çok önemlidir
41. SP_{it}≠SP_i It never high voice *talking* and *listening* radio (cf. I never talk in a loud PC≠PS voice or listen to the radio up high)
Hayatında yüksek sesle konuşma, yüksek sesle radyo dinlemem
42. V_{be} s pl My bedroom *are* clean and big (cf. My bedroom is big and clean)
Yatak odam büyük ve temizdir
43. VT ... table for *to study* (cf. ... table for studying)
... çalışmak için masa
44. OP≠PP ... all my frinds write *them* names (cf. ... all my friends write their names)
... bütün arkadaşlarım isimlerini yazar

45. Prep *At the left* (cf. *On the left*)
Solda
46. Prep *At the right to my library* (cf. *On the right of my bookcase*)
Kitap dolabımın sağında
47. Prep *At the right of my bed* (cf. *On the right of my bed*)
Yatağımın sağında
48. s pl N I have lots of *picture* and *postcard* (cf. I have lots of pictures and postcards)
Çok resim ve postkartlarım var
49. Misc I want *you* tell you (cf. I want to tell you)
Söylemek istiyorum
50. VT I *meant* it's my freedom in the house (cf. I mean it's my independence in the house)
Yani benim evimdeki özgürlüğüm
51. V_{be} s pl ... and answered letters *is* in the folders (cf. ... and answered letters are in the folders)
... cevaplandırılmış mektuplar dosyaların içindedir
52. V_{be} s pl There *is* my grammar books (cf. There are my grammar books)
Grammar kitaplarım var
53. FA ... arranged by the time I *have get it* (cf. arranged by the time I got them)
OPs#pl ... [onları] aldığım tarihe göre düzenledim
54. V_{be} s pl There *is* my reading books (cf. There are my reading books)
Okuma kitaplarım var
55. V_{be} s pl There *is* a lot of magazines (cf. There are a lot of magazines)
Çok dergiler var
56. Misc *Shortly* everything that I find interesting (cf. In short, everything that I find interesting)
Kısaca, herşey ilginç bulduğum
57. Conj 'for' I use it *for study* (cf. I use it for studying)
Çalışmak için kullanırım
58. FA Everybody loves my room and *want* a room like mine (cf. Everybody loves my room and wants a room like mine)
Herkes benim odamı sever ve benim odam gibi bir oda ister

59. LV≠V It *is* a one door (cf. It has one door)
Bir kapısı var
60. Conj≠ ... the picture *or* my favourite singer (cf. ... the picture of my favourite
PP'o' singer)
... En sevdiğim şarkıcının resmi
61. Misc ... *the* play computer game (cf. I play computer games)
... computer oyunu oynarım
62. Misc ... have a rest of my soul (cf. ... rest my soul)
... ruhumu dinlendiririm
63. pl's' ≠ My friends bedroom (cf. My friend's bedroom)
Poss 's' Arkadaşımın yatak odası
64. V_{be} s pl ... the books on the shelf *was* put in alphabetical order (cf. ... the books
on the shelf were put in alphabetical order)
... Raftaki kitaplar alfabetik olarak dizildiler
65. V_{be} s pl Every pair of shoes *was* placed in *it's* boxes (cf. Every pair of shoes were
Apos 's' placed in their boxes)
≠ PA Bütün ayakkabılar kutularında muhafaza edilir
66. V_{be} s pl ... they to *was* all next to each other (cf. ... they too were all next to each
other)
... onlar da birbirlerine yakındılar
67. VT After years, I *overcame* the most difficulties (cf. Over many years/the
years, I have overcome most difficulties)
Yıllar sonra, bütün zorlukların üstesinden geldim

Group B Female

1. Rel Pr The bedroom was very organized *which* comfortably (cf. The bedroom
≠ Conj was very organized and comfortable)
Yatak odası çok düzenli ve rahattı
2. V ≠ Adj My bedroom is very small, peachful and a *relax* (cf. My bedroom is very
small, peaceful and relaxing)
Yatak odam çok küçük, sakin ve rahatlatıcıdır
3. SAdj It was one of *the comfortable* room in my house (cf. It was one of the
most comfortable rooms in my house)

- Evimdeki en rahat odalardan biridir
4. F A It *was look* very decorative (cf. It looked very decorative)
Çok dekoratif görünüyordu
5. s pl N furnitures (cf. furniture)
mobilyar
6. Rel Pr The bed was near the wall *which* can see the sea clearly from the window
≠ Conj at the opposite wall (cf. The bed was near the wall and you can see the
A sea clearly from the window on the opposite wall)
Yatak duvarın yanındaydı ve denize karşı duvardaki pencereden çok temiz görebilin
7. VT The colours of the room *were suiting* to each oter (cf. The colours of the room complemented/suited each other)
Odanın renkleri biri birleriyle uyum içindeydi / Odadaki renkler uyumluydu
8. O_g I *thinks* the most important thing for a room is making things more usefull (cf. I think the most important thing for a room is making things more useful)
Bence, odanın en önemli özelliği herşeyin kullanılabilir olması
9. s pl N There is no *sunny-skies* (cf. There is no sunny sky)
Hiç güneşli gökyüzü yok
10. LV ≠ I like big pillows *which is* Mickey Mouse or Tweety something like that
V (cf. I like big pillows *which have* Mickey Mouse or Tweety, something like that on them)
Üzerinde Miki Mouse veya Tweety olan büyük yastıkları seviyorum
11. VT I like *study hurd* (cf. I like studying hard / I like to study hard)
Ağır çalışmayı seviyorum
12. Prep ... *for* my opinion (cf. ... *in* my opinion)
... benim fikrime göre
13. Rel Pr I'll never forget the *day which* I *spend* my holiday with my friends (cf.
≠ conj I'll never forget the day when I spent my holiday with my friends)
VT Arkadaşlarımla geçirdiğim günü hiç unutmayacağım
14. VT Finally we *came back* to Istanbul. ... I *haven't* been happy before this holiday (cf. I *hadn't* been happy before this holiday)

- Sonunda İstanbula geldik ... Bundan önce hiç böyle mutlu olmamıştım
15. Prep ... *of the left inside the bedroom* (cf. ... on the left inside the bedroom)
Yatak odasının solunda
16. F A The room door *is open the sitting-room* (cf. The door opens to the sitting room)
Kapı oturma odasına açılır
17. Prep The room door *is corner of the left* (cf. The door is in the corner on the left)
Kapı köşede soldadır
18. Prep ... *it's corner of the right* (cf. ... *it's in the corner on the right*)
... köşede sağdadır
19. s pl N There are *picture* (cf. There are pictures)
Resimler var
20. V_{be} s pl There *was a lively flower* (cf. There were fresh flowers)
Canlı çiçekler vardı
21. Prep Left *to computer* (cf. *On the left of the computer*)
Bilgisayarın solunda
22. Prep Left *to sports equipments* (cf. *On the left of the sports equipment*)
s pl N Spor malzemelerini solunda
23. s pl N I like sports equipments (cf. equipment)
Spor malzemelerini seviyorum
24. There ≠ There *is a very big bedroom* (cf. *It is a very big bedroom*)
It Çok büyük bir yatak odasıdır
25. s pl N There are my desk *on the book* (cf. There are books on my desk)
Çalışma masamda kitaplar var
26. F A I'm *listen to music, reading a book* (cf. I listen to music, read a book)
PC≠PS Müzik dinlerim, kitap okuram
27. V_{be} s pl There *are a bathroom, rug, cupboard, desk and computer* (cf. There is a bathroom, rug, cupboard, desk and computer)
Bir banyo, bir halı, bir dolap, bir masa ve bilgisayar var
28. Ph V There is also a *sunny balcony outside the sitting* (cf. There is also a sunny balcony outside to sit on)
Birde güneş alan oturulabilecek bir balkon var

29. V_{be} s pl There *are* bed, cupboard, desk, chair, rug (cf. There is a bed, cupboard, desk, chair and rug)
Bir yatak, bir dolap, bir masa, bir sandalye ve halı var
30. V_{be} s pl There *are* desk under the window (cf. There is a desk)
Pencerenin altında masa var
31. V_{be} s pl There *are* rug on the floor (cf. There is a rug on the floor)
Yerde küçük halılar var
32. Prep There are flowers *under* the bedroom (cf. ... in the bedroom)
Yatak odasında çiçekler var
33. V_{be} s pl There *are* beautiful mirror on the wall (cf. There is a beautiful mirror)
Duvarda güzel bir ayna var
34. V_{be} s pl There *is* a cloths and hand bag *into* the cupboard (cf. There are clothes
Prep and a hand bag in the cupboard)
Dolapta elbiseleri ve el çantası var
35. OP_{s≠pl} There were shelves with books and photos on *it* (cf. There were shelves with books and photos on them)
Üzerlerinde kitap ve resim olan raflar var
36. V_{be} s pl There *was* a big bookshelves (cf. There were big bookshelves)
s pl N Büyük kitap rafları vardı
37. V≠LV My carpet which *has* a light colour is always soft and clean (cf. My carpet which is a light colour is always soft and clean)
Açık renkli olan halım her zaman temiz ve yumuşaktır
38. Prep Always study *on* my desk (cf. I always study at my desk)
Her zaman çalışma masamda çalışırım
39. s pl N A big carpets *in* my bedroom (cf. A big carpet's in my bedroom)
Yatak odamda büyük bir halı var
40. s pl N On the carpets *my* clothes (cf. My clothes are on the carpet)
Elbiselerim dolapdadır
41. F A Sometimes *come* to my friend *sitting* on the chairs (cf. Sometimes my friend comes and we sit on the chairs)
Bazen arkadaşım gelir ve sandalyelerde otururuz
42. Mod You *can't* headache (cf. You don't get a headache)
Hiç baş ağrıı olmaz

43. V_{be} s pl There *is* flowers so the bedroom *is smell* good (cf. There are flowers so
F A the bedroom smells good)
Yatak odasında çiçekler var dolayısıyla oda temiz tüter
44. F A All day my friend *is clean* the bedroom (cf. All day my friend cleans the
bedroom)
Bütün gün arkadaşım yatak odasını temizler
45. V≠Adj The bedroom *is relax* because you *can listening* to music there (cf. The
F A bedroom is relaxing because you can listen to music there)
Yatak odası rahatlatıcıdır çünkü orda müzik dinleyebilin
46. F A You *can using* computer (cf. You can use the computer)
Bilgisayarı kullanabilin
47. V≠Adj The bedroom is quite, clean, comfortable, *relax*, exciting, *smell* good *and*
FA Conj untidy (cf. The bedroom is quiet, clean, comfortable, relaxing, exciting,
smells nice but untidy)
Yatak odası sessiz, temiz, rahat, rahatlatıcı, heyecan verici, güzel kokulu
fakat düzensizdir
48. Prep *At* the right (cf. *On* the right)
Sağda
49. Prep *At* the left (cf. *On* the left)
Solda
50. very≠so It is *very* big that I can put everything in it (cf. It is *so* big that I can put
everything in it)
O kadar büyük ki, herşeyi rahatlıkla yerleştirebilirim
51. VT The bedroom was very organized which I *stay* in (cf. The bedroom
which I stayed in was very organized)
Kaldığım yatak odası çok düzenliydi

APPENDIX E

MISORDERINGS

Group A Male

1. Adj Or There was a nice *yellow and small* carpet (cf. There was a nice small yellow carpet)
Güzel bir küçük ve sarı halı vardı.
2. Adj Or There was a *wide nice* mirror (cf. There was a nice wide mirror)
Güzel bir geniş ayna vardı
3. Desc S/S I want to describe *you my bedroom* (cf. I want to describe my bedroom to you)
Yatak odamı size tarif etmek isterim.
4. Adv→ I *exctd so* much (cf. I was so very exctd)
Adj Oldukça heyecanlıyım.
5. Misc I did all of them; joking, running, gym, coordination ... *together* (cf. I did all of them together; joking, running, gym, coordination ...)
Hepsini birlikte yaptım; şakalaşmak, koşmak, jimnastik, koordinasyon...
6. Adj But in the exam *unfortunately I failed* (cf. But unfortunately I failed the Subj+V FPExam)
Ama maalisef sınavı geçmedim.
7. Subj+LV Maybe the happiest person at that time in the work *I am* (cf. Maybe I was FP the happiest person at work at that time)
Belki o saat işte en mutlu kişi bendim.
8. O_d → I'll never forget the day that my first attendance of *school team elections* adv ph (cf. I'll never forget the school team elections on my first day at school)
Okulumun ilk günündeki okul takımı seçimlerini hiç unutmayacağım.

Group B Male

1. Prep → My bedroom is *inside* there is a table and on the books (cf. Inside my NP bedroom, there are books on the table)
Yatak odamın içerisinde masanın üzerinde kitaplar vardı.
2. N↔NP There is near *computer table* on the *computer* (cf. There is a computer on the computer table)

Bilgisayar masasının üzerinde bilgisayar vardı.

3. Adv Comp He *absolutely* is a very organized person (He is an absolutely, very
←LV organized person)
Kesinlikle çok düzenli bir kişidir.
4. Adj Or On the windows two beautiful, *white and clean* curtains *hang* (cf. At the
V FP windows hang two beautiful, clean, white curtains)
Pencerelerde iki güzel, temiz, beyaz perde salkar.
5. Adv ← Also had bought presents (cf. [My mother and father] had also bought
Aux presents)
Annem ve babamda hediye almıştır.
6. Adv ← Also was wondering my birthday presents (cf. [I] was also wondering
Aux about my birthday presents)
Ayrıca merak da ediyordum
7. Adv Deg *Really* I felt bad (cf. I really felt bad)
Kendimi gerçekten kötü hissetim.
8. Adv Freq She *always* has got a clean badroom (cf. She has always got a clean
←V has got bedroom)
Onun her zaman temiz bir yatak odası vardı.
9. Adj→N It was today *very bad* (cf. It was very bad today)
Bugün çok kötü idi.
10. Adj Or There is two *red coloured and expensive* carpets (cf. There are two
expensive, red carpets)
İki pahalı kırmızı halı vardır.

Group A Female

1. Prep→ My house *the outside* is nice (cf. The outside of my house is nice)
NP Evimin dışarısı güzeldir.
2. SP₁ I and my mother and father (cf. My mother, my father and I)
Annem, babam ve ben.
3. Inf to ~ I got depression and did not *want to* problems *to talk* with anyone (cf. I
V got depression and did not want to talk with anyone about my problems)
Depresyon oldum ve problemlerim hakkında kimseyle konuşmak
istememedim.

4. Desc N I hadn't joined *like that tour* before (cf. I hadn't joined a tour like that before)
Daha önce öyle bir tura katılmamıştım.
5. Desc N During *like this tour* (cf. During a tour like this)
Böyle bir tur sırasında.
6. Adv Freq ... wash her face *rarely* (cf. ... rarely washes her face)
FP ... yüzünü nadiren yıkar.
7. Desc S/S I'll describe *to you* about *her room* (cf. I'll describe her room to you)
Odasını sana tarif edeyim.
8. Inv e There were well designed clothes which refers to what *is she* wearing tomorrow (cf. There were well designed clothes which referred to what she was wearing the next day)
Sonraki gün giydiklerine hitap eden iyi dizayn edilmiş giysiler vardı.
9. Aux+V On the floor a new cleaned carpet *was lying* (cf. On the floor was lying a newly cleaned carpet)
FP newly cleaned carpet)
Yeni temizlenmiş bir halı yerde yatıyordu.
10. Subj FP Music and dancing are *her hobbies* (cf. Her hobbies are music and dancing)
Hobileri muzik ve dans etmektir.
11. Subj FP In my bedroom never open *the door* (cf. In my bedroom, the door is never open)
Yatak odamdaki kapı hiçbir zaman açık değildir.
12. Prep Ph There is *on the floor* of the rug (cf. There is a rug on the floor)
>< V+Obj Yerde bir kilim vardır.
13. Subj FP It always open *the window* (cf. The window is always open)
Pencere her zaman açıktır.
14. Subj FP It always clean *the floor* (cf. The floor is always clean)
Yer her zaman temizdir.
15. Prep → The wall *on the picture* or my favourite singer (cf. On the wall there is a picture of my favourite singer)
NP picture of my favourite singer
Duvarda favori şarkıcımın resmi vardır.

1. Misc I look window *outside* (cf. I look through the window)
Pencereden dışarıya bakarım.
2. Rel Cl The bedroom was very organized *which I stayed in* it (cf. The bedroom which I stayed in was very organized)
Kaldığım yatak odası çok düzenli idi.
3. Prep Ph There is *in front of bed* a radio (cf. There is a radio in front of the bed)
>< V+Obj Yatağın önünde bir radyo vardır.
4. Adv ← I like *very* flowers (I like flowers very much)
N Çiçekleri çok severim.
5. Adj ← There is *big* a balcony (cf. There is a big balcony)
A_i Büyük bir balkon vardır.
6. Subj FP Sometimes come to *my friend* (cf. Sometimes my friend comes)
Bazen arkadaşım gelir
7. V FP ... everywhere *put it* (cf. puts it everywhere)
...her yere koyar.
8. Rel Cl The bedroom was very organized *which I stay in* (cf. The bedroom which I stayed in was very organized)
Kaldığım yatak odası çok düzenli idi.
9. N↔NP There are *my desk* on the *book* (cf. There are books on my desk)

APPENDIX F

ERRORS POSSIBLY ATTRIBUTED TO L1 INFLUENCE

Omissions

articles	39,75%
phrasal verb	1,23%
possessive adjectives	3,28%
prepositions	14,75%
relative pronoun	0,82%
subject pronoun	5,33%
verb 'be'	11,07%

Additions

articles	43,21%
insertion of indefinite relative pronoun	6,17%
lexical	3,70%
preposition 'of'	13,58%
verb 'be'	2,47%

Misinformation (1)

articles	1,74%
phrasal verbs	2,17%
prepositions	13,48%
present continuous tense in place of present simple tense	4,35%
singular/plural nouns	10,43%
verb 'be' singular/plural	10,87%

Misinformation (2)

preposition instead of article	0,87%
singular/plural demonstrative pronouns	0,87%

Misordering

adjective after noun	2,27%
adjective before indefinite article	2,27%
adverb before direct object	2,27%
adverb of completeness before linking verb	2,27%
adverb of frequency before verb 'has got'	2,27%
auxiliary and verb in final position	2,27%
describing something to someone	4,55%
descriptive noun	4,55%
direct object after adverbial phrase	2,27%
noun and noun phrase in wrong position	4,55%
preposition after noun phrase	6,82%
prepositional phrase between verb and object	4,55%
sentence adverb before auxiliary	4,55%
subject and auxiliary verb in final position	2,27%
subject and verb in final position	2,27%
verb in final position	4,55%