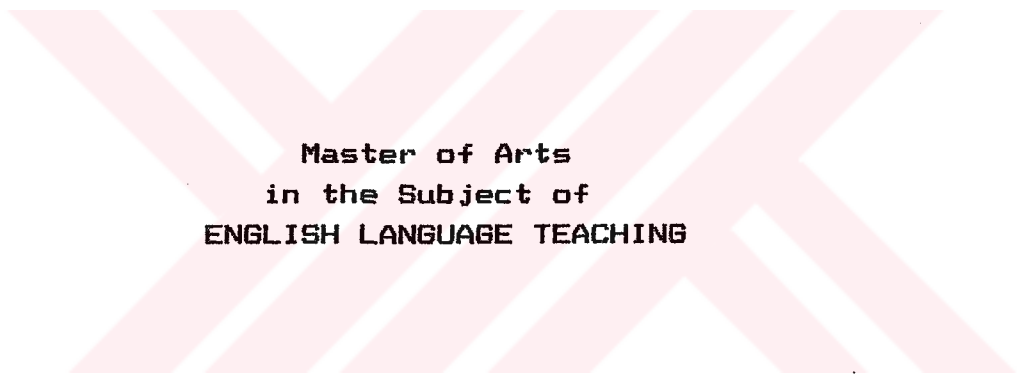


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ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
The Institute of Social Sciences

**Interference: Turkish Case-markers Transfer
to English Prepositional Utterances**



**Master of Arts
in the Subject of
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

Erdogan BADA
A D A N A
1989

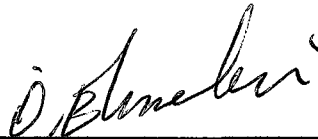
**Interference: Turkish Case-markers Transfer
to English Prepositional Utterances**

**A Thesis Presented
by
Erdogan BADA
to
The Institute of Social Sciences in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of**

**MASTER OF ARTS
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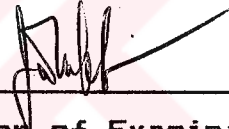
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Supervisor

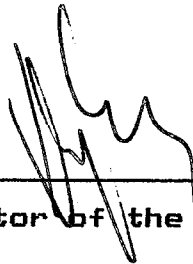


Member of Examining
Committee



Member of Examining
Committee

Certified that this thesis conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social Sciences.



(Director of the Institute)

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CONTENTS

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1....The Scope

1.2. The Problem

1.3. The Assumptions

2.....DEFINITIONS

2.1.... Preposition

2.2.....Case Marker

2.3.....Error

2.4.....Interference

2.5.....Language Transfer

2.6.....Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialect)

2.6.1...Overtly Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialect)

2.6.2...Covertly Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialect)

2.7.....First Language

2.8.....Second Language

2.9.....Interlanguage

2.10....Fossilization

3.....REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1.....The Function of a Preposition in English

3.2.....The Function of a Case Marker in Turkish

3.3.....Interference Theory and The language Transfer

3.4.....Contrastive Analysis and Interference

3.5.....Error Analysis

4.....METHODOLOGY

4.1.....Research Design

4.2.....Subject

4.3.....Points Relevant to the Test

4.3.1...Preparation of the Test

4.3.2...Aim of the Test

4.3.3...Content of the Test

4.3.4...Parts of the Test

4.3.5...Number of Questions in the Test

4.3.6...Use of Proper Names in the Test

4.3.7...Presentation of Prepositional Items

4.3.8...Selection of Key Vocabulary Items

4.3.9...Parenthesized Turkish Words

4.3.10..Isolated Turkish Case Markers

5.....ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

6.....CONCLUSION

APPENDIX....I

APPENDIX....II

APPENDIX....III

FOOTNOTES

REFERENCES

ABBREVIATIONS

L1 =	First Language
L2 =	Second Language
NL =	Native Language
IL =	Interlanguage
OE =	Old English
ME =	Middle English
OF =	Old French
ON =	Old Norse
I.T.I.A =	Interference-Type Incorrect Answers
N.I.T.I.A =	Non-Interference Type Incorrect Answers
EA =	Error Analysis
CA =	Contrastive Analysis
L =	Latin

1. INTRODUCTION

Transfer of rules from one language to the other is not a new hypothesis put forth here. It was first proposed under the name of 'interference,' constituting a basis for the grounds of contrastive analysis, and later new theorists, some of whom, being involved in the language teaching themselves, have renamed the process calling it 'language transfer.' To both groups of scholars, the two terms have a lot in common, yet limitations of their areas differ greatly; for instance, when interference is a theory by itself, influencing language studies profoundly, 'transfer' is only a part of the newly put-forth theory of 'Interlanguage.' Theoretically, the two terms share common characteristics, but the methodology applied by one is different from that applied by the other. Sticking to conventional categorization, one may place 'interference' in contrastive analysis (CA), and 'transfer' in error analysis (EA). The approaches of the two fields toward the treatment of the foreign-language learners' errors fundamentally differ from one another in that the former proposes a behavioristic-type schedule, while the latter strongly opposes such a proposal, claiming that learners can neither be restricted in thinking nor be taught items incorporated in schedules designed and applied irrespective of their (learners') needs and wills.

Language researchers proposing 'reconciliation' of both fields are not small in number. Such scholars

(Candling, Carl) believe that the two areas are complementary to one another. James' point of view (1980:185) is that "CA is always predictive, and that the job of diagnosis belongs to the field of EA."

Thus, foreign language learners' difficulties in learning the foreign language may simply be predicted by CA, whereas resultant errors of the teaching process may be diagnosed through EA.

1.1. THE SCOPE

This study seeks support concerning the unification of the two approaches, the contrastive analysis and error analysis. When the strong points of each approach are drawn and applied in the teaching of any particular point of structure, however, such unification becomes more important in the prediction and the treatment of the foreign language learners' errors.

With this study, I have mainly focussed on the structural points, the English prepositions and the Turkish case markers. However, similarities and contrasts (determined by a one-hundred-question test) between these structural points have not been dealt with deeply enough to include every corresponding and/or contrasting item. Erroneously employed prepositions (obtained from the one-hundred-question test) have been divided into two categories: interference-type incorrect answers, and non-interference type incorrect answers. However, the analysis of psychological sources of non-interference type

incorrect answers has not been made the reason being that it might not have proved to be commensurate with scientific quality. Rather, such has been left for further studies.

Within its limitations, the study includes Turkish university students (as subjects) all studying English for prospective English-teaching purposes. Thus, it does not exceed this limitation theoretically, involving other students, yet in respect for practical aspects, it closely concerns all students learning and/or studying English.

The first chapter of this study, thus, comprises the definition of the problem, and the objectives aimed at (assumptions).

In the second chapter, expressions that might possibly cause the reader problems of comprehension have been defined. Such expressions are either coined by some scholars (in this case, only the coiner or those who are closely concerned with the subject can understand what that expression means) to have more than one meaning or have been restricted in terms of meanings in order to suit the purpose determined by the writer.

The third chapter, being comprised of the reviewed relevant literature, includes various views on both the contrastive analysis and error analysis. Turkish case markers, along with their counterparts, prepositions, have also been exclusively defined and exemplified.

Data collection, along with information about the preparation and the content of a test (prepared for the purpose of this study) functions as essence and core of this chapter.

The data obtained from the test have been analyzed, and this analysis has been presented in the fifth chapter. The analysis indicates the percentage of received correct answers; interference-type incorrect answers, and non-interference type incorrect answers. Regarding success between the subjects of the four classes (1, 2, 3, 4), a correlative study has been made and presented here as well.

1.1. THE PROBLEM

It has widely been discussed whether any certain way of coping with language learners' errors is the most influential one. As a result of obtained empirical data, it has been found out that there is no way, exactly applicable and being free from criticism regarding its flaws, that may, in earlier or later stages of teaching, cause serious impediments in the learning process.

Two main approaches have become influential in the foreign-language teaching. The earlier one is the contrastive analysis (CA) and the later one is error analysis (EA). These two approaches overlap one another in many respects, and moreover, it has often been argued that EA is complementary to CA. Empirical data show that neither

one is complete, and that the language instructor should not stick to a schedule prepared in accordance with either only, but s/he should rather make use of any principle of each that suits and contributes to the prediction and/or treatment of errors the language learners make in the earlier or later stages of learning the foreign language.

As a study unit, interrelation between English prepositions and Turkish case markers has been emphasized, and transfer of corresponding points between these units is expected to occur at any stage of the learning process. Various ways of treating errors stemming from such a transfer are suggested by both CA and EA. However, the main problem seems to be whether these suggestions are all applicable, and, if yes, how influential they are.

Regarding the teaching of English prepositions to Turkish students I have the belief that only a pre-made study of contrasts and/or similarities would not suffice; in this case, a further analysis of erroneously uttered prepositional sentences would enable the instructor to make a sound judgement on the acquisition of English prepositions by Turkish students learning English.

1.3. ASSUMPTIONS

The aim of this study is to investigate the validity of the assumptions

(1) that there is case-marker transfer from Turkish to English prepositional utterances;

(2) that the amount of transfer decreases as the learner becomes more familiar with the foreign language structure and its culture;

(3) that as transfer decreases, non-interference errors increase, or, if not, retain a high percentage of occurrence;

(4) that not all errors made are attributable to first language and thus, a pre-made schedule of contrasting items would fall short in the treatment of prepositional errors, and in this case, reference to error analysis would be inevitable.

2. DEFINITIONS

For the purpose of this study, It has been found necessary to define the following terms that might possibly lead to problems in the comprehension of ideas developed in relations with such expressions.

Preposition (P) is a word or group of words that determines the relationship between two or more words acting as a binding item. The preposition is defined in one Webster's Dictionary as "a linguistic form that combines with a noun, pronoun, or noun equivalent, to form a phrase that typically has an adverbial, adjectival, or substantival relation to some other word" (WTNID 1969).

e.g.

He is afraid of dogs.

Are you pleased with the results?

Jane is interested in the results

Case Marker (CM), in Turkish, is a form of "affix" attached to a word to show its relationship with other words or another word in a sentence:

e.g.

Ev-i yıktılar. (accusative) They tore down the house.

Ev-e gittik. (dative) We went home.

Ev-de çalışıyor. (locative) S/he is studying at home.

Ev-in camı kırıldı. (genitive) The glass of the house got broken.

Ev-den erken ayrıldım. (ablative) I left home early.

Ev-le meşgul. (instrumental) S/he is busy with the house.

Error is referred to as mistake in this study. To some linguists including Corder (1982), an error is resultant from lack of competence, and therefore, is systematic, while a mistake is resultant from lack of performance, and hence is not systematic. In order to decide whether a failure in producing a standard utterance is due to lack of competence or not, the same failure should, at least, be repeated several times. Otherwise, the failure is due to lack of performance and thus, it is a mistake rather than an error.

Interference occurs with transfer of linguistic rules and translated versions of vocabulary from first language into second language. Weinreich (1953) defines interference as "those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e as a result of languages in contact" Haugen's (1953) definition is a culturally based one: "Linguistic borrowing is an example of cultural diffusion, the spread of an item of culture from people to people."

The verb *salladılar* in sentence (1) is used inappropriately considering the context in which the sentence has been uttered. It is highly probably used on the basis of the translated version of the English verb

shake. Had the speaker referred to the verb squeeze, she would possibly have uttered the more-acceptable Turkish verb *siktılar*. When the two verbs shake and squeeze are appropriate in the sentences (1a, and 1b) they have only one verb (regarding the contextual use at issue) to act as a counterpart in Turkish, and it is *siktılar* ('squeezed').

(1) *Oraya vardığımızda ellerimizi salladılar*

(1a) When we got there they shook our hands.

(1b) When we got there they squeezed our hands.

Language Transfer is a process which contains two aspects of transfer, (1) psycholinguistic, and (2) sociolinguistic. It is a two-sided process having linguistic rules and cultural norms running between languages in contact. Concerning language transfer, Selinker suggests that "if it can be experimentally demonstrated that fossilizable items, rules and subsystems which occur in Interlanguage performance are a result of Native language, then we are dealing with the process of language transfer" (Selinker, in Richards, ed., p.37).

Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialects) are sentences which have rules that are deviant from the standard rules of the second language. Corder states that every sentence should be considered idiosyncratic until it is shown to be otherwise (Corder, p.21). Sentences like (2) and (3) are idiosyncratic in that they contain rules that do not conform to standard English grammar rules.

(2) She likes to playing piano.

(3) They goes to home at six hours.

Covertly Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialects) are well-formed, yet inappropriate for the situation at issue. "If the sentence appears superficially well-formed in terms of the rules of the target language but nevertheless cannot be interpreted 'normally' in context, then that sentence is covertly idiosyncratic" (Corder, p.21). The sentence as in (4) is well-formed in terms of English grammar rules but the verb **play** is inappropriate for a situation where people do not play at parties, but dance. Someone outside the Turkish-speaking community would apparently face a great deal of difficulty interpreting this sentence.

(4) They played at the party.

Overtly Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialects) are ill-formed in terms of the target-language linguistic rules. To Corder, these sentences are easy to interpret, and they offer much less difficulty than covertly idiosyncratic sentences regarding interpretation. The sentence in (5) is a sentence that includes rules that do not conform to standard English linguistic rules. The sentence in (6) is also an ill-formed sentence as double pluralization (**dört** and **paket-ler**) does not exist in Turkish grammar.

(5) I finded hard to say somethings.

(6) Dört kırmızı paketler vardı.

(There were four red packages)

First Language is the language through which the learners of a foreign language may communicate orally or in writing, formally or informally (in this case the learners' first language is Turkish). In this study, First Language is referred to as the Native Language. A Turkish child born in the United States may certainly acquire a more solid competence in English than s/he may in Turkish. In this case, although the child's native language is Turkish, his/her first language would be English, as it is through English s/he communicates most of the time. Thus, one's native language may not be his/her first language.

Second Language is the language that is being learned by the foreign-language learners (for the purpose of this study, third language learners are not included). Second Language is also referred to as Target Language or Foreign Language.

Interlanguage is the language developed by the second-language learner which includes rules of its own as well as rules from the learner's NL or L2. An idiosyncratic utterance produced by the L2 learner is considered to be a part of the Interlanguage system rather than be treated as an error. Interlanguage proponents strongly resist the term error as it constitutes the system of Interlanguage.

Fossilization, a term coined by Selinker, refers to linguistic rules that lead to the formation of Interlanguage. Some linguistic items causing major difficulties for the language learner, may actually be

learned erroneously due to any of the "five central hypotheses" proposed by Selinker, and erroneously learned rules tend to "fossilize" as a consequence of these processes.

The English Past Tense marker -ed may simply be fossilized by English language learners, as the cause for that might be due to overgeneralization of this suffix for the overall formation of the past tense verb.



REVIEW of LITERATURE

3.1..The Function of a Preposition in English

In today's English, prepositions have certainly gained significance in helping us determine meaning of the word they precede or follow. However, when the functioning word actually changes meaning as a consequence of different prepositional usages, the matter becomes more important. For instance, the word look by itself may have a lot of meanings. When it is used with a certain preposition such as at or for, the meaning becomes more certain. Moreover, although the word look remains in both usages of prepositions, its own connotations may change, being influenced by the preposition used.

When a glance is cast at the historical background of prepositions, it can be observed that both their number and function are rather restricted in Old English (OE). Yet, a flourishing in both domains is observed during Middle English (ME). The growth in number is resultant from (1) compounding and analogical formation, and (2) borrowing from French and Scandinavian languages (Strang, 1982).

As mentioned above, it is in this period of ME that the growth and diversification of the functions of prepositions occur. Strang suggests that in this period, the preposition by develops the role of expressing agency with passive verb constructions. In being chiefly characteristic of mid dialects and having a literal meaning,

gains many figurative uses (in short, in exchange, in sight, in vain, etc.). In OE, having the meaning from, of goes through a transformation process and adopts the genitive case. Besides its ancient use with infinitives the preposition to extends its range by invading the domain formerly held by the dative case (1982).

After such a short look at the background of prepositions, I would like to define the major difficulties the foreign language learner (even the native speaker) faces in producing prepositional utterances. Three main difficulties are defined by Wood (1978): (1) many prepositions (perhaps even most of them) are used in so many different ways that they often have no very clearly defined meaning apart from the phrase or construction in which they occur; e.g. on hire, on duty, on fire, on pension, or on arrival at the airport; (2) prepositional idiom is not always logical; for instance under the circumstances is employed instead of in the circumstances which is more logical. Averse means turned away from; averse from (which only the pedant would use) is not generally employed as the more standard and more accepted averse to, and (3) where two or more prepositions are idiomatic, It may sometimes make very little difference from which we use; but in other cases the choice of one or another may express a rather nice distinction of meaning (to aim at and to aim for; immune to, immune from, and immune against).

These cited difficulties seem to constitute significant problems to English learners no matter which

native language and culture they belong to. In a thesis study made by Uçüncüođlu (1971), prepositions corresponding to Turkish case markers were dealt with thoroughly, aiming at easing the task of the Turkish student learning English in his/her acquisition of prepositional competence. The chart below illustrates English prepositions acting as counterparts for Turkish case suffixes.

TURKISH		ENGLISH
Cases	Suffixes	prepositions
Nominative	-	-
Accusative	i, ı, ü, u	-
Dative	(y)e, (y)a	to, into, at, on, onto
Locative	de (te), da (ta)	at, on, in
Genitive	(n)in, (n)ın, (n)ün (n)un	of, to
Ablative	den (ten), dan (tan)	from, of, off, out of, O
Instrumental	le, la	with, by

(Uçüncüođlu, 1971)

The sentences below offer a variety of prepositional usages in five relevant cases: dative, locative, genitive, ablative, and instrumental.

Prepositions Used as Dative Markers:

1. Jim went into a room where he could see nothing but a painting covered all in dust.

2. Henry will go for the mail hoping that there might be a letter from his sister.
3. Jane put the stained glass full of wine on the tray and offered it to her guest.
4. The last leaf on the tree fell onto the deserted, rusting machine.
5. They will certainly arrive at the post office on time.
6. Many of them were not invited to the party.
7. Frank desperately put the letter in the box hoping to get an answer this time.

Prepositions Used as Locative Markers:

1. The workers all walked in a flock to start work at 7 in the morning.
2. "There is nothing to eat on the table." said the little kid.
3. Not for herself, but for her father only, Mary made a success in mathematics.

Prepositions Used as Genitive Markers:

1. The gate of the garden is painted in white as a sign of peace.
2. His little eyes sparkled with joy to see his father with a pair of small shoes
3. "She is a woman of a strong will." Said John.
4. Confused as she is, Alice wondered if there might be more than one answer to the question.
5. The key to the door?" Said she in a rather feeble, faint voice.
6. "The road to success is rough and thorny, son." Said grandpa to his ten-year old grandson.

Prepositions Used as Ablative Markers:

1. Self-realization is the only way through which one can get rid of his/her anxieties.
2. Modes of life change from country to country to form such varied, wonderful patterns, all woven on the same loom.
3. Her eyes filled with tears, she looked out of the window in emptiness.

4. The poor little creature fell off the trailer onto the dispersed, sharp rocks.

Prepositions Used as Instrumental Markers:

1. With an ax in his hand, he put an end to the life of the young tree.
2. With the smile beaming in her face, she radiated warmth and sincerity.
3. They carried the timber by large vessels to a harbour where hundreds of slaves worked not less than fifteen hours a day.
4. A fiddle in his hand, he travelled throughout the country by train.

3.2..The Function of a Case Marker in Turkish

Turkish case markers are attached to the final element of nominals in the cases (1) accusative, (2) genitive, (3) dative, (4) locative, and (5) ablative. In this respect they act like English prepositions (Lewis, 1967).

The historical background of the Turkish case-endings can be traced to various early Turkic languages such as Köktürk, Uygur, Krahanlı, Çagatay, and Old Anatolian Turkish. The historical change of these markers can clearly be observed from the following (P.T.F., 1959):

ACCUSATIVE

The Accusative in Köktürk:

-g for today's ü

sab-ig = söz-ü (his/her word)

-nı / -ni for today's -nu / -nü

bu-nı = bu-nu (this one)

-n for today's -ü (after the possessive suffix)

sab-ım-ın = söz-üm-ü (my word)

The Accusative in Uygur is the same as it is in Köktürk.

The Accusative in Karahanlı:

-g for today's ü

sözü-g = söz-ü (his/her word)

-nı / -ni for today's -yi (with pronouns)

Kişi-ni = Kişi-yi (the person)

-n for today's -i (following third person singular)

til-i-n = dil-n-i (his/her tongue)

The Accusative in Çağatay:

-ın / -in, -un / -ün for today's -i

ev-in = ev-i (his/her house)

The Accusative in Old Anatolian Turkish:

-ı / -i same as today's use.

ev-i = ev-i (his/her house)
-n (rare) for today's ü
sözü-n = sözün-ü (his/her word)

DATIVE

The Dative in Köktürk:

-ka / -ke for today's -a / -e
han-ka = han-a (to the inn)
-na / -ne (following the possessive suffix)
for today's -na / -ne
bişik-i-ne = beşik-i-ne (to his/her cradle)

The Dative in Uygur:

-a / -e (rare use), -ka / -ke, -na / -ne
yış-ka = orman-a (to the forest)

The Dative in Karahanlı:

-ka / -ke, -a / -e, -na / -ne (following the possessive case)
for today's -ya / -ye, -ne / -na
kişi-ge = kişi-ye (to the person)

The Dative in Çağatay:

-ka / -ke, -ge / -ga
kişi-ge = kişi-ye (to the person)

The Dative in Old Anatolian Turkish:

-a / -e same as today's use

ev-e = ev-e (to the house)

LOCATIVE

The Locative in Köktürk:

-ta / -te, -tın / -tin are used as locative and/or ablative cases today's use -dan / -den, -de / -da

yol-ta = yol-da, yol-dan (on/in the road, from the road)

The Locative in Karahanlı:

-da / -de, -ta / -te same as today's use

tag-da = dag-da (on the mountain)

The Locative in Çağatay:

-da / -de, -ta / -te same as today's use

bilmeklik-te = bilmeklik-de

The Locative in Old Anatolian Turkish:

-da / -de same as today's use

ev-de = ev-de (at home)

GENITIVE

The Genitive in Köktürk:

-n for today's -in /-in, -ün / -un

budunu-n atı = millet-in adı (name of the nation)

The Genitive in Uygur:

-nın / -nin same as today's use

kağan-in = hakan-in (the king's)

The Genitive in Karahanlı:

-nın / -nin, -nun / -nün same as today's use

betig-nin = kitab-in (the book's)

The Genitive in Çağatay:

-nın / -nin, -nun / -nün same as today's use

özün-ün = özüm-ün (my essence's)

The Genitive in Old Anatolian Turkish:

-un /-ün, -nun /-nün for today's -in / -in, -ün/ -un

ev-ün = ev-in (the house's)

ABLATIVE

The Ablative in Uygur:

-tın / -tin, -dın / -din for today's -den / -dan
kağan-dın = kağan-dan (from the khan)

The Ablative in Karahanlı:

same as in Uygur

The Ablative in Çağatay:

same as in Uygur

The Ablative in Old Anatolian Turkish:

-den / -dan, -dın / -din (rare) same as today's use
ev-den = ev-den (from home)

The following table illustrates the Turkish case-markers employed in the standard up-to-date Turkish.

Last vowel of absolute singular	e or i	ö or ü	a or ı	o or u
Singular				
Accusative	-(y)i	-(y)ü	-(y)ı	-(y)u
Genitive	-(n)in	-(n)ün	-(n)in	-(n)un
Dative	-(y)e	-	-(y)a	-
Locative	-de/-te	-	-da/-ta	-
Ablative	-den/-ten	-	-dan/-tan	-
Plural				
Accusative	-leri	-ları		
Genitive	-lerin	-ların		
Dative	-lere	-lara		
Locative	-lerde	-larda		
Ablative	-lerden	-lardan		

Lewis, 1967:34

The sentences below present the contextual functions of the Turkish case-markers along with their correspondents, English prepositions.

The accusative case suffix marks the definite object of a verb.

Cam-ı kırdı.

(S/he broke the window)

Ev-i gezdi.

(S/he walked about in the house)

Oda(y)-ı boyadı.

(S/he painted the room)

Kuş-u vurdu.

(S/he shot the bird)

Kutu(y)-u sakladılar.

(They hid the box)

Ali(y)-i götürdüler.

(They took Ali)

The genitive suffix indicates that the word to which it is attached has a possessive relationship to the following substantive.

Ahmet-in kalemi kırıldı.

(Ahmet's pen got broken)

Cem-in halası hastalandı.

(Cem's aunt got sick)

Masa(n)-in ayagi kırıldı.

(The leg of the table got broken)

Bu kitab-in son baskısı iyi sattı.

(The last edition of this book sold pretty well)

Fuat-in kitabı düştü.

(Fuat's book has fallen down)

Nuh-un gemisi

(Noah's ark)

Kavun-un içi çürümüş.

(The inside of the melon is decayed)

Umut-un kitabını getir.

(Bring Umut's book)

The dative case marker expresses (1) the indirect object of a verb, (2) place, (3) purpose, and (4) price.

(1) the indirect object:

Kalemi Güneş-e verdim.

(I gave Güneş the pen)

Kitabı Erdem-e vereceğim.

(I will give Erdem the book)

Cenk-e her şeyi anlattık.

(We told Cenk everything)

Oya(y)-a telefon ettim.

(I phoned Oya)

Demet-e kızdı.

(He got angry with Demet)

Filiz-e söz verdi.

(He promised Filiz)

Nesrin-e kitap aldı.

(He bought Nesrin a book)

(2) place:

Bu kalemi çanta(y)-a koy.

(Put this pen in(to) the bag)

Mektubu postane(y)-e götür.

(Take the letter to the post office)

Benimle sinema(y)-a geliyor musun?

(Are you coming with me to the cinema?)

(3) purpose:

Erdem ders çalışma(y)-a gitti.

(Erdem went to study)

Filiz armağan alma(y)-a gitti.

(Filiz went to buy a present)

Ufuk yüzme(y)-e gitti.

(Ufuk went to swim)

Merhâba deme(y)-e gelmiş.

(He came to say hello)

(4) price:

Bu kitabı kaç-a aldın?

(How much did you buy this book for?)

Arabayı kaç lira(y)-a sattın?

(How much did you sell your car for?)

Bu ev kaç-a gider dersin?

(How much do you think this house brings in?)

The locative case marker expresses location (1) in place, (2) in time, and (3) in an abstract.

(1) in place:

Seni belediyenin önün-de gördüm.

(I saw you in front of the townhall)

Kır-da bir araba gezisi insanı canlı kılar.

(A drive into the country keeps one fresh)

Çocuklar okul-da.

(The children are at school)

Selvinin teyzesi hastane-de.

(Selvi's aunt is in hospital)

(2) in time:

Saat beş-te görüşürüz.

(See you at five o'clock)

Ağaçlar yapraklarını Sonbahar-da dökerler.

(Trees drop their leaves in the fall)

Aslı bir yaşın-da yürümeye başladı.

(Aslı began to walk in her first year of age)

(3) in an abstract:

Televizyon-da ilginç programlar var.

(There are interesting shows on TV)

insan sağlığın-da hastalığı düşünmez.

(When in good health, one does not think of illness)

Adam yirmisin-de öldü.

(The man died in his twenties)

Toplum-da sanatın yeri.

(Art in the community)

Toprak rengin-de boya.

(Soil-colored paint)

The ablative case suffix expresses (1) place from which, (2) place through which, (3) cause, (4) comparison, (5) substance from which, (6) partitive use, and (7) price (different from the dative).

(1) place from which:

Ankara-dan beşte ayrıldık.

(We left Ankara at five)

Otel-den işyerine arabayla gittik.

(We drove from the hotel to the office)

Göz-den düştü.

(S/he has lost much of his/her esteem)

(2) place through which:

Kapı-dan dışarı çıktı.

(S/he went out through the door)

Pencere-den bakıyor.

(S/he is looking through the window)

Hangi yol-dan geldin?

(By which road did you come?)

Cem telefon-dan seni arıyor.

(Cem wants you on the telephone)

(3) cause:

Acı-dan kıvranıyor.

(S/he is convulsing in/from pain)

Kanser-den öldü.

(S/he died from cancer)

Sen-den bıktım.

(I got tired of you)

Alper Selin-den hoşnut.

(Alper is pleased with Selin)

İlginç insanlar-dan hoşlanır mısın?

(Do you like interesting people?)

(4) comparison:

Melihin annesi seninkin-den yaşlıdır.

(Melih's mother is older than yours)

Bu dergiler bir birin-den farklıdır.

(These magazines are different from one another)

Hiç bir insan diğer bir insan-dan üstün değildir.

(No one is superior to another)

Kırmızı araba siyah araba-dan hızlıdır.

(The red car is faster than the black one)

(5) substance from which:

Masa tahta-dan yapılmıştır.

(The table is made of wood)

Elbise yün-den yapılmıştır.

(The dress is made of wool)

Su oksijen ve hidrojen-den oluşur.

(Water is composed of oxygen and hydrogen)

(6) partitive use:

Öğrenciler-den ikisi okula gelmedi.

(Two of the students did not come to school)

Elmalar-dan bir kaçını alabilir miyim?

(Can I have some of the apples)

Pasta-dan küçük bir parça istedi.

(S/he asked for a small slice of the cake)

Bu kitaplar-dan bir kaçını alabilirsin.

(You may borrow some of these books)

(7) price:

Bu kalemleri kaç-tan aldın?

(At what price did you buy these pens?)

Portakalları bin lira-dan sattı.

(S/he sold the oranges for one thousand liras)

Arabayı kaç-tan aldın?

(At what price did you buy the car?)

Erigin kilosunu ikiyüz lira-dan satıyor.

(S/he sells plums for two hundred liras)

3.3. Interference Theory and the Language Transfer

Either with its very limited meaning (as in the native language transfer of rules to second language) or broad meaning (bilateral transfer of cultural, social norms between languages), interference has often been a moot point that closely concerns second-language acquisition.

In its limited sense, interference incorporates the tendency of transferring of the rules of the learner's native language to the foreign language - this language could either be a second language or a third language. No matter which language it is, the 'lateral' transfer of rules from NL is what constitutes interference.

As interference (in contrastive analysis) means the continuity of already-acquired habits of NL, the learner may tend to revert to NL (until s/he gets to a certain level of linguistic competence) either in his/her foreign language 'receptive skills or productive skills, or both' (Carrol, 1968:113-121). Carrol, in his description of the interference theory, states that the theory has two meanings:

one of these meanings arises in the explanation of forgetting, where it is assumed that habits are forgotten because new experiences interfere with and thus, so to speak, 'crowd out' the memory traces.first language habits tend to inhibit or otherwise modify the learning of second language habits' (Carrol, 1968).

Pietro (1971) introduces the terms 'convergence' for similarity and 'divergence' for diversity, and, thus, he proposes that the learner's errors may result in either tendency. He draws a distinction between transfer and interference suggesting that 'the process of interpreting the particular grammar of one language in terms of another is called transfer. The mistakes that result from this process are said to be due to interference.' The distinction he draws is quite apparent. When he (obviously) states that mistakes are the outcome of interference and 'interference is to be avoided,' he also implies that transfer is prior to interference, and that interference can only occur subsequent to transfer. According to this statement, both processes (transfer and interference) can be bilateral; that is, there is no a restriction such that the two processes stem from NL; it could also be the other way around.

Brown (1980:87) defines interference as a type of overgeneralization:

interference of the first language in the second is simply a form of generalizing that takes prior first language experiences and applies them incorrectly. Overgeneralization is the incorrect application of previously learned second language material to a present second language context. All generalizing involves transfer, and all transfer involves generalizing.

On the other hand, Beebe (forthcoming) states that transfer is often a sociolinguistic process, frequently

being of cultural identity assertion. Her suggestion is that

sociolinguistic transfer (whether conscious or unconscious) does not necessarily stem from an incorrect hypothesis. Lack of knowledge could be, though it is usually not, the source of the problem either. Rather, it seems to emanate from a clear (though perhaps tacit) understanding of social norms and sometimes a desire to achieve some social psychological purpose of sociolinguistic function (Beebe, p.4).

Reverting back to Brown's statement, interference, when referred to as transfer, exceeds its conventional limitations and may also incorporate cultural norms as well as linguistic rules. Lado (1957), for language transfer, states that the transfer from NL not only incorporates linguistic rules but also the culture within which the rules are embedded:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their NL and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives.

It is likely that Lado has neglected the transfer of some rules and cultural norms of the foreign language into the learner's native language and culture. This is a long-term process, of course. Learners should attain both linguistic and communicative competence in order to start

such language switching-situations and cultural norms transfer.

Haugen's (1953) approach to linguistic borrowing differs from Lado's in one distinctive point. He defines linguistic borrowing as "an example of cultural diffusion, the spread of an item of culture from people to people."

Borrowing is linguistic diffusion, and can be unambiguously defined as language patterns which he has learned in another (p.363)..... it is the language of the learner that is influenced, not the language he learns.

The distinctive point is that, in Lado's statement, it is the foreign language that is influenced rather than the native language; where in Haugen's it is the native language. When the central point is community (language) in Haugen's statement, the central point is the individual in Lado's.

As a conclusion, I would say that interference is no longer a phenomenon that is assumed to belong only to contrastive analysis, in which it has been treated only in terms of psycholinguistic aspect. Rather, I share the belief with Beebe that it is also a sociolinguistic process which may involve at least two or more languages, and the interaction between one another.

3.4. Contrastive Analysis and Interference

Throughout the twenty years of its influence on the field of applied linguistics, contrastive Analysis has proved to be one of the most important studies ever made in describing systems of languages. Two main versions of CA have asserted themselves in the field of foreign-language teaching. The two versions are based on the assumptions of L1 interference. The strong version (a priori) claims to have the power to predict learners' errors, while the weak version (ex post facto) diagnoses errors. As L1 interference is central in both versions, the learner's native language is considered to be an obstacle during the learning process. It is the learner's native language that impedes or facilitates learning; corresponding points are easy to learn, and thus they offer no problems, when contrasts lead to main problems. Only when linguistic transfer from L1 to L2 is minimized, or eradicated, can learning of a foreign language be possible.

Lado (1957) claims that the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language, and to him here lies the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult. ``..... in the comparison between the native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.``

Fries (1945), who is considered to be one of the most authoritative scholars in contrastive linguistics studies, wrote that

the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

From what we understand in the above statements, Contrastive Analysis proponents believe that through description of both systems of the two languages (L1 and L2), the areas that might ease learning and/or cause difficulty to the learner would be revealed, and a schedule prepared accordingly would provide the classroom teacher with ready material to make use of in the classroom. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:97-98), resisting contrastive analysis-based material, present the result of available empirical data that address the CA hypothesis:

1. In neither child nor adult L2 performance do the grammatical errors reflect the learner's L1.
2. L2 learners make many errors of grammar that are comparable in both the L1 and L2 errors that should not be made if 'positive transfer' were operating.
3. L2 learners' judgements of the grammatical correctness of L2 sentences are more related to L2 sentence type than to their own L1 structure.

4. Phonological errors exhibit more L1 influence than do grammatical errors, although a substantial number of the L2 phonological errors children make are similar to those made by monolingual first language learners, and only a small portion of phonological errors in reading are traceable to the learner's L1.

The above results may demonstrate that CA not only falls short in predicting learners' errors, but also may mislead teachers into adopting material regardless of the learners' ordering of acquisition of the foreign language. But still, contrastive analysis may, undoubtedly, have a great deal to contribute, and this contribution is not to be ignored. Sajavaara (1981) states that the principles constituting contrastive analysis have greatly changed, and it is this change that led to criticisms made about contrastive analysis: "... the theoretical objectives were almost entirely forgotten in the wake of Weinreich's (1953) and Lado's (1957) work," and afterwards, CA tended to concentrate on practical studies of teaching the foreign language, which may later be called "the strong version" of CA, and may be considered as one of the primary causes of "the controversy which ensued in the 1960's." Although cultural interaction and cultural transfer (besides the psychological influence of old habits on L2 - interference) was the other objective of CA, its proponents have ignored this aspect, and mainly concentrated on 'interference' only. Lado's emphasis on the comparison of cultures was mostly forgotten; yet it is there that can be found a clue for a modern revision of the contrastive analysis.

The following reflects Lee's (1968) description of the strong version of the contrastive analysis.

1. The prime cause, or even the sole cause of difficulty and error in foreign-language learning is interference coming from the learner's native language.

2. The difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages.

3. The greater these difficulties are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.

4. The results of comparison between the two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors which will occur in learning the foreign language.

5. What there is to teach can best be found by comparing the two languages and then subtracting what is common to them, so that what the student has to learn equals the sum of differences established by the contrastive analysis.

As is clearly defined in Lee's assumption, the learner's native language is certainly the main source for errors the learner makes in his/her learning process. It is nothing but the differences and/or the similarities between the two languages that determine the pace of learning; the less the differences are, the more learning is facilitated, and, the more the differences are, the more that learning is impeded.

3.5. Error Analysis

Following contrastive analysis, which greatly influenced linguistic studies until the 1960s, error analysis asserted itself with a new approach toward second-language learning. Within its framework, first-language transfer, which constituted the basic source of errors in CA, has only been treated as one of the many strategies the language learner follows in his/her language learning process; and thus errors during second language production (oral or written) are not only due to L1 interference (transfer) of a first language. Dulay et al (1982) present Hernandez - Chavez's (1972) observation on Spanish-speaking children learning English. They suggest that it has been noticed that a great number of students' errors could not possibly be traced to their native languages. For example, although Spanish plurals are formed almost exactly like English plurals, Spanish-speaking children still go through a plural-less stage as they learn English.

Two versions of error analysis are proposed by Sridhar (1981): traditional EA, and reoriented EA. The main differences found to be between the two are that the latter included new areas which closely concern strategies followed by L2 learners in their language learning. Errors that were once treated as bad habits in the learning process, are no longer treated so; moreover, they are conceived of as very valuable data in analyzing the learner's 'Interlanguage.'

The common methodology of the two versions of EA consists of the following steps:

1. Collection of data (either from a free composition by students on a given theme, or from examination answers).

2. Identification of errors (labelling, varying degrees of precisions depending on the linguistic sophistication brought to bear on the task, with respect to the exact nature of the deviation, e.g. dangling prepositions, anomalous sequence of tenses, etc.).

3. Classification into error types (e.g. errors of agreement, articles, verb forms, etc.).

4. Statements of relative frequency of error types.

5. Identification of areas of difficulty in the target language.

6. Therapy (remedial drills, lessons, etc.); and the following two are the recent steps included by the reoriented version.

7. Analysis of the source of errors (e.g. mother tongue interference, overgeneralization of foreign language linguistic material, inconsistencies in the spelling system of the target language, etc.).

8. Determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error (or the seriousness of the error in terms of communication, norm, etc.).

Unlike contrastive analysis proponents, error analysts do not ascribe all learner's errors to NL transfer. Empirical data indicate that not all (although a great percentage) of the errors are resultant from first-language interference, but an important percentage is found to be due to intralingual processes such as reduction of structural complexity, overgeneralization of certain linguistic rules, etc.,.

The collected empirical data led linguists to seriously consider the assumption that strategies followed by the child in acquiring his/her mother-tongue linguistic rules could also be valid for L2 learning or acquisition. It is within the framework of this assumption that language learners' errors have gained considerable importance, both to the theorist and to the language teacher.

Richards (1975) describes four main features constituting the error analysis. These aspects are (1) the nature of language, (2) the nature of language systems in contact, i.e. bilingualism, (3) the learning of linguistic systems, and (4) the use of linguistic systems in communication. For the first aspect, Richards argues that errors made by the speakers of a particular language - say Turkish - should not simply be based on the fact that they are resultant from fundamentally different conceptions of

time and a different way of thinking about the world from that of an English-speaking person; rather, he suggests that

language is one mode of cognitive expression, that is, one way of expressing a fraction of what goes on in the human mind. Like other forms of cognition, it is derived from language-independent conceptual sets.Learner's errors are seen as manifestations of how the learner reconstructs the syntactic and phonological rules used for the realization of these conceptual sets and deep structures (p.71).

The second aspect of EA is the study of language systems in contact - bilingualism(). Richards states the contribution of syntax to meaning in this aspect, yet he also mentions that

a person engaged as a simultaneous translator working with rapid speech input and output in possibly unrelated languages illustrates that the ultimate role of syntax to enable the speaker to do away with syntax, to process the message independently from the speech mode in which it is coded. Errors in this process are viewed as the product of production and reception strategies and heuristics (1975).

The third constituent of the context for EA is the learning of linguistic systems. Richards suggests that the learner of a foreign language makes constant effort to acquire 'language-specific realization' of universal

linguistic categories. A sentence, by itself, may be the realization of these universal linguistic categories in a particular language. Attaining such relation enables the learner to acquire syntactic, morphological and phonological rules in that sentence, and this may lead to the realization of the whole system of that particular language. Since the linguistic unit of a sentence is a universal structure realized through language-specific rules, complete realization of such a linguistic unit will lead the learner to generalize this unit for other languages as well. The main problem, however, seems to be that such realization by children and adults may differ greatly, depending on the 'order of development of syntactic items' in both groups. For such a case, Richards' (1975) opinion is that

comparison of syntactic development in children and adults enables us to determine, for particular language items, the degree to which they are pegged to the cognitive timetable. If they are not, we will have to look to the psycholinguistic difficulty of the rules themselves. At this level of analysis, learner's errors thus represent attempts to break down the speech code of the new language into categories that realize the unit of sentence in that language.

Regarding similarities between children's and adult learners' errors, Richards also states that both types of errors preserve meaning and both 'acquire word order expression of major grammatical categories before the finer details of syntax are mastered.' Thus, typical learner's sentences would be as in (8a, 8b, and 8c) but not as in (9):

- (8a) He will go.
- (8b) He going.
- (8c) He go.
- (9) Go he.

The fourth and the last part of the context for EA is the use of linguistic systems in communication. This part deals with the use of syntactic and semantic knowledge of the IL of the foreign language learner. The use of this knowledge in particular situations in which the learner is required to use the language for a specific purpose; (e.g. welcoming guests, etc.) closely concerns the error analyst as it does the learner. In order to make progress in determining the language field in which the learner is weak or strong, the error analyst should observe the learner's production in every situation provided for him (learner) to communicate in. If the linguistic knowledge acquired cannot be applied by the learner, then failure arises in the teaching-learning process(1).

Focussing on various uses of language, Richards presents Halliday's (1973) classified models of language. These models are: (1) the instrumental model, (2) the regulatory model, (3) the interactional model, (4) the heuristic model, (5) the imaginative model, (6) the ritual model, (7) the personal model, and (8) the representational model.

Richards (1975) states that Halliday's model is not originally intended for application to second-language acquisition. He suggests that Halliday's concept for language models is a useful one as it may closely concern

second-language learners as well. He thinks that the second-language learner's interlanguage is frequently simplified in many ways in comparison with the target language, in the sense of 'containing fewer rules for realization of particular linguistic categories and less vocabulary for given lexical concepts.'

It is undoubtedly true that the interlanguage speaker may not be able to carry on a conversation sufficiently in one of the models above, for the reasons mentioned in Richards' remarks, yet the learner's errors or 'idiosyncratic dialect' will be the data upon which the error analyst or the teacher bases his/her assumptions in devising strategies to help the learner attain sufficient knowledge of the lexis and syntax required for that particular situation.

Corder (1982:21-24) proposes two main functions of error analysis: the theoretical one, and the practical one. The theoretical function has already been dealt with in Richards (1975). Concerning the two functions, studies have intensified in both aspects. Corder proposes three main stages occurring in EA. The first stage is interpretation of errors; the second, accounting for the idiosyncratic dialect; and the third, explanation of errors. The first and the second are linguistic whereas the third is psycholinguistic. In the first stage, learners' utterances are considered to be idiosyncratic until they are shown to be otherwise. In order to decide whether a sentence is 'ill-formed' or 'well-formed,' he suggests that the sentence

should go through an algorithm (see Appendix III). The sentence may really be well-formed, yet still idiosyncratic in terms of contextual usage. Thus, even a well-formed sentence should not be considered appropriate until it has been proved to be so in its contextual usage (Corder 1982:29-30). In order to make it clear, I would like to give the following examples with their preceding and succeeding subordinate explanation.

To the question in (11) an answer as in (12) would be both well-formed and appropriate in context, while an answer (to the same question) as in (13) would be well formed, yet inappropriate or 'covertly idiosyncratic' concerning its usage in context.

11. 'Is your brother coming with us?'
12. 'My dad is sick, so he can't.'
13. 'My uncle is poor.'

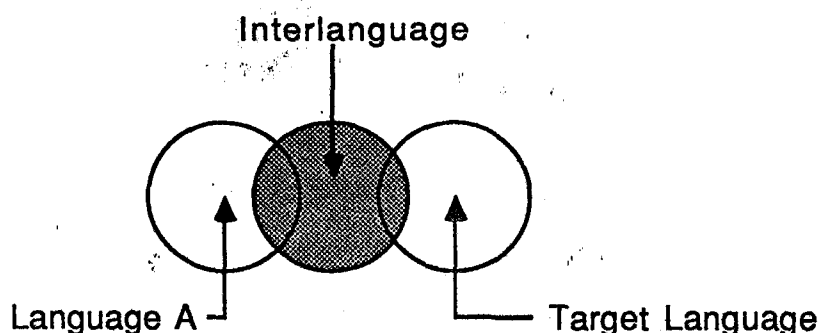
Then, the language learner's idiosyncratic dialect does not only involve ill-formedness of sentences but may also involve well-formedness of sentences.

The second stage is 'the accounting the idiosyncratic dialect.' This may also be referred to as the 'description of the nature of the idiosyncratic sentences.' In order to do such a description, correct interpretation of the learner's dialect is required as, without a correct interpretation, description would be impossible. Following the interpretation process, a sentence is provided in the target dialect, and is analyzed

with the already-uttered sentence by the learner. The structural and contextual analysis of these two sentences will enable the analyst to describe the type of idiosyncrasy between the two sentences.

The third stage is the explanation of the idiosyncratic dialect. As mentioned above, this stage involves psychology, while the first and the second are linguistic. In this stage, further analysis of how and why the learner's idiosyncratic dialect is of the nature it is, is what is meant by the "explanation of the idiosyncrasy."

Another approach toward EA is from Selinker (1972), who coined the term 'Interlanguage' for what Corder (1982) meant by the 'idiosyncratic dialect.' He argues that the learner's dialects are a separate language. As well as having a system of its own, it may also incorporate rules from both the learner's native language and the target language. The following Venn diagrams illustrate what is meant by the IL.



Selinker (1972) suggests that there are five processes central to "fossilizable" items in the learner's IL.

These processes are (1) language transfer, (2) transfer of training, (3) strategies of second-language learning (4) strategies of second language communication, and (5) overgeneralization of target language linguistic material. Based on what he meant by these processes, any fossilized utterance in one's IL is due to one or more than one of the processes presented above.

A Turkish student learning English may simply employ the sentence in (14). The usage of the preposition *from* in the sentence thus, may clearly reflect the reliance on the ablative case marker *-den* in Turkish, which is assumed to function as a counterpart for the English preposition *from*.

14. I left from home at six o'clock.

In this case, such an utterance to Selinker may be due to the learner's NL rule transfer to L2 production. For transfer of training, Selinker (1972) presents an example of difficulty which Serbo-Croatian speakers have in their Interlanguages. Although the counterparts of *he* and *she* pronouns exist in Serbo-Croatian languages, the speakers of these languages learning English ignore the distinction between the two pronouns, and prefer the pronoun *he* referring to both *he* and *she*. This type of error the Interlanguage speakers make is probably due to the fact that textbooks and teachers present drills with *he* only, rather than *she*. Thus, to Selinker, such an error can be attributed to a type of 'transfer of training' and later to a particular strategy of second-language communication.

Simplifying rules (reducing to a simple structure) of foreign language is one of the commonest features that reflect the language learning strategies followed by language learners all around the world.

Sentences as in (15, 16, 17, and 18) are only several of the many examples of structurally simplified sentences produced by Turkish students learning English. These sentences may reflect features that can be attributed to more than one of the processes presented by Selinker, yet as reduction is a common feature to all of them, they can mostly be attributable to language-learning strategies.

15. I no like football.
16. We always with you.
17. I am go to school.
18. He talking with me.

The fifth process in IL is the overgeneralization of L2 material. Sentences in (19, 20, 21, and 22) present overgeneralized rules of the use of -ed suffix in past tense formation (19), the omission of -s in Simple Present tense formation (20), the plural marker -s for even irregular nouns (21), and the possession verb have for third person singular (22). Examples supporting these data are in abundance. Yet, what is more important is to make these data broaden the horizons in the present investigation, of this comparatively new field of linguistics.

19. He goed to school.
20. Ali speak English.
21. The childs are playing in the garden.
22. She have two books.

In conclusion, we can say that error analysis - or what is sometimes called Interlanguage analysis - is day by day increasing its influence on language learning and teaching. It has mostly exerted this influence by questioning the validity of contrastive analysis in predicting L2 learners' errors; yet despite all this contribution to language studies, it is still not free from criticism. Like many other fields of study, it has its flaws (see footnote 2 for further reading) and strong points.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1...Research Design

For the purpose of this study, sixty students studying English were given a written test, and accordingly results received from this test have been used as the constituting data for this study.

The test was administered and given in one week, and each time almost under the same classroom conditions. The allocated time for one hundred questions in all was thirty minutes. Yet, subjects were observed to turn in papers in fifteen minutes minimum and twenty-five minutes maximum.

4.2...Subjects

Subjects who took the test ranged from first-year students to fourth-year seniors, all being students of the English Language Department of the Faculty of Education, Cukurova University, Adana Turkey. They all received (to some extent) English language education in their former years of study in high schools. They have been placed at the English Unit according to the success they made in answering the English questions included in the Foreign Languages Section of the university entrance exam (3) booklet. Their present syntactic and semantic level (previously evaluated through a proficiency test) is high enough to enable them to communicate (written or/and orally) in English without much difficulty.

4.3.....Points Relevant to the Test

4.3.1...Preparation of the Test:

For the purpose of this study, various descriptive dictionaries as well as recent editions of dictionaries of prepositions (Wood, 1982; Fowler, 1984; Seidl, 1978; Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 1980) were surveyed, and a written test (see Appendix I), to be given to the subjects assigned for this study, was prepared accordingly. Regarding the valid usages of both Turkish and the English sentences, scholars (4), in the fields of the Turkish and the English languages, also expressed their views, and thus the sentences used in the test were given their present shapes.

4.3.2...Aim of the Test:

This test was prepared in order to provide the necessary data to indicate the circumstances in which the subjects produce erroneous prepositions, and to what extent, these prepositions can be attributed to first-language transfer.

4.3.3...Content of the Test:

Within the framework of this test, various points are necessarily to be explained are (1) parts of the test, (2) number of questions in the test, (3) use of proper names,

(4) presentation of prepositional items, (5) selection of key vocabulary items, (6) parenthesized Turkish words, and (7) isolated Turkish case markers.

4.3.4...Parts of the Test:

The first section of the test comprises fifty translation-type questions. The Turkish version of each question is assumed to help in detecting first-language influence (if there is any) on second-language production. However, this production is confined merely to prepositions, as that specifically is what has been aimed at. In the second section of the test, again fifty questions, but this time without Turkish equivalents, were included. Thus, one hundred questions were asked totally in both parts.

4.3.5...Number of Questions in the Test:

One of the most important points aimed at in this test is collecting enough data that would help this writer make a sound judgement in detecting Turkish case-marker transfer to English prepositional utterances. Therefore, the number of questions used in this test has been kept high.

4.3.6...Use of Proper Names in the Test:

The English proper names included in this test have not been used for any particular reason except that they are only some of the many that belong to those who mainly communicate through the English language all over the world.

4.3.7...Presentation of Prepositional Items:

The prepositions, some of which are assumed to be used in this test, have been presented at the beginning of the test in order to (1) form a basis for other prepositional usages, and (2) to enhance the subjects' productivity, extending their limitations of reasoning.

4.3.8. Selection of Key Vocabulary Items:

For the purpose of selecting the key words used in this test, dictionaries of prepositional idioms (Seidl, 1978; Wood, 1982; Fowler, 1984) have been surveyed, and words succeeded or preceded by a certain preposition, have been selected and (except for very few) confirmed to exist in the Five-Thousand-Frequently-Used Vocabulary List.

4.3.9...Parenthesized Turkish Words:

In order to lessen or eradicate any complication that the subjects might face in meaning defining of the key English vocabulary items, it is believed to be necessary to include the most-approximate Turkish counterparts (5) of the English words.

4.3.10..Isolated Turkish Case Markers:

The Turkish case markers (in the Turkish sentences) have been isolated and capitalized in order to observe any influence such markers are assumed to have on the subjects'

production, and to determine if such an influence also exists in the second section of the test, in which Turkish sentences are not included.



5. ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

The results received from the test have been presented in three columns, referring to sixty students in all, with fifteen students in each group. The answers to questions asked of the fifteen students from each class have been categorized into three types: (1) correct answers, (2) interference-type incorrect answers, and (3) non-interference type incorrect answers (see Appendix II). In each column, how many questions received correct answers, how many are due to native language transfer, and how many are not attributable to language transfer, are clearly demonstrated. The numbers indicated in each column were calculated by computer, and results have been presented in tabular forms.

In order to make the content of the following tables more understandable, I find it necessary to define the following expressions:

Number of Valid Observations (listwise) refers to the total questions punched into the computer as input data.

Variable Correct Answers (in section I): answers (for the class indicated above each table) assumed to correlate with the standard use of English grammatical structures.

Variable Interference-Type-Incorrect Answers (in section II): the incorrect answers assumed to have stemmed from NL grammatical structures

Variable Non-Interference-Type-Incorrect Answers (in section III): the incorrect answers assumed to have occurred free from the influence of NL grammatical structures.

Mean: the average value obtained for each observation (question).

Maximum: number of students producing the answers indicated in each section.

Sum: number of answers calculated for each section.

Valid Observations: total number of questions read (by the computer) for each class.

Classes: classes including the subjects assigned for this study (fifteen students from each class).

Correct: Variable Correct Answers.

I.T.I.A.: Interference-Type-Incorrect Answers.

N.I.T.I.A.: Non-Interference-Type-Incorrect Answers.

Each of the following four tables corresponds to each of the four classes: Table I to first-year students; Table II to second-year students; Table III to third-year students, and Table IV to fourth-year students. In each of the four tables, variables regarding students performance have been presented in three sections; in the first

section, variable correct answers which indicate students' success in English prepositions; in the second section, variable interference-type incorrect answers which show students' reliance on NL, and in the third section, variable non-interference type incorrect answers which are not attributable to native language.

The tables (I - V) provide solid information on students' performance in mastering prepositions; their failure to use the most appropriate preposition in context and to what extent this failure is due to native language transfer of Turkish case markers to English prepositional utterances. These utterances have been analyzed for each class, and relevant information has been indicated respectively in Tables I-V.

First-year Students

With First-year students, 100 valid observations have been indicated and the total number of correct answers for all of the 15 students is 642, as indicated in Section I, Table I. Had students given correct answers to all of the 100 items, the number of correct answers would have been 1500. From what we can see in students' present performance, we can infer that their syntactic level in this particular structural unit (English prepositions) is rather low, as their present score indicates a considerable decrease below the average 50.00 percent of the 1500. The mean for each observation is 6.42, which is again below the average number of the 15 students.

Regarding Interference Type Incorrect Answers, which constitute one of the two types of errors this study deals with, 14 out of the 15 first-year students are observed to produce 363 erroneous prepositions for 100 valid observations, as indicated in Section II, Table I. It is rather significant that except for 1 student, all of the students produced interference type errors. The number of erroneous prepositions indicated in this section, however, constitute 24.20 percent of the total answers received for the 100 items. The mean for each item is 3.63, which constitutes almost half of the mean indicated for correct answers in Section I, Table I.

Another type of error dealt with in this study is non interference errors that do not stem from NL grammatical structures. In this respect, out of 13 of the total 15 first year-students, 495 erroneous prepositions have been received for 100 valid observations, as indicated in Section III, Table I. The total number of non interference errors, as expected, is greater than the number of interference type errors. It can be observed that while interference type errors constitute the 24.20 percent of the total answers, non interference errors constitute 33.00 percent of the total answers. Such an increase indicates that most of the errors, first-year students make in their language learning process, occur free from the influence of NL, i.e. they are intralingual rather than being interlingual. The mean for each non interference item is 4.95, again when compared with the mean for each interference type item in Section II, the increase in the mean for non interference type item is rather conspicuous, being 1.32.

When the total numbers of the two types of errors (Section II-III) are added, we can observe that the amount obtained exceeds the total number obtained in correct answers indicated in Section I. To show this increase in percentage, correct answers constitute 42.80 percent, while the sum of two types of errors (interference type, and non interference type) constitute 57.20 percent.

TABLE I

CLASS I

Number of valid observations (listwise) 100.00			
<u>Section I</u>		<u>Variable Correct Answers</u>	
Mean.....	6.420	S.E Mean...	.441
Variance...	19.418	Kurtosis...	-1.178
Skewness...	.198	S.E Skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum...	15
		STD Dev. ...	4.407
		S.E Kurt. ..	.478
		Range	15.000
		sum	642.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
<u>Section II</u>		<u>Variable Interference-Type Incorrect Answers</u>	
Mean.....	3.630	S.E Mean...	.364
Variance...	13.225	Kurtosis....	-.367
Skewness...	.738	S.E Skew....	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum.....	14
		STD Dev. ...	3.637
		S.E Kurt. ..	.478
		Range.....	14.000
		Sum.....	363.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
<u>Section III</u>		<u>Variable Non-Interference-Type Incorrect Answers</u>	
Mean.....	4.950	S.E Mean...	.280
Variance...	7.866	Kurtosis...	-.060
Skewness...	.296	S.E Skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum....	13
		STD Dev. ...	2.805
		S.E Kurt....	.478
		Range.....	13.000
		Sum.....	495.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0

Second-year Students

With second-year students 100 valid observations have been read and the total number of correct answers received out of 15 students is 704, as indicated in Section I, Table II. Such total number of correct answers indicates that second-year students are fairly competent in the field of English prepositions when compared with first-year students. Yet, still the scores do not constitute half of the number (1500) which students would have come up with had they given correct answers to the 100 valid test items (observations). Rather, their number of correct answers constitutes 46.93 percent which is very close to the percentage of the total answers received for the 100 items. The mean obtained for each observation is 7.04, which is very close to the average number of the 15 students.

Regarding interference type incorrect answers, second-year students produced 356 erroneous prepositions for 100 valid items, as indicated in Section II, Table II. This type of error with second-year students shows a slight decrease when compared with first-year students (Section II, Table I). Such a decrease is naturally expected as a consequence of second-year students' increasing familiarity with the English structure. When expressed in terms of percentage, the total number of interference type errors in this section constitutes 23.73 percent of the total percentage of all received answers. However, the percentage of this type of error with first-year students is 24.20.

Thus, we can observe that second-year students produced this type of error 0.47 percent less than first-year students. The mean indicated for each observed item is 3.56 which is far below the average of the 15 students.

Concerning non interference type answers, we observe that all of the 15 second-year students produced 440 erroneous answers for the total 100 test items, as indicated in Section III, Table II. As students' level increases, this type of error retains its high percentage of occurrence in any grammatical structure. And here, with such type of error, we observe that the percentage of such an error, being 29.33, maintains its high value when compared with interference type error, indicated in Section II, Table II. However, when compared with the same type of error with first-year students, indicated in Section III, Table I, we see that a decrease of 3.67 percent occurs with second-year students. A similar decrease is observed when interference type errors of the two classes are compared with one another. This indicates that second-year students' performance in this particular unit of English structure is far better than first-year students. The mean obtained for each item is 4.40, which is almost 1/3 of the total number of 15 students.

When the total number of the two types of errors (interference type and non interference type) are added, we face with a sum that slightly exceeds the sum obtained in correct answers, indicated in Section I. To indicate such

increase in percentage, the total number of correct answers constitute 46.93 percent of the total answers received, while the percentage obtained for two types of errors is 53.06.

TABLE II

CLASS II

Number of Valid Observations (Listwise)		100.00	
Section I			
Variable Correct Answers			
Mean.....	7.040	S.E Mean...	.507
Variance..	25.675	Kurtosis...	-1.484
Skewness...	.062	S.E Skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum....	15
		STD Dev.....	5.067
		S.E Kurt.....	.478
		Range.....	15.000
		Sum.....	704.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
Section II			
Variable Interference-Type Incorrect Answers			
Mean.....	3.560	S.E Mean...	.395
Variance..	15.623	Kurtosis...	-.286
Skewness...	.921	S.E skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum....	15
		STD Dev.....	3.953
		S.E Kurt.478
		Range.....	15.000
		Sum.....	356.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
Section III			
Variable Non-Interference-Type Incorrect Answers			
Mean.....	4.400	S.E Mean...	.338
Variance..	11.394	Kurtosis...	-.437
Skewness...	.616	S.E Skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum....	15
		STD Dev.....	3.375
		S.E Kurt.478
		Range.....	13.000
		Sum.....	440.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0

Third-year Students

With third-year students, 100 valid observations have been read, and the total number of correct answers for all of the third-year students is 663, as indicated in Section I, Table III. Students are observed to display a rather low performance in this particular unit of English structure, as such a case indicates a deviation from the expected increase due to acquired familiarity with the English language. This might have a great deal to do with factors relevant to background training and education, of course, yet as we are not in the case of probing into such assumed factors, we will be content with presenting the obtained empirical data only. The percentage indicated for third-year students' correct answers is 44.20, which is considerably lower than the percentage obtained for correct answers for second-year students, being 46.93. The mean indicated for each observation is 6.63, which is below the average number of the 15 students.

As indicated in Section II, Table III, third-year students produced 324 interference type erroneous answers for 100 test items, while second-year's is 356. Although third-year students' level of competency in English prepositions is seen to be lower than second-year students', we can observe that their number of NL stemming erroneous answers indicate a decrease of 2.13 percent when compared with interference type incorrect answers of second-year students (Section II, Table II). The mean obtained for each

observation is 3.24. We can also observe that the mean in this type of error, parallel to the decrease occurring in the total number of this type of error, decreases as the grades of students get higher. Such a decrease can be attributed to the fact that as familiarity of students with the language at issue increases, interference errors in language production decreases, while errors made free from the NL influence maintain high percentage of occurrence.

A remarkable increase is indicated in third-year students' non interference type errors. Students' total number of interference errors is 513 for 100 valid observations, as indicated in Section III, Table III. Such a number is far greater than the number (324) of interference type errors indicated for third-year students in Section II, Table III. The great sum of such a type of error with third-year students is worth considering as it is actually, greater than all the sums indicated with other classes. Third-year students, when compared with second-year students, made this type of error with an increase of 4.87 percent. Due to the decreasing number of interference type errors, non interference type errors seem to have gained a significant value. The mean indicated for each item in this type of error is 5.13, which is slightly greater than the 1/3 of the 15 students.

When the total numbers of the two types of errors mentioned in Sections II and III are added, we face with a

number that is significantly greater than the total number of correct answers indicated in Section I, Table III. To indicate such discrepancy in percentage, the total sum of correct answers constitutes the 44.20 percent of total answers, while erroneous answers, with 55.80 percent show an increase of 11.60 percent.

TABLE III

CLASS III

Number of Valid Observations (Listwise) 100.00			
<u>Section I</u>		<u>Variable Correct Answers</u>	
Mean.....	6.630	S.E Mean...	.448
Variance..	20.114	Kurtosis...	-1.218
Skewness...	.136	S.E Skew...	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum....	15
		STD Dev.....	4.485
		S.E Kurt....	.478
		Range.....	15.000
		Sum.....	663.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
<u>Section II</u>		<u>Variable Interference-Type (Incorrect Answers)</u>	
Mean.....	3.240	S.E Mean....	.350
Variance..	12.225	Kurtosis....	-.014
Skewness..	.966	S.E Skew....	.241
Minimum...	0	Maximum....	14
		STD Dev. ...	3.496
		S.E Kurt. ..	.478
		Range.....	14.000
		Sum.....	324.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
<u>Section III</u>		<u>Variable Non-Interference-Type Incorrect Answers</u>	
Mean.....	5.130	S.E Mean....	.325
Variance..	10.579	Kurtosis....	-.849
Skewness..	.378	S.E Skew....	.241
Minimum...	0	Maximum....	12
		STD Dev. ..	3.253
		S.E Kurt...	.478
		Range.....	12.000
		Sum.....	513.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0

Fourth-year Students

As naturally expected, we observe the greatest sum of correct answers with fourth-year students due to their increasing familiarity with the English language. Students produced 768 correct answers for 100 valid test items, as indicated in Section I, Table IV. To illustrate the total number of correct answers in percentage, with 51.20 percent, these students have slightly exceeded the average of total percentage obtained for all types of answers. Although such a percentage does not seem to be of great significance in terms of value, it reflects a considerable increase of progress especially when compared with other classes. The mean obtained for each item is 7.68, which indicates a slight increase over the average of the 15 students.

With fourth-year students, the decrease in interference type incorrect answers maintains its validity going down to a total of 292. Such a result has been obtained from 13 students for 100 test items, as shown in Section II, Table IV. The mean for each item is 2.92, which is rather below the average of the 13 students. Compared with third-year students interference type erroneous answers, fourth-year students' answers indicate a decrease of 2.14 percent, which is evidently greater than the decrease obtained for proportions between first and second-year's, and second and third-year's. This may indicate that in further steps of English language education, reliance on NL

during language production, will decrease until a 'slight' value of such type of errors is obtained. Such a process, however, requires a great deal of language exposition. As mentioned previously, the diminishing sum of errors stemming from NL does not lead us to presuppose that language learners will no longer produce erroneous utterances. On the contrary, we may observe a considerable increase in errors that are not attributable to NL. With fourth-year students, we see that such an assumption gains great validity.

Although third-year students produced a high sum of interference type errors, fourth-year students produced rather less such a type of errors. With fourth-year students, the total number of non interference type errors is observed to be 440, as indicated in Section III, Table IV. Such a number is far below the number (513) obtained with third-year students. We can ascribe such low sum to the success that fourth-year students made in surpassing all the three classes at issue. When put in percentage, we observe that fourth-year students' non interference errors constitute the 29.33 percents of the total answers received out of the 15 students. With fourth-year students, this type of error indicates the same value with second-year students. Such an identical case is, undoubtedly, due to the success both classes have made in English prepositions. The mean indicated for each item is 4.40, which is close to the $\frac{1}{3}$ of the 15 students.

Adding the two types of error (interference type and non interference type), we get 732 erroneous answers, which are slightly less than the number obtained for correct answers (768). To indicate such discrepancy in percentage, the total sum of erroneous answers constitutes the 48.80 percent of the total number of the answers while the percentage of correct answers is 51.20.

TABLE IV

CLASS IV

Number of Valid Observations (Listwise) 100.00			
Section I		Variable Correct Answers	
Mean.....	7.680	S.E Mean....	.471
Variance..	22.200	Kurtosis..	-1.237
Skewness..	-.164	S.E Skew..	.241
Minimum...	0	Maximum...	15
		STD Dev.....	4.712
		S.E Kurt....	.478
		Range.....	15.000
		Sum.....	768.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
Section II		Variable Interference-Type Incorrect Answers	
Mean.....	2.920	S.E Mean....	.347
Variance..	12.054	Kurtosis....	.617
Skewness..	1.218	S.E Skew....	.241
Minimum...	0	Maximum.....	13
		STD Dev.	3.472
		S.E Kurt. ..	.478
		Range.....	13.000
		Sum.....	292.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0
Section III		Variable Non-Interference-Type Incorrect Answers	
Mean.....	4.400	S.E Mean....	.310
Variance...	9.596	Kurtosis....	.583
Skewness...	.788	S.E Skew....	.241
Minimum....	0	Maximum.....	14
		STD Dev.	3.098
		S.E Kurt. ..	.478
		Range.....	14.000
		Sum.....	440.000
Valid Observations	100	Missing Observations	0

Comparing all the figures indicated in the four tables with one another, we can construct the following table:

TABLE V

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Classes	Correct	%	I.T.I.A	%	N.I.T.I.A	%	Total	%
1	642	42.80	363	24.20	495	33.00	1500	100
2	704	46.93	356	23.73	440	29.33	1500	100
3	663	44.20	324	21.60	513	34.20	1500	100
4	768	51.20	292	19.46	440	29.33	1500	100

The table designed above illustrates the total scores of the test given to the four classes (1, 2, 3, 4) including fifteen subjects from each class. The following constitutes the content of the table:

column 1: grades of classes

column 2: total number of correct answers

column 3: percentages of students' success in giving correct answers

column 4: total number of interference-type-incorrect answers (I.T.I.A)

column 5: percentages of occurrence of I.T.I.A

column 6: total number of non-interference-type incorrect answers (N.I.T.I.A)

column 7: percentages of occurrence of N.I.T.I.A

column 8: total number of answers received (from fifteen students from each class) to the

one-hundred-question test
column 9: total percentages of all illustrated types
of answers

Comparing the performance of the four classes indicated in Table V, we see that first-year students with 642 correct answers, are the ones who are the least competent in using prepositions. This fact is assumed to be due to students' limited time of education in English (regarding prepositions) when compared with the other three classes at issue. On the other hand, with 704 correct answers, second-year students, due to more exposition to English, have been observed to be more successful than the first-year students, as well as than third-year students. While they were naturally expected to be more successful, third-year students, with 663 correct answers have been observed to produce less correct answers than second-year students. As mentioned previously, we are in the case of attributing such a result to background education in English. With 768 correct answers, as expected to be, fourth-year students have been observed to score the highest result. We ascribe such a fact to students' increasing familiarity with English (see column 2).

Regarding interference type errors (see column 4), we can observe that the figures decrease gradually, starting from the very top to the bottom - the figures being for first-year students 363; for second-year students 356; for third-year students 324, and for fourth-year students 292.

Comparing these figures with one another, we find that first-year students reverted to NL more than the other three classes did. As mentioned before, the reason for this is the insufficient familiarity with the English prepositions. As familiarity with L2 increases, reversion to NL decreases. Thus, second-year students, with more familiarity with L2, reverted to NL less than first-year students did; third-year students reverted to NL less than second-year students did, and fourth-year students, due to their familiarity with L2 (regarding the overall four classes) reverted to NL least.

When compared with interference type errors, it can be observed that non interference type prepositional errors (see Column 6) constitute higher percentages with all the four classes. Thus, due to rising familiarity with L2, students' intralingual errors maintain high percentage of occurrence when compared with interference type errors. With third-year students, the sum of such type of error has been observed to be higher than the other three classes. This we can attribute to the low value of correct answers third-year students produced. While the number of third-year students' interference type answers is 324, the number of non interference type errors are 513. Here we can observe that students produced this type of error 12.60 percent more than interference type error. With 495 non interference erroneous answers, first-year students are the ones who most committed this type of error following

third-year students. With 440 non interference errors, second and fourth-year students committed this type of error the least. We, again, ascribe this type of students' performance to their high familiarity with English, compared with first and third-year students.



6. CONCLUSION

As a result of this study, it has been observed that there is a transfer of Turkish case markers to English prepositional sentences, and that such a transfer decreases as the learner of the foreign language gets more familiar with the linguistic rules and the culture of the language at issue. The assumption such a transfer may not occur is little supported by the evidence.

The transfer observed in the one hundred-question test, however, is small when compared with other prepositional errors resulting from other unknown psychological processes.

Prepositional errors traced to native-language rules show gradual decrease, starting with first-year students and continuing on to fourth-year students. This is, probably, not an amount of great significance (as it may not really mean a great deal to the researcher); still the gradual decrease of numbers is worth considering when 'transfer' is concerned.

Prepositional errors that are not considered to stem from native language maintain their high level in almost every class, and this is a very good indication that not all (in fact, not even half of all) errors are due to interference of native language rules in L2 production.

Although the discrepancies between the figures in Table V do not illustrate meaningful value, fourth-year students, with 768 correct answers have been found to be the most competent students in mastering prepositional usages. Second come the second-year students, with 704 correct answers; third, the third-year students, with 663 correct answers, and the first-year students, with 642 answers, are the least competent ones.

Concerning the figures for interference-type incorrect answers, first-year students, with a sum of 363, are the ones who reverted most to their native language. This, most probably, can be attributed to the fact that first-year students are not as familiar with this structural aspect (prepositions) of the English language as the other three classes. Second-year students produced 356 answers. Third-year students produced 324 answers, and fourth-year students produced 292 answers. Thus, the figures can be observed to decrease gradually starting with the first-year students to fourth year students due to their increasing familiarity with English(6).

When compared with non-interference type incorrect answers, interference type errors present relatively low percentages in all the tables. The figures of non interference errors for first-year students' are 495, for second-year students are 440, for third-year students are 513, and for fourth-year students are 440. When these figures are compared with interference errors mentioned in

the previous paragraph, a high amount of increase is observed in favor of non interference errors.

Thus, assuming that all or most of language learners' errors stem from NL grammatical structures would err the language teacher, and would possibly lead him/her to adopt or continue to use schedules that might result with unsuccessful L2 teaching. Such a dire situation might even frustrate students, and cause them to lose their interest in language learning. In order to avoid situations likewise, language teaching schedules should not be based only on contrasting and/or similar points between NL and L2, rather, as discussed in Selinker, the language teacher should go beyond by studying "language learning strategies" followed by the L2 learner, and devise his/her teaching material accordingly.

In the light of the empirical data obtained with this study, the claim that all learners' errors are attributable to NL transfer, as supported by contrastive analysis proponents, has been observed to be invalid. Thus, reliance on error analysis (in which L2 learners' errors are analyzed, being attributed to various learning strategies previously discussed in Selinker) would be inevitable.

APPENDIX I

Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate preposition to fit in the blank of the translated version of the Turkish sentences. Here are some prepositions you may make use of: on, of, from, with, in, about, over, by, for, at, against, than, until, etc.,; some blanks may not require a preposition, in this case put a hyphen in the blank.

1. be afraid (korkmak)

John yılanlar-dan korkar.

John is afraid snakes.

2. complain (şikayet etmek)

Jim Max-i Crise şikayet etti.

Jim complainedMax to Cris.

3. confide (sır vermek)

Siz-e sırlarımı verebilir miyim?

Can I confide you?

4. bear (tahammül etmek)

Tom'un sözlerin-e tahammülüm kalmadı.

I can no longer bear Tom's remarks.

5. cry (ağlamak)

Çocuk acı-dan ağlamaya başladı.

The child began to cry pain.

6. be deaf (sağır olmak)

Genç adam her iki kulagın-dan sağır.

The young man is deaf both ears.

7. be angry (kızgın olmak)

Eve geç geldiği için, Alice Frank-e kızdı.

Alice got angryFrank because he came home late.

8. approve (onaylamak)

Plan-ı onaylayacak mısınız?

Will you approve the plan?

9. feed (beslemek)

Bebegi yalnız süt-le besleyiniz.

Feed the baby milk only.

10. be aware (haberdar olmak)

Etrafındaki tehlikeler-den haberdar değil.

He is not aware the dangers around him.

11. be married (evli olmak)

Henry oldukça zeki bir kadın-la evlidir.

Henry is married a very intelligent woman.

12. operate (ameliyat etmek)

Liz-i dün saat beşte ameliyat ettiler.

They operated Liz yesterday at five.

13. persist (ısrar etmek)

Yasaları çiğnemek-te ısrar etti.

He persisted breaking the law.

14. pity (acımak)

En sonunda o-na acıdı.

She at last pitied him.

15. be pleased (hoşnut olmak)

Sınav sonuçların-dan hoşnut musunuz?

Are you pleased the test scores?

16. argue (tartışmak)

Sizinle bu konu-da tartışmak istemiyorum.

I do not want to argue with you this subject.

17. collide (çarpışmak)

Kamyon siyah araba(y)-la çarpıştı.

The truck collided the black car.

18. be content (yetinmek)

Sahip oldukların-la yetin

Be content what you have.

19. devote (adamak)

Kendini politika-ya adadı.

He devoted himself politics.

20. prepare (hazırlanmak)
Sınavlar-a hazırlanma zamanıdır.
It is time to prepare the exams.
21. make profit (kazanç sağlamak)
Bu mallar-dan ne kadar kazanç sağladınız?
How much profit did you make these goods?
22. get relieved (kurtulmak)
Nihayet endişelerin-den kurtuldu.
Finally, she got relieved her anxieties.
23. be responsible (sorumlu olmak)
Mesajı iletmek-ten Frank sorumluydu.
Frank was responsible delivering the message.
24. be occupied (meşgul olmak)
Bob kitap okumak-la meşgul.
Bob is occupied reading a book.
25. quarrel (kavga etmek)
Tim-le kavga etmeye hiç niyetim yok.
I do not have the slightest intention of quarreling
..... Tim.
26. resign (istifa etmek)
Yeni işin-den istifa etti.
He resigned his new job.

27. be satisfied (yetinmek)
Tek bir kitap-la yetinmiş görünüyor.
She seems to have been satisfied only one
book.
28. be secure (korunmuş olmak)
Kale saldırılar-dan korunmuştur.
The castle is secure attacks.
29. share (paylaşmak)
Jim sizin-le aynı düşünceyi paylaşıyor.
Jim shares the same idea you.
30. be found guilty (suçlu bulunmak)
Cinayet-ten suçlu bulundu.
He was found guilty murder.
1. insist (ısrar etmek)
Gitar çalmak-ta ısrar etti.
She insisted playing the guitar.
32. invest (yatırım yapmak)
Bu iş-e hayatımı yatırdım.
I invested my life this bussines.
33. be irrelavent (ilgisiz olmak)
Söyledikleriniz konuy-la ilgisiz.
What you have said is irrelavent the subject.

34. be jealous (kıskanmak)

O-nu kıskanmana gerek yok.

You do not need to be jaealous him.

35. laugh (gölmek)

Herkes yaşlı palyaço-ya gülüyordu.

All laughed the old clown.

36. stand (direnmek)

Bu duvar suy-a direnemez.

This wall will not stand water.

37. be sincere (samimi olmak)

Sözlerin-de samimi görünüyor.

She seems to be sincere her remarks.

38. be similar (benzer olmak)

Yeni eviniz eski evimiz-e benziyor.

Your new house is similar our old house.

39. be unfaithful (sadık olmamak)

Dostunuz siz-e sadık değil.

Your friend is unfaithful you.

40. suffer (acı çekmek)

Onbeş yıldır bu hastalık-tan çekiyor.

He has been suffering this disease for
fifteen years.

41. be unrelated (alakasız olmak)
Düşünceniz konuy-la alakasız.
Your idea is unrelated the subject.
42. be vital (çok gerekli olmak)
Desteyiniz çalıřmalarım-a çok gerekli.
Your support is vital my studies.
43. be away (uzakta olmak)
Yirmi yıldır ailesin-den uzakta.
He has been away his family for twenty years.
44. belonging (ait olan)
řirket-e ait olan bir arabayla geldi.
He came in a car belonging the company.
45. be busy (meřgul olmak)
Henry arabay-la meřgul.
Henry is busy the car.
46. be close (yakın olmak)
Evimiz müze-ye yakın.
Our house is close the museum.
47. die (ölmek)
Adam kanser-den öldü.
The man died cancer.

48. disconnect (koparmak)
Kabloyu duvar-dan koparabilirsin.
You may disconnect the cable the wall.
49. be exiled (sürgün edilmek)
Ülkesin-den sürgün edildi.
He has been exiled his country.
50. escape (kaçmak)
Ev-den kaçtığıında onbeş yaşındaydı.
He was fifteen when he escaped home.
51. be engaged (nişanlı olmak)
Mary is engaged Tom.
52. walk (yürümek)
We walked the rain for three hours.
53. perch (konmak)
The bird preched the wall.
54. take revenge (intikam almak)
She finally took revenge her husband.
55. sneer (sırıtmak)
Ron sneered the speaker.
56. stare (dik dik bakmak)
People were staring..... the young lady.

57. succeed (başarmak)
We succeeded moving the car.
58. be superior (üstün olmak)
She is not superior him.
59. swear (küfür etmek)
He swore his bad luck.
60. think (düşünmek)
Frank is still thinking his sick father.
61. trust (güvenmek)
They trust her judgement (değerlendirme).
62. wait (beklemek)
I have waited you for two hours.
63. be uncertain (emin olmamak)
They are uncertain the time of the meeting.
64. be worthy (değer olmak)
She is worthy help.
65. declare war (savaş açmak)
Iraq has declared war Iran.
66. wink (göz kırpmak)
She winked her son.

67. worry (merak etmek)

Don't worry the child.

68. be accused (suçlanmak)

The man is accused theft.

69. be annoyed (rahatsız olmak)

She is annoyed you.

70. be apprehensive (kaygılı olmak)

Nick is apprehensive the future.

71. fly (uçmak)

The paper flew the air.

72. talk (konuşmak)

Gene is talking the telephone.

73. fall (düşmek)

The glass fell the table.

74. drive (motorlu araçla geçmek)

We drove the forest.

75. hold (tutmak)

Will you hold the child his hand, please?

76. be wounded (yaralanmak)

The man was wounded the face.

77. shoot (silahla vurmak)

The hunter (avcı) shot the elephant the heart
(yürek).

78. lie (uzanmak)

The dog is lying the sun.

79. have (sahip olmak)

I have a little meat my plate.

80. be ashamed (utanç duymak)

Rick is ashamed his friends.

81. be blind (kör olmak)

He is blindboth eyes.

82. be born (doğmuş olmak)

He was born a rich family.

83. be composed (oluşmak)

Water is composed hydrogen and oxygen.

84. be conscious (haberdar olmak)

The lady is not conscious the danger.

85. be full (dolu olmak)

The glass is full water.

86. be good (becerikli olmak)

She is good languages.

87. be cured (tedavi sonucu iyileşmek)
She was cured her disease.
88. be ignorant (haberdar olmamak)
He is ignorant her presence.
89. be inferior (düşük olmak)
She is not inferior you.
90. be interested (ilgilenmek)
The children are not interested playing
football.
91. be respectful (saygılı olmak)
He is not respectful her demands.
92. be lame (topal olmak)
Ron is lame his left leg.
93. be made (yapılmış olmak)
The table is made wood.
94. be neglectful (ihmal etmek)
She is neglectful her children.
95. be proud (gururlanmak)
Bob is proud his wife.

96. be renowned (meşhur olmak)

This country is renowned its hospitality.

97. be sure (emin olmak)

She is sure the results.

98. be tired (yorgun olmak)

We are tired working all day long.

99. talk (bahsetmek)

He talked his grandfather.

100. be different (farklı olmak)

Tomorrow will be different today.

APPENDIX II

CLASS 1

QUES- TIONS	CORRECT ANSWERS	INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS	NON-INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS
1	14 of	1 by	-
2	6 about	-	4 of 1 on 2 with 1 against 1 0
3	-	8 to	1 at 2 on 1 by 1 for 2 0
4	2 0	6 to	1 in 2 at 1 on 1 over 1 of 1 about
5	1 with	7 from	4 of 1 about 1 on 1 for
6	-	9 from	1 on 1 with 1 at 2 of 1 0
7	5 with	5 to	1 on 3 about 1 at
8	4 0 4 of	-	1 over 3 about 1 with 1 for 1 on
9	11 with	-	1 to 3 by
10	9 of	4 from	1 about 1 over
11	2 to	12 with	1 by
12	3 on	2 to	1 over 1 until 8 0
13	1 in	10 on	1 about 1 at 1 for 1 0
14	3 0	3 to	2 of 3 at 3 for 1 on
15	4 with	7 from	1 over 2 about 1 of
16	8 about 6 on	-	1 at
17	11 with	-	1 by 1 on 1 to 1 against
18	7 with	-	2 by 1 at 1 of 3 on 1 about
19	6 to	5 for	2 on 1 in 1 0
20	9 for	3 to	1 of 2 on
21	2 on	9 from	1 over 1 to 1 of 1 0
22	2 of	10 from	1 to 1 against 1 for
23	8 for	3 from	2 of 2 to
24	6 with	4 by	1 of 2 on 1 to 1 for
25	11 with	-	1 at 1 on 2 to
26	9 from	-	1 on 3 of 1 up 1 0
27	11 with	-	1 on 1 from 1 for 1 by
28	12 from	-	1 than 1 to 1 against
29	14 with	-	1 of
30	5 of	4 from	1 by 1 in 1 for 1 on 1 about 1 at

31	10 on	-	2 of 1 at 1 to 1 0
32	2 in	2 to 3 for	7 on 1 at
33	-	5 with	1 by 2 about 1 against 1 from 1 than 2 for 1 on 1 to
34	5 of	1 to	2 for 3 on 1 at 1 with 1 about 1 against
35	10 at	3 to	1 on 1 about
36	5 against	3 to	1 of 1 for 2 on 1 at 2 0
37	5 in	5 with	2 at 1 for 1 about 1 on
38	7 to	-	1 of 3 with 1 from 1 at 2 0
39	10 to	-	2 on 2 against 1 for
40	10 from	-	2 of 1 on 1 about 1 for
41	1 to	9 with	1 of 1 by 2 about 1 on
42	2 to 10 for	-	1 at 1 in 1 on
43	15 from	-	-
44	13 to	-	1 at 1 from
45	15 with	-	-
46	11 to	-	1 of 1 over 1 by 1 0
47	3 of	9 from	1 off 1 over 1 0
48	9 from	-	1 off 2 of 1 over 2 on
49	11 from	-	1 over 1 on 1 of 1 0
50	11 from	-	1 at 1 to 1 of 1 0
51	1 to	14 with	-
52	3 in	6 under	3 on 1 for 1 against 1 0
53	10 on	-	1 to 1 over 1 at 1 from 1 0
54	1 on	7 from	2 to 1 against 3 of 1 by
55	4 at	8 to	1 of 1 against 1 0
56	10 at	2 to	3 0
57	2 in	2 to	2 of 4 on 5 0
58	1 to	6 than 2 from	1 at 1 of 1 off 1 on 1 as 1 with
59	5 at	5 to	1 for 1 on 1 with 2 0
60	7 of 8 about	-	-
61	1 in 4 0	1 to	5 on 1 about 1 with 2 at
62	11 for	4 to	-
63	8 about	-	2 on 1 at 1 to 1 for 1 with 1 0
64	3 of	8 to	2 for 1 on 1 in
65	-	2 against 11 to	1 of 1 in
66	7 at	5 to	1 on 2 0
67	13 about 1 for	-	1 with
68	4 of	2 from	1 to 4 with 1 at 1 against 1 for 1 about

69	2 with	5 from	1 about 1 on 4 of 2 by
70	9 about	1 from	2 to 3 for
71	8 in	-	3 over 1 with 1 to 1 on 1 0
72	7 on	1 with	1 in 2 at 2 about 2 to
73	1 off	7 on 3 from	2 down 1 in 1 under
74	3 in 4through	-	3 to 1 on 1 over 1 into 2 against
75	3 by	5 from	2 to 1 in 1 at 1 with 2 on
76	2 in	4 from	1 of 4 on 3 at 1 by
77	2 in	6 from	2 by 3 at 1 through 1 on
78	4 in	7 under	4 on
79	7 on	7 in	1 with
80	6 of	3 from	2 to 1 on 1 with 1 for 1 0
81	-	3 from	2 with 3 on 1 off 1 at 1 for 4 0
82	-	10 in	1 as 2 to 1 for 1 from
83	2 of	3 from 6 by	4 with
84	6 of	3 from	1 by 4 about 1 0
85	11 of	3 with	1 in
86	12 at	1 in	1 with 1 on
87	4 of	6 from	1 by 1 until 2 on 1 0
88	4 of	4 from	2 with 2 on 2 at 1 about
89	1 to	3 from 5 than	3 on 1 of 2 about
90	11 in	-	3 on 1 0
91	2 to		2 with 4 on 1 of 1 by 2 for 1 against 1 in 1 0
92	-	8 from	1 to 3 on 2 at 1 0
93	10 off 2 from	-	2 by 1 with
94	3 of	5 to	1 about 3 on 1 by 1 with 1 0
95	11 of	1 with	1 at 2 on
96	1 for	8 with	3 about 1 by 1 at 1 to
97	4 about 4 of	4 from	1 at 1 to 1 with
98	11 of	1 from	1 at 1 by 1 0
99	9 about	-	3 with 3 to
100	11 from	3 than	1 as

CLASS 2

QUES- TIONS	CORRECT ANSWERS	INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS	NON-INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS
1	14 of	1 from	-
2	10 about	2 to	3 0
3	1 in	8 to	1 of 1 for 1 by 3 0
4	8 0	2 to	4 of 1 with
5	7 with	6 from	1 of 1 from
6	2 in	2 from	3 of 2 for 2 by 1 with 1 to 2 0
7	10 with	2 to	2 about 1 at
8	10 0 2 of	-	3 on
9	12 with	-	1 on 1 of 1 by
10	13 of	-	1 with 1 to
11	-	9 with	6 0
12	-	2 to	1 for 12 0
13	-	15 on	-
14	4 0	5 to	1 of 3 on 2 for
15	2 with	2 from	2 to 2 of 2 for 3 about 1 on 1 in
16	7 on 7 about	-	1 to
17	6 with	-	6 to 1 on 2 0
18	7 with	-	2 of 1 on 5 0
19	9 to	3 for	2 on 1 in
20	9 for	1 to	1 about 1 by 1 of 2 0
21	1 on	10 from	1 to 1 of 1 by 1 with
22	5 of	8 from	2 0
23	-	12 from	2 of 1 on
24	2 0.5 with	4 by	1 to 1 in 1 on 1 of
25	14 with	-	1 about
26	9 from	-	1 to 1 of 4 0
27	10 with	-	1 to 3 from 1 by
28	7 from	-	3 of 3 for 2 0
29	15 with	-	-
30	3 of	1 from	1 to 3 for 2 in 1 about 4 0
31	15 on	-	-
32	-	3 to 3 for	9 on
33	3 to	7 with	2 from 2 about 1 on
34	11 of	2 to	1 for 1 0

35	13 at	-	2 0
36	-	6 to	2 by 2 for 1 up 2 on 2 0
37	2 in	1 with	2 to 2 about 2 of 3 on 2 at 1 by
38	9 to	-	4 with 1 of 1 0
39	14 to	-	1 with
40	7 from	-	2 to 1 of 1 on 1 with 3 0
41	3 to	9 with	1 about 1 by 1 0
42	4 to 11 for	-	-
43	12 from	-	1 off 1 of 1 with
44	15 to	-	-
45	12 with	-	1 about 1 by 1 on
46	13 to	-	1 by 1 on
47	3 of	8 from	2 for 1 with 1 0
48	11 from	-	1 for 1 over 1 off 1 0
49	11 from	-	2 of 1 to 1 in
50	12 from	-	1 of 2 0
51	2 to	9 with	4 0
52	8 in	4 under	1 on 1 to 1 with
53	14 on	-	1 over
54	2 on	9 from	2 to 2 of
55	3 at	11 to	1 0
56	11 at	4 to	-
57	11 in	-	2 on 2 0
58	2 to	6 from 6 than	1 of
59	3 at	8 to	2 for 1 of 1 on
60	5 of 10 about	-	-
61	6 0 2 in	3 to	2 on 2 with
62	14 for	1 to	-
63	2 of 6 about	1 from	3 for 1 at 2 0
64	-	12 to	2 for 1 0
65	-	2 against 9 to	3 with 1 0
66	2 at	11 to	2 0
67	15 about	-	-
68	12 of	-	1 for 1 with 1 by
69	5 with	5 from	1 to 2 by 1 of 1 0
70	7 about	-	6 for 1 in 1 than
71	1 in 2 into	4 to	3 over 1 with 1 on 2 up 1 toward
72	6 on	2 with	3 to 2 at 2 by
73	1 onto	5 from	2 down 1 of 6 on
74	1 in 1 through	2 from 1 by	4 to 1 away 2 into 2 towards 1 0

75 1 by	5 from	1 to 2 in 5 on 1 with
76 1 in	5 from	1 about 3 by 1 to 3 on 1 of
77 -	9 from	4 on 1 to 1 by
78 4 in	7 under	3 on 1 0
79 4 on	11 in	-
80 13 of	-	1 about 1 with
81 1 in	4 from	2 with 3 of 1 for 4 0
82 -	10 in	1 at 1 from 1 with 1 by 1 0
83 4 of	6 from 5 by	-
84 5 of	4 from	3 about 1 for 1 with 1 against
85 13 of	2 with	-
86 11 at	1 in	1 about 2 on
87 2 of	1 from	1 to 4 by 3 after 1 in 3 0
88 2 of	7 from	3 about 1 for 2 0
89 3 to	1 from 5 than	2 on 1 with 2 of 1 0
90 13 in	-	1 with 1 0
91 10 to	-	1 of 2 for 1 at 1 0
92 2 in	3 from	1 to 3 by 1 with 2 on 1 of 2 0
93 10 of 2 from	-	2 by 1 in
94 1 of	7 to	2 about 2 for 3 0
95 12 of	2 with	1 than
96 1 for	4 with	2 from 1 in 5 by 2 of
97 8 of 5 about	2 from	-
98 11 of	1 from	2 by 1 0
99 10 about	-	4 to 1 on
1009 from	5 than	1 0

CLASS 3

QUES- TIONS	CORRECT ANSWERS	INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS	NON-INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS
1	15 of	-	-
2	8 about	-	1 at 6 0
3	1 in	10 to	1 of 1 on 2 0
4	4 0	5 to	3 against 2 of 1 on
5	3 with	7 from	1 by 1 on 2 for 1 of
6	-	7 from	4 of 1 at 1 with 1 on 1 by
7	9 with	4 to	1 for 1 0
8	8 0	-	6 on 1 for
9	11 with	-	4 by

10	14 of	1 from	-
11	5 to	5 with	5 0
12	2 on	1 to	12 0
13	1 in	9 on	1 to 1 about 1 by 2 0
14	6 0	4 to	1 at 4 on
15	3 with	1 from	4 of 1 for 4 about 2 0
16	9 about 4 on	1 in	1 at
17	7 with	-	3 by 1 to 1 against 2 0 1 into
18	8 with	-	5 0 1 on 1 of
19	12 to	-	2 on 1 over
20	8 for	2 to	2 on 1 about 2 0
21	1 on	9 from	4 of 1 0
22	6 of	8 from	1 on
23	4 for	4 from	4 of 1 by 1 in 1 0
24	1 0 8 with	3 by	1 for 2 in
25	12 with	-	2 by 1 to
26	8 from	-	3 of 1 to 1 over 2 0
27	10 with	-	1 of 1 from 3 by
28	8 from	-	5 against 1 by 1 of
29	14 with	-	1 to
30	3 of	2 from	3 for 3 on 2 by 2 0
31	9 on	-	2 for 2 of 1 to 1 0
32	1 in	2 to 2 for	7 on 1 about 2 0
33	1 to	7 with	3 by 2 about 1 of 1 0
34	9 of	2 to	1 on 1 about 2 with
35	7 at	6 to	2 0
36	8 against	2 to	2 in 1 on 1 for 1 0
37	4 in	3 with	2 on 2 to 2 by 2 at
38	9 to	-	3 with 1 for 1 about 1 0
39	10 to	-	2 on 1 about 2 with
40	8 from	-	3 of 1 about 1 by 1 with 1 0
41	3 to	10 with	1 by 1 0
42	4 to 7 for	-	2 in 2 0
43	14 from	-	1 0
44	12 to	-	1 on 2 0
45	12 with	-	3 by
46	13 to	-	1 about 1 0
47	5 of	6 from	2 by 2 0
48	13 from	-	1 on 1 against
49	13 from	-	1 in 1 to

50	13 from	-	2 0
51	3 to	9 with	1 in 2 0
52	7 in	4 under	1 on 1 by 1 with 1 to
53	15 on	-	-
54	-	8 from	1 with 5 of 1 0
55	1 at	10 to	1 from 2 on 1 0
56	7 at	6 to	2 on
57	4 in	-	2 for 2 on 3 by 2 at 1 with 1 0
58	3 to	3 from 7 than	1 on 1 of
59	2 at	3 to	1 on 4 for 2 of 2 about 1 0
60	9 of 3 about	2 to	1 for
61	3 0 3 in	4 to	1 than 1 about 3 on
62	10 for	3 0 2 to	-
63	5 of 6 about	1 from	3 on
64	4 of	7 to	1 over 1 for 1 with 1 0
65	-	7 against 7 to	1 with
66	2 at	10 to	1 on 2 0
67	12 about 1 for	-	1 with 1 0
68	4 of	4 from	2 for 1 to 1 by 2 with 1 on
69	1 with	2 from	5 by 6 of 1 0
70	6 about	2 from	2 on 2 for 1 to 2 by
71	5 in 2 through	2 to	2 over 2 on 1 at 1 up
72	5 on	1 with	5 to 2 by 1 in 1 about
73	-	5 from 7 on	1 over 2 in
74	2 in 2 through	1 from	4 to 2 by 2 over 1 among 1 0
75	2 by	2 from	4 on 3 in 2 with 2 0
76	-	5 from	5 on 3 by 1 with 1 0
77	-	7 from	3 on 3 by 1 to 1 0
78	1 in	3 under	2 to 5 on 2 against 2 0
79	6 on	7 in	1 with 1 0
80	11 of	2 from	1 on 1 by
81	2 in	7 from	3 of 1 on 1 by 1 0
82	-	10 in	2 from 1 by 2 0
83	4 of	4 from 5 by	1 with 1 0
84	4 of	3 from	7 about 1 0
85	13 of	-	1 on 1 by
86	12 at	1 in	1 for 1 of
87	1 of	3 from	1 with 1 over 2 for 1 at 2 by 4 0
88	6 of	2 from	4 about 1 for 1 by 1 0

89	4 to	6 than	3 of 1 with 1 0
90	13 in	-	1 on 1 with
91	6 to	-	2 on 2 of 1 against 2 with 2 0
92	-	6 from	3 of 3 on 1 about 1 by 1 0
93	9 of	-	2 on 1 with 2 in 1 by
94	3 of	2 to	4 about 1 with 5 0
95	13 of	2 with	-
96	1 for	3 with	1 in 2 of 1 to 1 about 3 by 1 from 2 0
97	5 of 6 about	1 from	3 0
98	10 of	-	2 for 1 on 2 0
99	6 about	-	1 with 6 to 1 on 1 0
100	10 from	3 than	2 0

CLASS 4

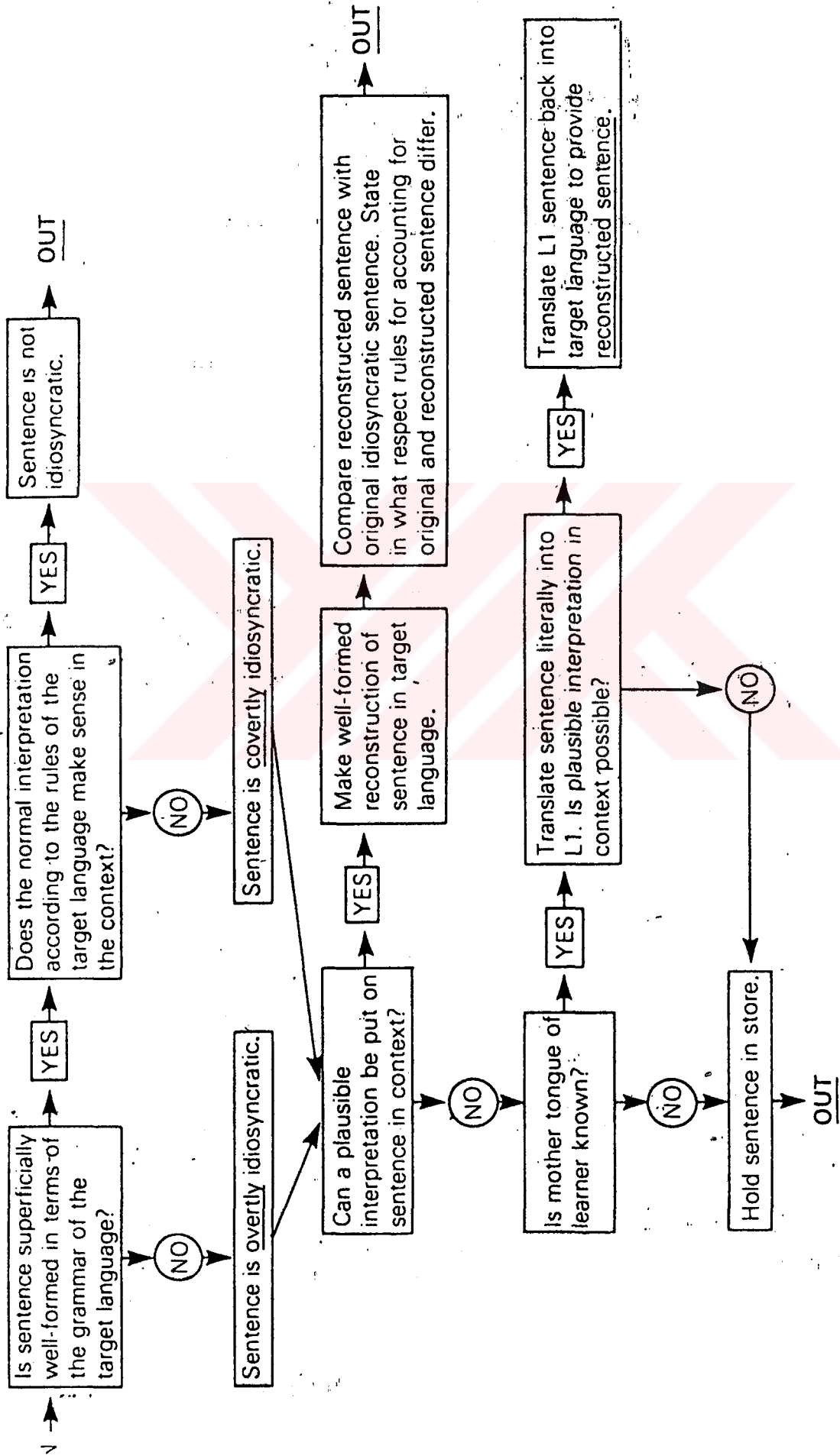
QUES- TIONS	CORRECT ANSWERS	INTERFERENCE- TYPE ANSWERS	NON-INTERFERENCE TYPE ANSWERS
1	15 of	-	-
2	9 about	-	1 with 5 0
3	-	5 to	2 with 1 at 7 0
4	5 0	5 to	2 of 1 on 1 about 1 from
5	7 with	3 from	1 about 1 out 1 at 1 by 1 0
6	3 in	2 from	2 with 1 for 5 of 1 on 1 0
7	13 with	2 to	-
8	11 0	-	3 on 1 for
9	13 with	-	2 by
10	15 of	-	-
11	6 to	3 with	6 0
12	1 on	-	1 at 13 0
13	2 in	10 on	1 to 1 for 1 0
14	4 0	4 to	2 at 1 against 4 on
15	7 with	4 from	1 about 1 of 1 in 1 0
16	7 about 5 on	-	2 at 1 0
17	9 with	-	3 to 1 over 1 against 1 0
18	13 with	-	2 0
19	9 to	2 for	1 of 3 on
20	9 for	1 to	1 in 1 about 3 0
21	-	10 from	1 in 1 for 1 of 1 with 1 0
22	1 of	12 from	1 about 1 0

23	9 for	2 from	1 of 1 with 1 by 1 about
24	12 with	1 by	1 at 1 for
25	14 with	-	1 to
26	9 from	-	1 at 1 over 1 to 3 0
27	12 with	-	1 for 1 by 1 at
28	9 from	-	5 against 1 for
29	15 with	-	-
30	5 of	3 from	3 for 1 about 1 on 1 with 1 0
31	11 on	1 in	2 for 1 0
32	2 in	7 to 2 for	2 on 1 at 1 over
33	3 to	8 with	1 of 3 about
34	10 of	1 to	1 with 1 over 2 0
35	13 at	2 to	-
36	7 against	2 to	1 of 1 on 1 over 3 0
37	5 in	3 with	2 about 2 on 2 at 1 0
38	10 to	-	4 with 1 0
39	12 to	-	1 with 1 on 1 0
40	9 from	-	1 for 1 to 2 of 2 0
41	6 to	7 with	2 about
42	13 for 1 to	-	1 over
43	14 from	-	1 of
44	14 to	-	1 from
45	13 with	-	2 about
46	12 to	1 about	2 0
47	7 of	4 from	2 by 1 for 1 0
48	12 from	-	2 on 1 with
49	15 from	-	-
50	12 from	-	3 0
51	2 to	11 with	2 0
52	11 in	3 under	1 on
53	11 on	-	1 to 3 over
54	-:	7 from	5 of 1 for 1 at 1 0
55	9 at	5 to	1 against
56	10 at	2 to	1 with 1 in 1 against
57	10 in	-	2 at 1 on 2 0
58	3 to	7 than 2 from	1 at 1 over 1 on
59	6 at	5 to	1 on 1 for 2 0
60	9 of 4 about	-	1 for 1 0
61	2 0 3 in	1 to	7 on 1 of 1 at
62	14 for	1 0	-
63	1 of 7 about	-	3 for 1 with 1 on 1 at 1 0

64 -	10 to	2 for 1 about 2 0
65 -	8against 5 to	1 with 1 0
66 6 at	5 to	1 with 3 0
67 11about 2 for -	-	1 of 1 0
68 3 of	-	1 on 2 about 2 by 3 for 2 at 2 with
69 2 with 1 at	3 from	6 of 1 for 1 than 1 0
70 8 about	1 from	3 for 2 of 1 with
71 6 in 2 into	2 to	2 at 2 up 1 over
72 8 on	2 with	2 about 2 to 1 by
73 -	4 on 5 from	1 at 1 in 2 over 2 down
74 4in 5through	-	2 at 1 across 1 over 1 between 1 0
75 2 by	5 from	1 to 1 up 3 with 1 on 1 in 1 at
76 -	8 from	5 on 1 with 1 0
77 2 in	8 from	2 at 1 about 1 on 1 0
78 7 in	4 under	1 over 1 on 2 at
79 8 on	7 in	-
80 11 of	1 from	2 at 1 than
81 2 in	3 from	1 with 1 at 4 of 1 on 3 0
82 -	13 in	1 from 1 0
83 4 of	2 from 3 by	2 with 1 about 3 0
84 3 of	3 from	5 about 2 on 2 0
85 12 of	2 with	1 in
86 11 at	2 in	2 on
87 3 of	4 from	2 with 1 than 1 over 1 by 1 about 2 0
88 5 of	2 from	1 for 1 about 1 than 1 over 4 0
89 2 to	1 from 7than	2 of 1 with 1 against 1 0
90 15 in	-	-
91 3 to	-	2 against 1 of 5 for 2 on 1 about 1 0
92 1 in	6 from	1 for 3 with 1 on 2 of 1 0
93 10 of 2 from	-	1 by 1 on 1 0
94 -	2 to	6 for 2 by 1 about 1 over 3 0
95 14 of	-	1 by
96 2 for	7 with	3 of 2 by 1 0
97 4 of 5 about	3 from	1 for 2 0
98 14 of	-	1 by
99 9 about	-	4 to 1 with 1 at
1007 from	4 than	1 to 1 for 1 in 1 0

Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis

Algorithm for providing data for description of idiosyncratic dialects



FOOTNOTES

1. From my experience of being an observer in an advanced class where a group of electrical engineers were learning English, I can tell that they could very well exchange ideas in their native language using the terminology related to their profession. But when they were asked by the teacher (perhaps unaware of the fact that half an hour before the class has started, they were chatting about an apparatus using their own terminology) to describe an electrical machine illustrated on a piece of paper, although they immediately recognized it, they could not describe it, no matter how hard they tried. There certainly are many factors that may count for such a failure, yet the most prominent one, to me, was their incompetence in synthesizing their 'fragmented vocabulary' with their 'precarious knowledge of syntax.'
2. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen. Language Two (pp. 41-45). Oxford Univ. press, New York, 1982.
3. Every year, in Turkey, on a date determined by University Nominees Selection and Placement Council, in connection with the Higher Education Council (YÖK), two exams are administered and given to university nominees including both senior high school students and former graduates of high schools. With the first test, two objects are aimed at: (1) evaluating examinees' performance in a previously determined (by nominees) domain such as mathematics, social sciences, etc., and (2) determining a certain number of

examinees (considering the average scores required) that will be entitled to take part in the second test. With the second test, placement of nominees (regarding their test scores, subject preference, and the hosting capacity of universities) at universities is aimed at.

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5. The Turkish counterparts have been presented in accordance with the contextual meanings of the key English vocabulary items.
6. In this respect, Barry P. Taylor states that "as the learner learns more about the target language, reliance on the native language will decrease, and errors attributable to target language syntactic overgeneralization will increase" (Taylor, 1975)

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