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ERROR ANALYSIS OF PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS IN THE USE OF  
ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL PREPOSITIONS AND NON-LITERAL PHRASAL  
VERBS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GAZIANTEP

Master's Thesis

Presented by

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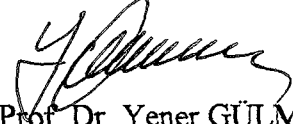
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Approval of the Graduate School of Social Science



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I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts



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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in English Language Teaching.



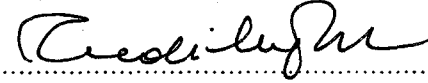
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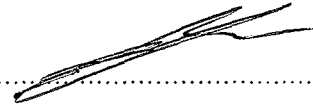
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## ABSTRACT

### ERROR ANALYSIS OF PREPARATORY CLASS STUDENTS IN THE USE OF ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL PREPOSITIONS AND NON-LITERAL PHRASAL VERBS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF GAZIANTEP

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This study was carried out to analyze the sources of major errors in the use of English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs committed by the students in Foreign Language Learning in preparatory section at the University of Gaziantep. This study also aims at assessing whether or not preparatory class students avoid using English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs. The subjects were a hundred thirty four students who were randomly selected from fifteen classrooms. Data on the perception of errors were gathered through three types of exercises which were multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank and translation exercises. A descriptive study was conducted to investigate the major errors and the percentages of the results have been illustrated in the tables. In this study findings have indicated that a) the major errors in the use of the grammatical prepositions and phrasal verbs that the preparatory class students committed; b) the sources of errors; c) the students at the University of Gaziantep avoid using English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs; and d) avoidance behaviour of the subjects is not only due to the native language interference but also due to some other affective variables which could be determined with the information obtained in this study.

Science Code: ELT 599

## ÖZ

# GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ HAZIRLIK SINIFI ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE'DEKİ GRAMATİKEL İLGEÇLERİ VE İKİ KELİME FİLLERİNİN KULLANIMINDA YAPTIKLARI HATALARIN ANALİZİ

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Bu çalışma, Gaziantep Üniversitesi hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin İngilizce'deki yapısal ilgeçlerin ve çift sözcüklü edimlerin kullanımında yaptıkları temel hataları ve bu hatalara neden olan faktörleri analiz etmek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda Hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin bu yapıları kullanmaktan kaçınıp kaçınmadıklarını belirlemek amacıyla yapılmıştır. Denek olarak onbeş sınıftan geneli temsil eden yüzotuzdört hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisi seçilmiştir. Veri toplamak için öğrencilere çoktan seçmeli, boşluk doldurma ve çeviri olmak üzere üç tür alıştırma verilmiştir. Bu çalışma sonucunda: a) öğrencilerin bu yapıları kullanırken yaptıkları temel hatalar, b) bunları oluşturan faktörler, b) öğrencilerin bu yapıların kullanmaktan kaçındıkları ve c) öğrencilerin bu yapıları kullanmaktan kaçınma davranışında yalnızca ana dilin değil, çalışmada söz edilen başka faktörlerinde etkili olduğu gözlenmiştir.

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I alone take the responsibility for all the shortcomings and errors in the study.

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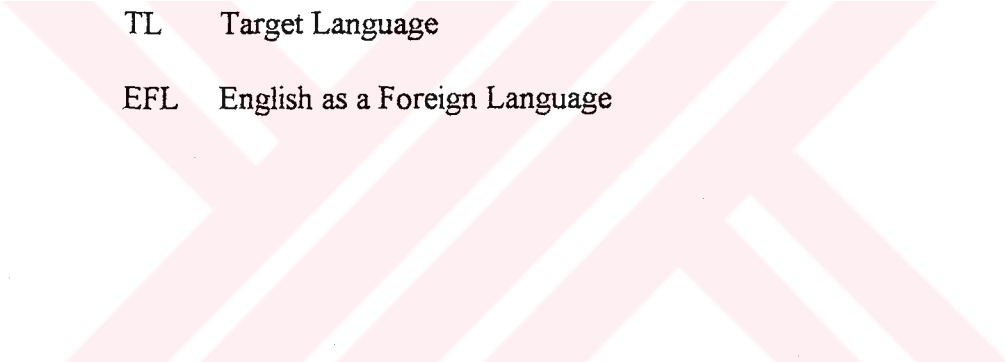
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## LIST OF SYMBOLS

EA	Error Analysis
CA	Contrastive Analysis
FL	Foreign Language
IL	Interlanguage
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
NL	Native Language
TL	Target Language
EFL	English as a Foreign Language



## CHAPTER ONE

### I. INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0. Presentation

For several years now a debate has taken place as to whether contrastive analysis (CA), or error analysis (EA) or perhaps both of them should play a role in the construction of language teaching materials and the explanation of the foreign/second language acquisition process.

Since 1940s contrastive analysis has been used to show the synchronic differences between the mother-tongue and the language being learned as an application of structural linguistics to language teaching. CA proponents, such as Fries (1945), Lado (1957) have claimed that a systematic comparison of the source language and the target language at all levels of structure will generate predictions about the areas of learning difficulty in the target language for speakers of the source language. Furthermore, they have maintained that the best teaching materials will emphasize those features of the target language that differ markedly from corresponding features of the source language.

According to Richards (1974:63), contrastive analysis is based on the following assumptions:

- a) The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
- b) These difficulties can be predicted by CA.
- c) Teaching materials can make use of CA to reduce the effects of interference.

Sebuktekin (1971) points out that contrastive linguistics helps determine the interference and reinforcement resulting from the source language. He states that a contrastive study must presuppose complete descriptions of the languages to be contrasted.

As Wardaugh (1970) remarks that, CA hypothesis exists in a strong and weak version. These two versions are equally related to the notion of L1 interference. After 1960, CA tended to concentrate on practical studies of teaching the foreign language, it may be called strong version which claims that all the errors in L2 can be predicted by identifying the differences between the learner's native language and the language being learned; but weak one of the hypothesis claims to have the power to

diagnose errors in L2. Furthermore, James (1980: 63) claims that "the job of diagnosis belongs to the field of error analysis".

EA advocates, on the other hand, have challenged the usefulness of CA both on theoretical and practical grounds. Their counterclaim is that a careful study of a large corpus of errors committed by speakers of the source language attempting to express themselves in the target language provides factual empirical data -rather than theoretical speculation- for developing a syllabus or a model of second language acquisition. Furthermore, they point out that the analysis of production errors shows quite clearly that not all systematic errors produced by learner can be attributed to interference from the source language. In fact, as Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) state, error linguists claim that such errors provide evidence for a much more complex view of the learning process, one in which the learner is seen as an active participant in the formation and revision of hypotheses regarding the rules of the target language.

Richards (In Oller and Richards, 1974: 114) characterizes the field as follows: "The field of error analysis may be defined as dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak, and the way adult native speakers of the language use the language". In several important articles Corder has developed highly sophisticated view of error analysis that many researchers adhere to today. In "The Significance of Learner's Errors" (1967), he argues that first and second language learning share basically the same process and that whatever differences exist are explainable in terms of motivation. Macnamara (1975) states that the essential difference between the classroom and the street as a place in which to learn a language is motivation and the main thrust in language learning comes from the child's need to understand and express himself.

According to Corder (1981), EA aims at telling the teachers and linguists something about the psycholinguistic process of language learning; it provides insights into the process of language acquisition in general and correct and predicate errors. It also systematically describes and explains errors made by speakers of a foreign language.

Sajavaara (1981) claims that applied contrastive analysis and EA are both methods whose target is one and the same; the problems connected with the learner's language. Thus, they are related and they complement each other. Because the main point on which error analysis is based on the idea of interference and in the pioneering studies of error analysis the stress was mostly on the interference between languages.

For the sake of language teaching, EA with the help of CA and interlanguage has been helping the teacher see the differences and similarities between languages and see the errors resulting from these differences. It can also guide the teacher to prepare his materials on this information.

## 1.1. Background

In the following parts of this study, the systems of English prepositions and Turkish case suffixes and postpositions are defined and compared with each other in order to develop a better concept and to provide a better basis for the readers. Some detailed information of English phrasal verbs is given and the problems that the students face in the use of phrasal verbs are explained.

### 1.1.1. English Prepositions

Preposition is the connecting link between the words and phrases of a sentence which they join together in various special relationships. (George E. Wishon and Julia M. Burks; 1980). In other words prepositions are connective words, sometimes a group of two or three words, that relate to a noun or pronoun to one or another of the basic elements of the sentences (the subject, verb, object, or complement). Lin Loughheed (1983) states that prepositions are used to connect nouns and noun structures to other structures in the sentence. Since the prepositions govern objects they are always related to nouns, noun phrases, pronouns or gerunds.

As Freeborn (1987) states there is a relational function between the preposition and its noun phrase complement. Therefore, prepositions are called function words. A preposition (P) is followed by a noun phrase (NP) to form a prepositional phrase (PrepP); P + NP=Prep. The NP is the complement of the preposition in the PrepP. It completes the phrase. L.G. Alexander (1988) and Freeborn (1987) emphasize that prepositions can be simple (single words) such as at, from, in, to, by, with or complex (two or more words) such as out of, apart from, according to, in common with, in spite of.

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.

Heaton (1965) declares that prepositions and particles cause more difficulty to many overseas students than any other aspect of the English language. The choice of preposition or particle following a certain verb, noun, adjective, or adverb can be determined only after constant practice. Prepositional phrases are often fixed: to alter or to add one word would be sufficient to render most phrases meaningless. Subtle variations in meaning are frequently expressed by the use of different prepositions with the same word. Wood (1967) defines three main difficulties which the foreign language learner faces in producing prepositional utterances.

1. Many prepositions 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 or on pension.

2. Prepositional idiom is not always logical; for instance under the circumstances is employed instead of in the circumstances that is more logical. *Averse* means turned away from; *averse from* is not generally employed as the more standard and more accepted *averse to*.

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).

English prepositions are used as part of compound verbs in English. Quirk and Greenbaum(1978:347-351) divide compound verbs into three groups:

**(i). Phrasal Verbs:**

The combinations of verbs with adverbial or prepositional particles are generally called Phrasal Verbs. (Wishon & Burks: 1980; 318-320). They can either precede or follow the direct object.

e.g. She put on her clothes. (Verb+Preposition+Direct Object)  
She put her clothes on. (Verb+Direct Object+Preposition)

If a personal pronoun is the direct object of a phrasal verb, it can only be used between the verb and prepositional particle.

e.g. The man woke her up.  
but not  
The man woke up her.

Sometimes it can be used without taking an object as in the following example.

e.g. The plane took off.

The same phrasal verb occasionally has two or more different meanings.

e.g. She turned on the radio. (She started the radio operating.)  
Does country music turn you on? (Does it excite you?)

An important aspect of the subject is illustrated by the phrasal verb, in which an adverbial particle combines with a verb to form a collocation possessing a new meaning. There are literally hundreds of phrasal verbs in English. Many very common verbs, such as "come", "get" and "bring" combine with a great variety of particles to form phrasal verbs having distinct and separate meanings of their own. Conversely, some particles, such as "up" and "out", combine with a variety of verbs.



Heaton (1965) states that many phrasal verbs belong mainly to spoken English, while others are very common in writing as well as speech.

e.g. The beast showed up often in the area of the reservation. (Formal writing might use appeared or was seen)

Bolinger (1971) points out that not all phrases containing verbs are phrasal verbs, but combinations about which generalisations can be made. It will be appropriate to list the general characteristics of phrasal verbs:

1. The most general of all is replaceability by a simple verb.  
The plane took off. ("departed" is not specific.)
2. If it is transitive it should be passivize.  
They talked about you.  
You were talked about.
3. If transitive, the combination should yield an action nominal.  
He looked up the information.  
His looking up the information.
4. If the combination is transitive, the particle can either precede or follow the noun or object.  
He looked up his friends.  
He looked his friends up.
5. If the combination is transitive, pronouns usually precede the particle.  
How did you find that out?  
How did you find out that?
6. Whether the combination is transitive or intransitive, adverbs cannot intervene between the verb and the particle unless the latter appears in its most literal sense.  
He walked with gaily up the first hill he came to.  
He walked up gaily the first hill he came to.

John & Liz Soars (1987) identified the phrasal verbs in the following four types that each of them also cuts into two as literal and non-literal. These can be summarized as follows.

Type 1. Verb + adverb (Phrasal verb without an object)

- a. He came into the room and then went out. (Literal)
- b. I didn't put enough wood on the fire and it went out.  
(Non-literal, "to go out" means here "to stop burning")

Type 2. Verb + adverb + object (Phrasal verb + adverb + object)

- a. I put up the picture. It looked lovely next to the clock. (Literal)
- b. I put up my sister for the night.  
(Non-literal, "to put up" here means "to provide food and a bed".)

Type 3. Verb + preposition + object (Prepositional verb)

- a. She came across the room. (Literal)
- b. She came across an old friend while she was out shopping.  
(Non-literal, "to come across" here means "to find by accident")

Type 4. Verb + adverb + preposition + object (Phrasal-prepositional verb)

- e.g: Do you get on with your boss?  
(Verbs of this kind are not used literally.)

Phrasal verbs create special problems for learners, partly because there are so many of them, but also because the combination of verb and particle seems so often completely random. These difficulties are sometimes increased by the way in which phrasal verbs are presented in course books or by teachers telling students that they will just have to learn them by heart, thereby implying that there is no system. Students do not like phrasal verbs, the reasons for this attitude are summarized by Side (1990: 144) as follows:

1. There are a confusing number of combinations of verb and particle-make up, take up, take out, make out, make away etc.
2. Many phrasal verbs (e.g. make up) have more than one meaning
3. The meaning of idiomatic phrasal verbs does not appear to be the sum of the two (or three parts).
  - a. They run over the bridge.  
(= crossed the bridge by running) (Verb+ Preposition)
  - b. They ran over the cat.  
(= knocked down and passed over) (Phrasal Verb)
4. Since teachers and course books usually give definitions of phrasal verbs, students will stick to and use the Latinate definition rather than the Anglo-Saxon phrasal verb, especially if it is a one- word definition (e.g. "pick up" means "receive").
5. The particle seems random. When a teacher ask a phrasal verb meaning arrive starting with turn students may shout out the first particle which comes into their heads and this will continue until one of them hits the jackpot with up.

6. There is often some confusion as to whether the verb is transitive or intransitive. With transitive verbs it is necessary to ascertain whether the particle can be separated from the verb (call your dog off) or not (take in lodgers).
7. Register/appropriacy. Students should be aware of the fact that direct equivalents of phrasal verbs do not always exist. "I'm done in" would be used in a different social context from "I'm exhausted".
8. The students' ability to understand and use phrasal verbs is heavily influenced by their knowledge of their own language. The implications of L1 interference with regard to prepositions and particles are far reaching.

Cornell (1985: 259) states that phrasal verbs have received a considerable amount of attention in recent years with these words: "One might also say that they have been discovered as an important component in curricula for English as a foreign language". According to him this is due to various factors, not least the general increase in interest in the spoken language. Phrasal verbs occur on the whole more frequently in the spoken than in the written language. He also considers the quantitative problem declaring that there are almost seven hundred of at least 3000 established phrasal verbs in ordinary, everyday use in English. There is something demoralizing, in fact the problem is in one respect less acute than such statistics often suggest: large numbers of phrasal verbs are non-idiomatic in nature, in the sense that their meaning is easy to deduce if the verb element is known. Thus, if the learner knows "to rush", for example, he will have no real problem in understanding "to rush away". It does not mean that the learner can himself use non-idiomatic phrasal verbs productively because some phrasal verbs lie somewhere between idiomaticity and non-idiomaticity: not every learner could deduce the meaning of "to eat out" especially if he is deprived of a context.

Sinclair and Moon in Collins Cobuild Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs (1989: 5) summarizes these problems with phrasal verbs as follows:

1. One reason is that in many cases, even though students may be familiar with both the verb in the phrasal verb and with the particle, they may not understand the meaning of the combination, since it can differ greatly from the meanings of the two words used independently. For example; make, put, out, and off are all very common words which students will encounter in their first weeks of learning English, and yet the combinations "make out" and "put off" are not transparent. "Make out" can mean "perceive" or "imply" and "put off" can mean "postpone" or "deter", amongst other meanings: these meanings are unrelated to the meanings of the individual words in the combinations. The fact that phrasal verbs often have a number of different meanings adds to their complexity.

2. There are some particular grammatical problems associated with phrasal verbs. For example, there are restrictions on the positions in which an adverb can be

placed in relation to the object of a verb. Some particles, such as about, over, round and through can be used as both adverbs and prepositions in particular phrasal verbs combinations, although in other combinations they are used either adverbially or prepositionally. Some phrasal verbs are not normally used with pronouns as objects, others are normally only used with pronouns as objects.

3. There are frequently strong collocational associations between phrasal verbs and other words. Thus, in some cases a particular word or small set of words is the only one normally found as the subject or object of a particular verb.

4. It is often said that phrasal verbs tend to be rather colloquial or informal and more appropriate to spoken English than written, and even that it is better to avoid them and choose single-word equivalents or synonyms instead. Yet in many cases phrasal verbs and their synonyms have different ranges of use, meaning, or collocation, so that a single-word synonym cannot be substituted appropriately for a phrasal verb. Single-word synonyms are often much more formal in style than phrasal verbs, so that they seem out of place in many contexts.

5. The set of English phrasal verbs is constantly growing and changing. New combinations appear and spread. Yet these new combinations are rarely made on a random basis, but form patterns which can to some extent be anticipated. Particles often have particular meanings which they contribute to a variety of combinations and which are productive: that is, these fixed meanings are used in order to create new combinations.

It is possible to point four main types of combination of verbs with particles. (Sinclair & Moon, 1989)

1. Combinations where the meaning of the whole cannot be understood by knowing the meanings of the individual verbs and particles. "go off" (explode), "put off" (postpone), and "turn down" (reject).

2. Combinations where the verb is always used with a particular preposition or adverb, and is not normally found without it; examples are "refer to" and "rely on".

3. Combinations where the particle does not change the meaning of the verb, but is used so that the action described by the verb is performed thoroughly, completely, or continuously. For example, in "spread out", the verb spread has its basic meaning, and the adverb out adds ideas of direction and thoroughness. In "link up", the particle up adds an idea of completeness to the idea of connection.

4. Combinations where the verb and the particle both have meanings which may be found in other combinations and uses, but where there is overwhelming evidence in our data that they occur together. For example, in the combination the verb fight has the same meaning that it normally does in isolation, and back is used in a

similar way in other combinations such as "phone back" and "strike back". Such combinations are sometimes called "*literal phrasal verb*".

The following table summarises the combinations: (Sinclair & Moon: 6)

TABLE 1. The Combinations of English Phrasal Verbs.

Example	Phrasal Verb Type	Reason
We went to town	idiom	town is part of the idiom
The town went up.	non-literal	new meaning=explode
The number refers to the day.	fixed particle	"refer" always occurs with "to"
It's going along fine.	completive	particle reinforces verb.
Thomas hit back.	semi-literal	frequent occurrence
We went up the hill.	literal	common verb and particle
Don't walk on the grass	literal	meaning is clear

**(ii) Prepositional Verbs:**

The preposition in a prepositional verb must be used before its complement. It cannot follow the complement.

e.g. He does not believe in ghosts. (correct)  
 He does not believe ghosts in. (incorrect)

Some examples of prepositional verbs are "ask for", "wait for", "insist on", "refer to", "complain about", "object to", "deal with". Like phrasal verbs, prepositional verbs vary in their idiomatic such as "go into" (investigate), come by (obtain).

**(iii) Phrasal-Prepositional Verbs:**

Phrasal-prepositional verbs consist of a verb and two prepositions.

e.g. I am sure that the truth will catch up with him. (V+prep+prep)

Like single-word transitives, but unlike prepositional verbs, it is impossible to insert an adverb immediately before the object.

- e.g. He puts up willingly with his parents. (correct)  
 He puts up with willingly his parents. (incorrect)

Phrasal-prepositional verbs also vary in their idiomacity. Some of them can be easily understood from its individual elements like "stay away from" (avoid); some of them, on the other hand, cannot be understood from its individual elements.

<u>Phrasal-prepositional verb</u>	<u>meaning</u>
cut back on (expenditure)	reduce
fall in with ( an idea)	accept
get down to (work)	start
give up on (cinema)	abandon
go along with (somebody)	support
put up with (somebody)	endure
stand up for (principle)	defend

### 1.1.2. English Local and Grammatical Prepositions

Bennett (1975) states that English prepositions serve a wide variety of functions. In classifying their functions it is customary to distinguish between grammatical (abstract) uses and local (concrete) uses. Gedikoğlu (1987; 74) illustrates the local and grammatical functions of English prepositions in the following two tables:

TABLE 2. The Local Functions of English Prepositions

<i>LOCAL</i>			
Direction	Place	Time	Manner
to	by	by	by
into	on	on	on
up	in	in	in
at	at	at	with
down	above	since	like
under	under	during	
below	below	until	
over	over	for	
against	against		
from	among		
	between		



TABLE 3. The Grammatical Functions of English Prepositions

<i>GRAMMATICAL</i>					
Agent	Instrument	Comitative	Possessive	Measure	Indirect Object
by	with by	with	of with	of by	to

The functions of English Grammatical Prepositions are performed in Turkish by the case markers and the others by postpositions.

### 1.1.3. Turkish Case Marker

Turkish Case Marker is a form of "affix" attached to a word to show its relationship with other words or another word in a sentence. In a thesis study made by Üçüncüoğlu (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. Turkish case markers are attached only to the final element in a nominal group; in this respect the Turkish case endings behave like English prepositions and not like the case endings of inflected languages such as Latin. (Lewis, 1967).

1. Nominative case. It is used as subject or indefinite object. (ev, göz)
2. Accusative case. Definite object. (evi, gözü)
3. Dative case. Indirect object. (eve, göze) (to, for)
4. Locative case. (evde, gözde) (in, on, at)
5. Ablative case. (evden) (from)
6. Genitive case. (evin) ( of, .....s) (Kaya Can;1983)

TABLE 4. Turkish Case Marker and Its Counterparts in English

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,
Instrumental	le, la	with, by

(Üçüncüoğlu, 1971)

Dative case and Genitive case are the counterparts of English Grammatical prepositions *to* and *of*.

Dative case.

It expresses the indirect of a verb, place whither, purpose and price.  
Mektubu Ali'ye gösterdim. ( I showed the letter to Ali.)

the indirect object.

Hizmetçi-ye bir palto vereceğiz. (We are going to give a coat to the servant)

Genitive case.

It indicates that the substantive to which it is attached stands in a possessive or qualifying relationship to another substantive:

Bütün suç siz-in. (All the guilt is yours.)

Egemenlik Ulusundur. (Sovereignty is of nation.)

Engin'in evi soyuldu. (Engin's house has been robbed.)

Masa(n)-ın ayağı kırıldı. (The leg of the table got broken.)

Bu kitabın son baskısı iyi sattı. (The last edition of this book sold pretty well.)

Kavun-un içi çürük. (The inside of the melon is decayed.)



#### 1.1.4. Turkish Postpositions

The rest of the English grammatical prepositions are performed by the post positions, which followed the word they govern. A few of them can appear as suffixes, but the majority are independent words. Post positions are the words that accept the personal suffixes of the nominal, but not either relational or possessive suffixes, and occur only after substantives which may or may not have relational or possessive suffixes: saat gibi (like a watch), Dün-den beri (since yesterday), Ali ile (with Ali), sizin için (for you). Post positions do not occur in isolation. ( Sebüktekin; 1971).

According to Lewis (1967) postpositions cut into two types; primary postpositions and secondary postpositions. The only more-or-less current postpositions governing the accusative is the obsolescent mütaakip 'following/after': 'ziyafet-i mütaakip' (after the banquet). An English analogy would be to call "in" and "before" are primary and "on the inside of" and "in front of" secondary prepositions. In the following there is a summary of Turkish postpositions with their counterparts in Turkish (Lewis;1967, Nemeth;1962):

Primary postpositions with absolute case:

üzre, üzere	on	içre	in
aşırı	over	gün aşırı	every other day

Primary postpositions with dative case:

göre,	according to	dair	concerning
rağmen	in spite of	doğru	towards
inat	in despite of	karşı	against
nispeten	in proportion to	kadar, -dek,	as far as
yakın	near		

Primary postpositions with ablative case:

evvel, önce	before	içeri	inside
sonra	after	dolayı, ötürü	because of
beri	since, this side of	başka	besides, apart from
bu yana	since	itibaren	with effect from
yana	on the side of	aşağı	down from
dışarı	out through	öte	beyond
uzak	far		

Primary post positions with absolute or genitive case:

gibi	like	kadar	as much as
ile	with	için	for

'ile' has not only the comitative sense of English 'with' but also denotes the instrument and measure.

Kim-in ile gittiniz? (With whom did you go?)  
Vapur ile gittiniz. (You went by boat.)  
Bunu zank ile yapıştırdım. (I stuck this with glue.)  
Kilo ile satmak (to sell by kilogramme)  
Kardeşleriyle yaşar. (He lives with his sisters/brothers.)

#### Secondary Postpositions I:

alt	underside	karşı	opposite side
ara	interval	orta	middle
arka, art	back	ön	front
baş	immediate vicinity	peş	space behind
dış, hariç	exterior	üst, üzer	top
etraf, çevre	surroundings	yan	side
iç, dahil	interior		

#### Secondary Postpositions II:

hakkında	concerning	bakımından	from the point of view of
yüzünden	because of	tarafından	by, through the agency of
namına	in the way of		

#### Secondary Postpositions III:

boyunca	along	esnasında	in the course of
zarfında	during	sayesinde	thanks to
uğruna, uğruna	for the sake of	yerine	instead of

It can be summarized as follows:

Agent (by)	: tarafından (secondary postposition)
Instrument (with, by)	: ile (primary postposition with absolute or genitive case)
Comitative (by)	: ile (primary postposition with absolute or genitive case)
Possessive (of)	: -i(n), i (genitive case)
Measure (by)	: ile (primary postposition with absolute or genitive case)
Indirect object (to)	: -e (dative case-indirect object)

In the following table; there are English Grammatical prepositions and their Turkish counterparts:

TABLE 5. English Grammatical Prepositions in Turkish

<i>GRAMMATICAL PREPOSITIONS</i>					
Agent	Instrument	Comitative	Possessive	Measure	Indirect Object
tarafından	ile ile	ile	-i(n) -i i	- ile	-E

### 1.2. Purpose

Study of learners' errors is essential since committing errors is an integral part of the language learning process from which we, as foreign language teachers, gain insight, accurate and deep understanding of the problems related to the mastery over foreign language by the subjects. Studying learners' errors serves two major purposes: It provides data about the language process, secondly it indicates to the teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have most difficulty with and which error types detract most from learners' ability to communicate effectively.

The aim of this study is to investigate the origins of errors produced by Turkish learners of English and what sort of difficulties students are confronted with during their mastery of English. In this study, the errors made in the use of English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs are explored and explained.

Most of the studies that have been done so far in the area of language errors is either on Error Analysis or Contrastive Analysis. Since the former is too broad and unreliable in itself and the latter is too limited, theoretical and behavioralistic, the advantages of these two approaches will be mentioned.

The study does not try to argue; it simply sets out observed facts drawn from 'Error Analysis'.

### 1.3. Problem

Difficulties with prepositions and phrasal verbs encountered by Turkish students learning English have been observed for some time now, by both language teachers and researchers.

The purpose of this study is to find out errors that are committed by the preparatory class students at the University of Gaziantep in the use of English grammatical prepositions and phrasal verbs. More specifically, the system of grammatical prepositions in English was compared with its counterpart in Turkish: the system of case suffixes and postpositions. The researcher and her colleagues may have a better notion about the sources of the errors during the learning process. They also may make use of the results of this study and find better ways of emphasizing the importance of English prepositions and teaching them properly if the findings of the study indicate that there are problems related to the mastery over English grammatical prepositions by the subjects.

### 1.4. Hypotheses

\_ It was predicted by the researcher that the Turkish students would easily make a distinction between the grammatical prepositions "by" and "with" though they have the same semantic functions in their native language.

\_ It was predicted that in the use of phrasal verbs students ignore the adverb or preposition in a phrasal verb and concentrate on the meaning of the verb rather than the meaning of the phrasal verb itself.

\_ It was predicted that students would avoid using prepositions if they could express the same meaning by using other structural elements.

\_ It was predicted that Turkish students have problems in the use of the non-literal phrasal verbs in English.

### 1.5. Definition of Terms

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** is a word or group of words that determines the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and another word in a sentence. Prepositions are usually (but not always) placed before the noun or pronoun which they govern. (Wishon and Burks, 1980).

Prepositions take the most important place for writing and speaking good English. Though prepositions seem quite short and in significant they have very important functions.

A letter was sent to Mary.

A letter was sent for Mary.

A letter was sent from Mary.

A letter was sent by Mary.

Only the prepositions change, but that is enough to change the meaning entirely. Prepositions express a relationship among one person, thing and event. Some relationships expressed by prepositions are:

Space : We ran across the field.

Time : The plane landed at 4:25 precisely.

Cause : Travel is cheap for us because of the strength of the dollar.

Means : You unlock the door by turning the key to the right.

Prepositions are learned at the first steps of English studies "since the prepositions have been called the biggest little words in English" (Wishon, 1980: 216). Prepositions take the most important place for writing and speaking good English. Though prepositions seem quite short and in significant they have very important functions.

**Phrasal verbs** are combinations that usually have a meaning of their own different from that of either of the component parts. (Wishon & Burks; 1980). They are essentially new verbs.

Look up the street. (Up is a preposition.)

Look up the number in the phone book. (Look up is a phrasal verb.)

Phrasal verbs are different from verb+preposition combinations. Phrasal verbs are new verbs. The phrasal verb must be considered as a unit, for its meaning can rarely be inferred from a knowledge of the verb and the particle separately.

**Case Marker**, in Turkish, is a form of "affix" attached to a word to show its relationship with other words or another word in a sentence. (Lewis, 1967)

The chart below illustrates English prepositions acting as counterparts for Turkish case suffixes.

Absolute ( no suffixes)

Accusative

Genitive

Dative

Locative

Ablative

Ev satıldı.

Evi aldık.

Evin bahçesi

Eve geldim.

Evde kaldı.

Evden uzak

The house has been sold.

We have bought the house.

The garden of the house

I came to the house.

He has stayed in the house.

Far from the house

**Error** is defined by Chun et.al. (1982) as a term indicates the use of a linguistic item in a way, which, according to fluent users of the language, indicates faulty or incomplete learning. Ngara (1983) also made a distinction between two types of errors: Performance errors are mistakes which mother tongue speakers and other component speakers can make and do not necessarily reflect the degree to which the learner has not mastered yet, but because of being in a hurry, writing or speaking under stress, being forgetful or carelessness, such as slips of the tongue, omissions, some spelling mistakes, unnecessary repetition and so on. Competence errors, on the other hand, are serious errors that show the areas which the learner has not yet mastered in his second language. The types that even native speakers may make (i.e. mistakes) must be carefully distinguished from errors which are systematic in nature and reflect a learner's transitional competence (i.e. errors)

**First Language** is the language through which the learners of a foreign language may communicate orally or in writing, formally or informally. (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). It is not only one's native language but also a language which a child acquires first, for example a Turkish child born in England may certainly acquire a more solid competence in English than he may in Turkish. In this case, the child's first language is English although his native language is Turkish. In this study, First language is referred to as the native language.

**Second Language** is the language that is being learned by the foreign language learners. It can be more than one but in this study third or more language learners are ignored. Second language is also referred to as Target Language or Foreign Language. (Dulay, Burt & Krashen; 1982)

**Interlanguage**, a term which Selinker calls the speech output in a second language, since it invariably differs from the target language. Selinker (1972) informs us that a language learner has his attention focused upon one norm of the language whose sentences he is attempting to produce.

**Idiosyncratic Sentences (Dialects)** are sentences which have rules that are deviant from the standard rules of the second language. (Corder; 1971). The learner's idiosyncratic dialect not only involves ill-formed sentences but also well-formed sentences until it has been considered appropriate in its contextual usage. For Example: The answer "My dad is sick, so he can't" is both well-formed and appropriate in context to the question "Is your brother coming us?" whereas the answer "My uncle is poor" is well-formed although it is inappropriate or covertly idiosyncratic in its context.

**Interference** is used to refer to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned. Negative transfer would result in errors, while positive transfer would result in correct constructions according to the CA hypothesis. (Richards, 1975).

**Fossilization**, a term coined by Selinker (1972), 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. He uses the term fossilization to refer to permanent characteristics of the speech of bilinguals irrespective of the age at which the second language is acquired or the amount of instruction or practice in it.

*Language Transfer* is a process which contains two aspects of transfer; psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic. It is a two-sided process having linguistic rules and cultural norms running between languages in contact. Selinker (1969) suggests that 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.

*Goof* signifies deviation from syntactic structures which native adult speakers consider grammatically correct. (Dulay, Burt and Krashen; 1974)

*Contrastive Analysis (Linguistics)* can be defined as a subdiscipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them. (Jackson; 1976).

According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1974), CA hypothesis states that while the child is learning a second language, he will tend to use his native language structures in his second language speech, and where structures in his first language (L1) and his second language (L2) suffer, he will goof. (p. 96)

*Error Analysis (Linguistics)* aims at systematically describing and explaining errors made by speakers of a foreign language. It provides data from which inferences about the nature of the language learning process can be made. It also indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which part of the target language students have most difficulty producing correctly and which error types detract most from a learner's ability to communicate effectively. (Johansson; 1975)

The study and analysis of the errors made by second and foreign language learners. Error analysis may be carried out in order to find out how well someone knows a language and how a person learn a language. It also obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. (Richards, Platt & Weber; 1985)

#### 1.6. Limitations

The study has the following limitations:

1. The subjects of this study were all from the University of Gaziantep Preparatory School. The errors they committed may not represent the errors of other Turkish students learning English in other universities.
2. Data collection is based on the written work of these students, not on their oral work.

3. The errors made in the use of local English prepositions are not investigated in this study.

4. Not all phrasal verbs but only the phrasal verbs which are composed of five commonest irregular verbs (take, go, come, get and put) and ten particles (up, off, into, through, out, over, back, away, down and on).

5. Non-literal phrasal verbs are examined in this study. Literal phrasal verbs are excluded.

6. Phrasal-prepositional verbs and prepositional verbs are not examined in this study. ✓

### 1.7. Assumptions

In this study, it is assumed that all the subjects are at the same proficiency level owing to their exposure to the TL; that is, they all had attended one-year preparatory English class.

In this study, it is assumed that the tools used in determining errors and perceptions of students are valid and reliable, and the subjects did their best to do the exercises and provided responses sincerely.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW of THE RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.0. Presentation

During the process of learning a foreign language, learners meet some difficulties, and consequently, they often commit errors. Until recently, theorists and methodologists discussed who should accept responsibility, some regarding the student as mainly responsible, and others the teacher, depending on their standpoint. On one hand, teachers are blamed for causing errors by careless teaching or planning: on the other hand, students are accused of their lack of motivation, self-discipline or general intelligence. We should accept that there is truth on either side. However, it is obvious that even the most intelligent and motivated students do make errors.

Two significant approaches have been applied in the analysis of the difficulties encountered by second language learners. In this chapter, general schemes of contrastive analysis and error analysis are given.

#### 2.1. Learner Language

There are significant and obvious differences between a child's language acquisition (L1) and an adult's second language learning (L2). Adults have already developed their cognitive faculties, whereas children's cognitive development is simultaneous with language acquisition. Adults already speak at least one language, and there are differences in motivation.

Despite these differences, there is evidence that similar processes are involved in L1 acquisition and L2 learning. Corder (1967) argues that first and second language learning share basically the same processes and that whatever differences exist are explainable in terms of motivation. Macnamara (1973) declares that children's first language acquisition is different from the children's or adult's second language learning because parents seldom correct a small child's pronunciation or grammar; they correct his bad manners and his mistakes on points of fact. When a child is concerned with communication he gradually gets over his difficulties and eradicated errors in order to be accepted by the society. While parents' attention is on his meaning teachers may concentrate more on what the child are saying and less on how he says it and encourage him.

On the basis of recent L1 studies, it is concluded that child language acquisition is not merely imitative but it is creative and active process. It is active in the sense that the child processes language data; and it is creative in the sense that on the basis of his grammar and his knowledge of the world, the child is able to formulate meaningful

statements which he has never heard before. Richards (1975: 115) points out that although all three or four-year-olds learning English ask questions like: "What he can ride in?" or "Why he is doing it?". It is obvious that they are not simply imitating the speech of their parents, for sentences like these do not appear in adult speech.

As Corder (1973) suggests that children cannot imitate structures they cannot produce; when imitations occur in language acquisition, the child himself selects the items to be imitated. Gorbet (1979: 23) reveals that almost every child uses the pronoun 'hissel'. This form conforms to an oversimplified grammar rule, which is not conscious or explicit, but which may be stated in the following form: the possessive pronoun is formed by adding the suffix '-self-' to the possessive adjective 'myself, yourself, 'herself' and 'hissel'. This rule is part of the child's primitive grammar; only by testing he realises that 'hissel' is an exception and the acceptable form is 'himself'. According to Gorbet most of the errors adult L2 learners make, regardless of their mother tongue, are similar to the errors children make. L2 learner, like the child, formulates rules as part of the language-learning process. This implies that adult L2 learning, like L1 acquisition, is both systematic and creative, and that the language learner is faced with the preliminary task of deriving a grammar from the mass of language data to which he is exposed.

Corder (1975) accepts that description of a language, be it that of a native speaker or of a raw learner, is a first-order application of linguistics. Description is necessary before we can move on to the second-order application of linguistics: comparison. There are three codes to describe in learner language applied linguistics: the learner's native language (NL), the target language (TL, a term neutral between 'second' and 'foreign') and the learner's version of the TL, her interlanguage (IL, from Selinker, 1972). Comparing NL and TL is known as Contrastive Analysis (CA); comparing IL with TL is Error Analysis (EA); and comparing NL with IL is called Transfer Analysis. (Carl James; 1990)

## 2.2. Contrastive Analysis

Since the 1940s Contrastive Analysis has been used to show the synchronic differences and similarities between the mother tongue and the language being learned. Though the need for contrastive studies has long been felt in foreign language teaching, stylistics, linguistic typology and mechanical translation contrastive studies are very recent. Contrastive analysis was developed and practised in the 1950s and 1960s, as an application of structural linguistics to language teaching; it has proved to be one of the most important studies ever made in describing systems of languages.

In recent years, as James (1980) points out, CA has been under attack. James's main points seem to be CA teaching is presenting all of the linguistic systems of L2 which contrasts with the corresponding L1 system. He also indicates that not all the systems or not all the components of the systems should be contrasting. Phonology, grammar or syntax, according to James may differ in L1 and L2. Finocchiaro, in James (1980: 155), mentions "to make the students aware of the contrasts so that they will understand the reasons for their errors and avoid committing them". Nickel and Wagner, in James (1980), agree that contrastive comparison can be useful to explain certain aspects of the language to be taught.

Lado (1957), who is one of the prime movers of contrastive linguistics studies, emphasizes the point of contrast between two language systems. He mentions the grammatical structure of the native language tends to be transferred to the foreign language, and here lies the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the foreign language. In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning. He assumes that the elements that are similar to his native language are easy, those which are different are difficult. Thus, the teachers making a comparison of a foreign language with the native one of the student will know problems better and he can provide better teaching syllabus for them. Being based on this idea, contrastive analysis arose as a field of research. According to him patterns that cause difficulty in learning and those do not cause difficulty can be predicted by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the language and culture of the student. This definition and the notion, Lado has stated, was later called the strong hypothesis for contrastive analysis.

Lado (1957;1) describes his fundamental assumption as follows:

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

Fries (1945:9) established contrastive linguistic analysis as an integral component of the methodology of the target language declaring that "the most effective language teaching materials are based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the learner's native language."

Those propositions above show us the origins of contrastive analysis are pedagogic. As Lado and Fries have indicated that to discover and predict this type of learning difficulties need comparing the native language with the foreign language and thus, the contrastive analysis provides the language teacher with the chance to know what the real learning problems are and this chance leads him to the effective way to eliminate the difficulties involved in learning the foreign language and a schedule with ready material would provide the teacher to make use of in the classroom. Whitman and Jackson, in James (1980), on the other hand, state that relative similarity rather than difference is directly related to the levels of difficulty.

Contrastive Analysis has a psychological view as well as linguistic view. Taking a psychological point of view, Dulay and Burt imply that the contrastive analysis hypothesis is based on the following assumptions in relation to the process of language learning:

1. Language learning is habit formation.
  2. An old habit (that of using one's first language) hinders or facilitates the formation of a new habit (learning a second language) depending on the differences or similarities, respectively, between the old and the new.
- (cited in Richards, 1974: 97)

The first assumption comes from 'behaviourist psychology'; so habit formation is assumed to be related to the behavioristic psychological model: Stimulus-Response; but the second one derives from 'interference theory'. Since these two assumptions are closely interrelated, we should say that the psychological basis of CA is 'transfer theory' elaborated and formulated within a Stimulus-response theory of psychology and according to this theory, errors occur because of the differences between the first and second language. Errors are considered undesirable as they are evidence of non-learning rather than wrong learning.

In the words of Altunkaya (1989; 5) if the transfer is positive it will facilitate L2 learning; e.g.: in Turkish, *bir kırmızı kalem* (number- adj.- N) which will be realised in the same sequence in English as 'one red pencil' (number-adj.-N). Negative transfer, on the other hand, causes interference. So erroneous forms arise where the two languages do not coincide; e.g. in Turkish, '*Ahmet Fatma ile evlendi.*' which can be reflected in English as 'Ahmet married with Fatma.', as the result of the L1 interference. Palmer (1964:58) recognises cases of positive transfer. However, he sternly warns against "the temptation to replace habit-forming by analysis and synthesis of problem items."

The results of CA are built into language teaching materials, syllabus and tests. We can say that it is possible to eradicate the errors caused by the differences between L1 and L2. James (1980) mentions two roles of CA in testing. According to him the first one is to concern suggestions about what to test, and the other is to be the degree to test different L2 items. When used in the classroom. the contrastive studies form a useful technique, employing the previous knowledge of the learner, informing him about similarities and differences between his native language and the foreign language he is studying, also warning him about making false analogies about the mother tongue interference.

In the 1960's the Audio Lingual Method (ALM) appeared for foreign language teaching. Contrastive Analysis was one of the roots of ALM. Lado (1988: 222-223) points out that problems are patterns that show structural differences between the first and the second language. According to him the disparities between the difficulty of such problems and the patterns or units are not problems because they function satisfactorily when transferred to the second language is much greater than we suspect. He thinks "the problems often require conscious understanding and massive practice, while the structurally analogous units between languages need not to be taught: mere presentation in meaningful situations will suffice".

Rivers (1981) emphasizes that ALM materials were designed to show the problems of L2 to students and thus to emphasise contrastive difficulties and provide for practice for the new pattern. The books written for the ALM provided versions for the dialogues in L1, but they were not exact translations of the texts in L2.

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 96-97), 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 their own L1 structure.
4. Phonological errors exhibit more L1 influence than do grammatical errors, many 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 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.

### 2.2.1. The Rationale for Contrastive Analysis

Sridhar (1980) states the rationale for undertaking contrastive studies is basically based on the practical experience of foreign language teachers, studies of language contact in bilingual situations and theory of learning. He accepts that a substantial number of errors made by foreign language learners can be traced to their mother tongue. Weinreich (1953: 1) defines the interference as "those instances of deviation from the norms of either language that occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language".

If we examine the strong and weak versions of CA hypothesis we may understand better what one of the sources of the CA hypothesis, learning theory means.

Although cultural interaction and cultural transfer were the other objectives of CA Lado's emphasis on the comparison of cultures were ignored and mainly concentrated on interference only. According to the strong version of the CA a thorough contrastive analysis of two languages can reliably predict all the problems a learner of one language can experience in learning the other and will therefore provide a scientific basis for constructing teaching materials. Rivers & Temperly (1978) indicates that as in other related fields, current research is emphasizing the importance of investigating language learning as opposed to language teaching. Learners can learn much from the types of errors students actually make.

Lee (1968: 78) emphasizes the strong version based on several assumptions.

1. The prime cause of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learners native language.
2. The difficulties are chiefly due to the differences between the two languages.
3. The greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be.
4. The results of comparison between the 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.

From what we understand Lee's assumption the learner's native language is certainly the main source for errors, the differences and similarities between the two languages determine the pace of learning. The less the differences are, the more learning is facilitated.

The weak version of the CA would take observed errors and try to explain them by reference to contrastive data. Rivers & Temperly (1978) exposes that not all sources of difficulty and error can be explained as native language interference. Errors provide evidence of the student's knowledge of the language at a given stage and of the strategies being employed in learning the language. The weak version of the CA hypothesis claims only to be diagnostic. Ellis (1985) indicated that CA can be used to identify which errors are the result of interference; in other words CA needs to work hand in hand with EA. As James (1980) states that as a monitor and assessor of the learner's performance a teacher should know why certain errors are committed. It is on the basis of such diagnostic knowledge that the teacher organizes feedback to the learner and prescribes remedial work. James and others believe that CA and EA need not be considered the two propositions of an alternative choice, rather they complement each other.

Wardhaugh (1970), assumes that the CA hypothesis is only tenable in its weak or diagnostic function and not tenable as a predictor of error. He admits that in analyzing error, interference from L1 should be thought of interference first and if that not clarify the problem, the long job of finding some other reason begins.

Marton, in James (1980), states that the contrastive analyst is more interested in how rules differ in their applicability to congruent intermediate structures of the two languages. James (1980), explains that CA belongs to interlanguage study, and it should be viewed as diachronic rather than synchronic in orientation. Describing the two versions of CA, he takes another position contending that CA is always predictive, and the job of diagnosis belongs to the field of EA. According to him each approach has its vital role to play in accounting for L2 problems and complement each other.

Sharma (1986) agrees that without the help of contrastive linguistics, EA cannot be fruitful and the frequency counts of errors can be used in designing a syllabus to give teaching priority to the erroneous areas if he counts are supported by the findings of contrastive linguistics.

In spite of criticisms, Rivers and Temperly (1978) finds the insights of CA useful for language teachers in understanding their students' problems and helping their students to understand what is to be learned. According to them, an awareness of the differences between the new and the native languages can lead the students to realize which of their native language speech habits can be transferred to the new language without unduly affecting comprehensibility and which cannot. Rivers and Temperly (1978) mention systematic errors and argue these errors are an important source of information to the student and the teacher alike, because they represent the learner's current hypothesis about certain aspects of the language and provide the teacher with the information necessary to help the student revise these hypotheses.

In recent years, teachers and researchers have realized even more that second language learning is a creative process in which the learner constructs a system and while constructing, he is consciously testing hypotheses about the target language by using a

number of possible sources of knowledge including limited knowledge of the target language and native language, knowledge about the communication function of language, in general, about life, the universe and human beings; hence the learner constructs a system which is legitimate for him acting in his environment.

At this point, a new approach to second language learning was evolved into what some linguistics refer to as "Error Analysis". Error Analysis was a type of a study used to reveal the defect of contrastive Analysis. When the claims of contrastive analysis were tested against empirical data, scholars realized that there were many kinds of errors besides those due to inter-lingual interference which can be neither predicted nor explained by Contrastive Analysis.

### 2.3. Error Analysis

#### 2.3.1. Errors Versus Mistakes and Lapses

It is first necessary to distinguish these three terms. Altunkaya (1990) states that Lapses are the native speaker's slips of tongue or pen. Corder (1967) introduces an important distinction between errors and mistakes. Mistakes are deviations due to performance factors such as memory limitations (mistakes in the sequence of tenses and agreement in long sentences), physical states such as tiredness, lack of attention, psychological conditions such as strong emotion. Lapses and mistakes are typically random, are made both by native speakers and by foreign language learners and are readily corrected by the learner when his attention is drawn to them. Errors, on the other hand, are systematic, consistent deviances that reveal the learners' knowledge (competence) and are the signs that the learner has not mastered the code of the target language. According to Corder errors are more serious and more in need of correction than mistakes. Brown (1980), on the other hand, finds it dangerous to pay too much attention to learners' errors. That is why language teachers can lose sight of the value of positive reinforcement of clear, free communication (either orally or written) if we become preoccupied with errors.

Edge (1989) claims that all deviations from standard English 'mistakes', not errors. A 'slip' is a mistake that the student can self-correct if it is pointed out by the teacher, whereas an 'error' cannot be corrected by the student even if it is pointed out, though the teacher knows that the class is familiar with the form. Lee (1968), proposes that errors be collected at all learning stages so that persistent errors - errors still being made by advanced students- can be distinguished from the earlier self-correcting errors typical of beginners. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (In Richards & Sampson, 1974: 95) claim "people cannot learn language (both L1 and L2) without first systematically committing goofs."

#### 2.3.2. What is Error Analysis?

Johansson (1975) emphasizes that errors tell the teacher how far the learner has progressed and what is left to learn; they tell the researcher how languages are learned; they provide the learner with a way of testing hypotheses about the language being learned. That applied linguists will ever discover the key to language through EA has been called into question.



Just as child language acquisition studies concentrate on observing, describing, and accounting for the differences between the ways children and adults speak, so error analysis concentrates on the differences between the way L2 learners and native speakers speak so the theorists of error analysis try to describe adult L2 speech in its own terms, as well as describing it relative to native speech.

Johansson (1975) states that learners transfer elements of their native language to the foreign language and the first language 'interferes' with the foreign language. The errors produced in this way could be used as evidence of the linguistic organization of the learner's native language. According to him the primary aim of EA is different. EA gives us evidence of the learner's competence in the foreign language and valuable information concerning learners' difficulties at different stages. Such information may be important for the planning of courses and the construction of teaching materials. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) see Error Analysis only as a diagnostic for individual learners and a tool that may help curriculum developers in sequencing materials.

Brown (1980: 153) gives another definition for error analysis;

"The fact that learners do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating with the learner, leads to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis."

### 2.3.3. Why Is It Made?

According to Etherton (1977), an error analysis can provide valuable data for the preparation of teaching materials, textbooks and examinations. It is difficult to see how some of these can be efficiently prepared without access to an extensive error analysis. It can also provide helpful material for use in pursuit of a degree or when carrying out research locally. Not knowing local problems, the author cannot provide solutions for them. He believes that an error analysis can provide valuable data for performance at a particular level or problems with a particular word, tense or structure across various levels of learning. Etherton (1977; 68) suggests that an error analysis based on adequate data will show:

- a) common weaknesses with which pupils need help: either through remedial teaching or by the introduction of new material.
- b) words, structures, or verb forms which prove to be too difficult at a particular stage and which should be deferred.
- c) weaknesses shown by the total absence of particular item, such as relative pronouns.
- d) which parts of a prescribed syllabus are vital for communication and which can be regarded as less important at a particular stage.
- e) material not in the syllabus but necessary at this stage.
- f) inadequacies in an official syllabus: too much material, a faulty sequence of units, or the omission of essential material.
- g) weaknesses or errors which may be entirely new to the teacher or of which he may only dimly aware.

Gorbet (1979) believes that the basic task of EA is to describe how learning occurs by examining the learner's output. From samples of his utterances, the analyst must infer the rules or hypotheses underlying their production, that is, he must infer the learner's interlanguage. She also agrees that this system will contain rules derived from the learner's native language and unique to the learner's perception of the language data to which he is exposed. EA includes learner's output, his correct and incorrect utterances. If the teachers concentrate on learner's overt grammatical errors they are ignoring a large and important part of their learning experience.

Sharma (1986) states that EA is a process based on analysis of learners' errors with one clear objective: evolving a suitable and effective teaching-learning strategy and remedial measures necessary in certain clearly marked out areas of the foreign language. He adds that EA can be very useful at the beginning stage of a program or during the various stages of a long teaching program. During the teaching program, EA can reveal both the successful and falling parts of the program. Norrish (1983) indicates that the teacher can build up a profile of each individual's problems and see how their grasp of the target language is improving if two or three surveys are carried out at intervals of time. Teachers can evaluate more objectively how their teaching is helping the students by using error analysis as a monitoring device.

Though Richards and Sampson (1974: 5) do not ignore CA completely they insist that EA has easily superseded CA. They based their ideas on these assumptions:

1. There are not any inherent limitations in EA like CA. (i.e. in CA, the restriction is to errors caused by interlingual transfer).
2. EA provides data based on actual, attested problems, not hypothetical problems and therefore more efficient and economical bases for designing pedagogical strategies as opposed to CA:
3. Complex theoretical problems encountered by CA do not confront EA.

As was pointed out before, "interference" is the only point to which contrastive analysis paid attention and it should be pointed out that it is a common cause of errors for second language learners but the point that mother tongue is not the only factor causing errors should be always kept in mind. It is a defect to see all the errors as effects of the "interference" of the mother tongue, ignoring all other relevant phenomena. When one is trying to learn a second language, he is trying to have the ability to use it, to understand its meanings and connotations in terms of the target language and culture.

Chastain (1976: 62-63) summarises the most recent research in errors of second-language learners which support the following assumptions regarding second language learning:

1. Errors occur both as a result of interference from the mother tongue and as a result of incomplete interim grammar of the learner.
2. Hopefully, future research will furnish more information about learner strategies. These insights may provide clues as to more efficient teaching-learning procedures.
3. Apparently, both first-and second language learning is characterised by the creation of language and by the comparison of the learner's interim language system with that of adult or native speech. As has been true throughout this examination of first and second language learning, the

language teachers should be much more tolerant of student errors in the initial and intermediate stages of language learning.

Richards and Sampson (1974) state that errors alone are of little interest, instead the entire linguistic system of the second language learner should be investigated; the data gathered from learners' sentences and utterances in the target language are examined to find out specific language-learning strategies and processes.

A number of terms have been used to describe the successive linguistic systems that learners construct on their way to the mastery of a target language. Corder (1971) uses the term *idiosyncratic dialect* to connote the idea that the learner's language is unique to the particular individual. Selinker (1972) uses the term *interlanguage* referring to the separateness of second language learners' system, which has a structural intermediate status between the native and the target language. Native language interference is the only tool in the repertoire of the interlanguage investigator. Nemser (1974) coins the term *approximative system* to emphasize the successive approximation to the target language. While each of these terms points out a particular aspect, they share the concept that the language learners are forming their own self-contained linguistic system. In this respect, learner's errors provide evidence of the language they are using.

By paying attention to the learners' errors, Corder (1967: 245) feels teachers will come to better understand his needs and stops assuming we know what he should learn and when he should learn it. He claims that errors can be significant in three ways:

1. They tell the teacher how far the learner has come and what he still must learn,
2. They give the researcher evidence of how language is learned,
3. They are a device the learner uses to test out his hypotheses concerning the language he is learning.

#### 2.3.4. The Methodology of Error Analysis

According to Corder (1981: 21-24) EA should be conducted in three stages:

##### Stage 1. Diagnosis-recognition of idiosyncrasy. (Interpretation of errors)

To start with, Corder suggests an analysis of all sentences of the learner. Obvious deviations in the use of the target language can be easily identified as exemplified below:

\* he like orange squash.

Along with these overt errors, the data for EA must cover the covertly erroneous sentences; that is sentences that are superficially well formed. For example:

He goes to school.

Used in a context where just or this morning is implied, is unacceptable, even though it contains no formal grammatical deviation on the surface.

## Stage 2. Accounting for the idiosyncratic dialect. (Description.)

This stage involves answering questions such as: "What does the error consist of?" "Is it an error of spelling or grammatical usage?" or "Is it an error of wrong choice in terms of meaning, style and so on?"

A correct interpretation is done by reconstructing the correct sentence of the target language and by matching, the erroneous sentence with its equivalent in the learner's native language.

## Stage 3. Explanation of the errors.

At this stage, one attempts to account for how and why the learner's idiosyncratic dialect is of the nature it is. This process involves identifying the sources of errors.

The first and second are linguistic whereas the third is psycholinguistic.

Another approach toward EA is from Selinker (1972), who coined the term Interlanguage for what Corder meant by 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 the learners native language and the target language Selinker 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 5. Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material.

## 2.4. Classification of Errors

Richards (1971) proposes a three-way classification of errors:

### 2.4.1. Developmental Errors.

Developmental errors according to Richards, illustrate learners attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from their limited experience in the classroom or textbook. The developmental errors reflect the strategies by which the learner acquires the language. These errors show that the learner (often completely independent of his native language) making false hypotheses about the target language based on limited exposure to it. They are similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language. Children acquire a first language without learning a previous language. Thus, the errors cannot possibly be due to any interference from another language. When such errors are made by second language learners, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that not the rules and structures of the learner's native language but mental mechanisms underlying general language development come into play.

### 2.4.2. Intralingual Errors.

This type of errors are those originated within the original structure of English itself. When the complexity of English structure encourages such learning problems, all learners, regardless of background language tend to commit similar errors. It refers to items produced by the learner that reflect not the structure of the mother tongue, but

generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. Chastain (1976) claims that an intralingual error is not the result of conflict with the native language but the result of some problem in the acquisition of the second language itself.

#### 2.4.3. Interference (Interlingual) Errors.

Some of the most apparent examples of fossilizable items in second language communication are those described as instances of language transfer or interference. This may be defined as the use of elements from one language while speaking another and may be found at the level of pronunciation, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and meaning. Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977) define interference errors that are those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on this production of the target language in presumably those areas where the languages clearly differ. Lado (1964) states that error correction should be an important part of teaching a foreign language, if the students have errors, these errors may become habits and they may be fossilized. Gorbet (1979) thinks that interference errors may be caused by interference from the mother tongue or interference from the target language. The learning strategy that underlies these errors is analogy. For example: "me I go" is the result of interference from the mother tongue of a French learner "moi je vais" while "he goed" is drawing an analogy with items already learned in the target language. She also argues that interference errors may be caused not only from the mother tongue but also from the target language. The student who says "he goed", or "bring, brang, brung" is drawing an analogy with items already learned in the target language, e.g. "he looked" and "ring, rang, rung"

While Richards does not totally reject CA, when compared with the position taken by previous researchers, he clearly minimizes its role:

Interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning, and contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. Many errors, however, derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition and the mutual interference of items within the target language. These cannot be accounted for by contrastive analysis. Teaching techniques and procedures should take account of the structural and developmental conflicts that can come about in language learning. (Richards 1971; 214)

In the words of Richards it can be understood that interference from the mother tongue is clearly a major source of difficulty in second language learning, and CA has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. Many errors, however, derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition, and from the mutual interference of items within the target language. These cannot be accounted for by CA.

#### 2.5. The Error Classification of Dulay, Burt and Krashen

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 146-173) classified errors into four categories. It has got two major purposes: to present error categories which rely solely on observable characteristics for their definition; and to report their findings of research



conducted to date with respect to error types observed. Dulay and others believe that such findings may assist teachers in their instructional efforts and theoreticians in their formulation of L2 theory.

### 2.5.1. Surface Based Taxonomy

A surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: Surface strategy taxonomy makes the teachers aware that learners' errors are based on some logic and holds much promise for researchers interested in identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learner's reconstruction of the target language.

It is divided into four groups:

Omission Errors. Instead of "Mary is the president of the new company" if one utters "Mary president new company" it means he omits some necessary morphemes: is the of the.

Addition Errors. In the speech of L1 and L2 learners three types of addition errors can be observed.

1. Double Markings. "He doesn't knows my name." "I do not never go there."
2. Regularization. 'Sheeps' and 'putted' instead of 'sheep' and 'put' although they are irregular forms.
3. Simple Addition. If an addition error is neither a double marking nor a regularization, it is called a simple addition. For Example: a this book

Misformation. The use of wrong form of the morpheme or structure is called misformation. Three types of misformation errors can be observed.

1. Regularization Errors. 'Goed' instead of 'go' or 'gooses' instead of 'geese'.
2. Archi-forms. The selection of wrong member of a class as in: "These books are very interesting."
3. Alternating Forms. "I seen her yesterday" instead of "I saw her yesterday".

Misordering. Incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance is called misordering. For Example: "I don't know where is he" using a simple question order for "Where is he?"

Altunkaya (1989; 5) adds another type of errors: Selection of items; "Please bring (instead of fetch) me a clean handkerchief from my bedroom."

### 2.5.2. Comparative Taxonomy

This type of taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other type of constructions. They put developmental and interlingual errors into the same category and added two other types of errors:

Ambiguous Errors. These errors reflect the learner's native language structure, moreover they are of the type found in the speech of children acquiring a first language. For example: "I no have a car."



Other Errors. These are the errors which do not fit into any other category. These are not similar to those children make during first language development. For example: "She do hungry."

### 2.5.3. Communicative Effect Taxonomy

The communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between errors which cause miscommunication and those that don't. Burt and Kiparsky (1972) states that errors that significantly hinder communication are of a certain type, while those that do not hinder communication are of another type. They are classified into two groups:

Global errors. Errors that affect overall sentence organization significantly hinder communication. The most systematic global errors include wrong order of major constituents, (e.g. English language use many people); missing, wrong or misplaced sentence connectors (e.g. He will be rich until he marry, until instead of when); missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules (e.g. The student's proposal -was- looked into -by- the principal) and regularization of pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions (e.g. We amused that film very much.)

Local errors. Errors that affect single elements in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly. They include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries and the formation of quantifiers. For example, when learning English children make errors where SVO is maintained but *do* is omitted: 'Why we like each other?'

### 2.5.4. Error Types Based on Linguistic Category

Language components include phonology, syntax and morphology, semantics and Lexicon and discourse. Many error taxonomies have been based on the linguistic item affected by an error. This type of taxonomy classifies errors according to either or both the language components or the particular linguistic component. Many second language textbooks and workbooks are still organized according to linguistic category by curriculum developers because such materials permit teachers and students to feel that they have covered certain aspects of language in their classes. Many researchers use the linguistic category taxonomy as a reporting device which organizes error. Some researchers use it as the only classification scheme offered, and the others use it to add the description of errors provided by other taxonomies.

### 2.6. Sources of Error

It has been common of late to distinguish between sources of error in productive language in terms of the learner's linguistic history. C.V. Taylor (1976), mentions two types of sources: Contrastive errors can be identified as attributable to, or at least activated by, interference from a previously acquired language, usually the learner's first language; other errors are accredited in a vague sort of way to a category labelled 'non-contrastive'. This category includes such diverse errors as using 'foots' for 'feet', forgetting to double a consonant in spelling, saying 'Rose is a book' for 'Rose has a book' and so on.

Richards (1971) presents four main subcategories in terms of the causes of intralingual and developmental errors. These four categories are overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concepts hypothesized. These are all non-contrastive errors.

2.6.1. Overgeneralization. This type of error can be regarded as a blend of two structures in the 'standard version' of the language. The error might be made as a result of blending structures learnt early in the learning sequence. It covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures. It may be the result of the learners reducing their linguistic burden.

\* she don't go to school with the bus.

\* She hate drinking milk at breakfast.

\* We are visit to zoo, shows a blending of the continuous and the simple present.

2.6.2. Ignorance of rule restrictions. Closely related to the generalization of deviant structures, errors result from the restrictions of existing structures. The learners rationalize a deviant usage from their previous experience of English.

\*Go to there.

\*Go to downtown.

2.6.3. Incomplete application of rules. Richards suggests two possible causes here. One is the use of questions in the classroom, where the learner is encouraged to repeat the question or part of it in the answer. For example:

Teacher- Ask her where she lives.

Student- Where you live?

The other possible cause is that the learner may discover that he can communicate perfectly adequately using deviant forms.

2.6.4. False concepts hypothesized. Errors of this type derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. In the following example the form of be is often interpreted as a marker of the simple present tense:

\* He isn't work in a department store.

2.6.5. The other sources of errors

1. Carelessness. According to Norrish (1983) it is often closely related to lack of motivation. Many teachers will admit that it is not always the learner's fault if he loses interest; perhaps the materials or the style of presentation does not suit him.

2. First language interference. If language is essentially set of habits, then when we try to learn new habits the old ones will interfere with the new ones. This is what is called "mother tongue interference". The notion of mother tongue interference as a main contributor to error in learners' use of foreign languages is related strongly to this particular view of how human beings learn language.

3. Translation. Norrish comments that translation word by word of idiomatic expressions in the learner's first language can produce classic howlers. When a learner has been asked to communicate something he is aware that he does not know the appropriate expression

or structure. As he wishes to communicate his ideas, he will fall back on the language system with which is familiar, namely that of his mother tongue.

4. **General order of difficulty.** Richards (1978), have concluded that it is difficult for native speakers as well as for learners of English as a foreign language to distinguish between some of the English sounds (e.g. /v/ and /ð/) and some structures. This cannot be simply related to the child's need to express a particular concept, or the frequency of use of the structure, as evidence from different languages shows different characteristics order. This apparent hierarchy of difficult, at least partly, some of learner's errors in English.

5. **Redundancy Reduction.** Gorbet (1979) thinks it can be accepted as a strategy of overgeneralization which results in simplification. For example: "Yesterday I go downtown" Since the past tense is indicated in the modifier 'yesterday', the learner considers it unnecessary to mark the tense in the verb as well.

6. **Material-induced errors.** The learner may not interpret the material presented to him in the way intended by the teacher or textbook writer and false analogies may be made due to ignorance of rule restrictions. For example: "Tell him to write the letter" or "Ask him to write a letter" may lead to "Make him to write the letter."

7. **Memory.** Gorbet (1979) mentions some errors that can be attributed to weaknesses or failure of memory. Random errors such as slips of the tongue or occasional lapses are classified as performance errors.

8. **Muscular failure.** Taylor (1976) explains that muscular failure is clearly an inability, either physical or psychological, to produce the sounds of a foreign language. Though handwriting styles do feature in error identification, applying it to handwriting would be enter a field not specifically related to language learning. It therefore applies mainly to speech. Taylor defines another type related to this one and described inability to observe phonetic and phonemic distinctions as auditory discrimination failure.

## 2.7. Avoidance

An interesting area of second language learning research that may also bear on the question of L1 influence pertains to the avoidance of certain structures by L2 learners. Madden, Bailey, Eisenstein and Anderson in Burt, Dulay and Krashen, make a distinction between "avoiders" and "guessers". Avoiders avoid responding to items they did not know well and were willing to imitate a sentence only when they felt the likelihood of making errors was small; guessers, on the other hand, were willing to try even when there was little likelihood of being correct.

Schachter (1974) analyzed relative clause production in university-level students of ESL and found that although Persian and Arabic speakers produced about twice as many relative clauses in their compositions as did Japanese and Chinese students they made twice as many errors in the relative clauses. She also concluded that Japanese and Chinese students have had so much trouble with relative clauses that they refused to produce them, in other words instead of using incorrect items they prefer to avoid using the items. Schachter states that the differences between the languages is the main reason of avoidance.

Kleinman (cited in Dulay et.al.: 1982) criticized this idea and argues that personality factors, such as anxiety, confidence and willingness to take risks cause avoidance. According to Richards and Sampson (1974), learners may avoid a word or structure they find difficult to say and it forces choice of a particular tense instead of the required one.

After the study with her Czech learners of English Duskova (1969) concluded that the learners made hardly any errors involving items which were obviously very difficult, because they avoided that item and resorted to circumlocution to that end.

James (1980) states that learners who have bad experiences of failure over some L2 structure do not go on making error but avoid the structure in question by resorting to paraphrase, or to some near-equivalent.

In his study, Gedikoglu (1987) proved that Turkish students of English at advanced level avoided using English prepositions. According to him, avoidance was due to the fact that the mastery over English prepositions by the Turkish learner has not been complete since they were difficult for them and there was interference on the part of NL on the TL.

## 2.8. Research History

E.A. Ngara (1983) studied non-contrastive errors in African English based on a sample of errors taken from essays written by First year university students in Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, South Africa and Zimbabwe. As a result of his research, he concludes that errors of prepositions and prepositional phrases relate to incomplete learning, which is a category based on Richards's taxonomy on page 31.

An error analysis was made of 26 free essays written by English speaking honours students in their first year of university by Margaret Rogers (1984). It was found that prepositional objects with verbs are the most problematic ones and the choice of preposition cannot usually be learned by analogy nor can the correct preposition be predicted from the mother tongue.

Duskova, (1969) in her study of errors made by Czech university students learning English notes 24.9 % of total errors as unique character, non-recurrent, not readily traceable to sources. In order to establish whether an error is indeed systematic or not may require a longitudinal study.

Abdel-Rahman Shaheen (1984) tries to list and discusses certain recurrent errors made by adult Arab students pursuing courses in English Literature at university level. The errors should be taken seriously for the fact that they have been produced spontaneously in free writing and this could be said to reflect truly the learner's 'competence'. He also studies with the prepositional errors and concludes that L1 interference is as powerful as most experienced teachers of foreign languages have often maintained.

A survey carried out among a few representative schools in Ceylon By the Government Teachers' Training College (1972) has revealed certain kinds of errors. It was found that the commonest error was misuse of the articles and prepositions.



In their study, Margaret Sue Scott and Richard Tucker (1974) try to examine the English proficiency of 22 Arab speaking students enrolled in a low intermediate English course at the American University of Beirut. To examine it written and oral samples are taken at the beginning and end of term. Errors are analysed in terms of performance mistakes, mother-tongue interference or false intralanguage analogy. They conclude that verbs, prepositions and articles are the areas where the students most often deviated from standard English.

Henning (1978) in his study attempted to analyze developmental error patterns of adult Iranian learners of English and the sample was gathered from 22 college learners in the second semester of their first year, who were examined free written and oral production at the beginning and at the close of instruction period. It was found that some items were more difficult than others. Past particles, adverbs of time and frequency, third person singular verbs and nouns as objects of prepositional phrases were the most difficult categories whereas the past tense and infinitives were among the easiest categories.

Chun, Day, Chenoweth and Luppescu (1982) investigated the types and frequencies of the errors which native speakers of English (NS) corrected during conversations with their friends who were non-native speakers of English (NNS). Twenty adults in three classes of ESL programs at the English Language Institute at the University of Hawaii who were asked to record two conversations with their NS friends anywhere outside the classroom and no restrictions were given on the topics. At the end of the research, discourse and vocabulary errors were corrected more frequently than errors in syntax and omission. Grammatical errors were seldom corrected.

The aim of the study made by Ahmed Meziani (1984) is to obtain a general idea of the problematic areas facing Moroccan learners of English, who are all literary students at the university level, and to serve a basis for further analysis of the one or two areas that prove most problematic in another study. He classified errors and concluded that with tense, prepositions are a serious problem for foreign language learners of English. In this study this category comes second to tense with a total number of 95 errors: out of these 95 errors in prepositions, 25 were omitted, 25 were redundant and 41 were used wrongly in place of others.

Nayef N. Kharma (1984) studied the difficulties encountered by Arab students in the formation of relative clauses; all kinds of errors were collected from the free essay writing of 408 students at Kuwait University and papers of translation from Arabic to English. It was found that six out of the seven most persistent error types can almost certainly be ascribed to negative transfer (or interference) from Arabic. There is sufficient evidence that at least ten out of fourteen error types are due to the same source.

The study of Vann, Meyer and Lorenz (1984) examined faculty response to the written errors of students who are non-native speakers of English. To determine which sentence level errors are judged to be most serious by an academic community and to discover what factors may influence this judgement a survey was conducted with the 164 respondents. Twelve types of errors, including prepositions, were selected to be investigated. the study suggests that most respondents did not judge all errors as equally grievous; rather their judgements generate a hierarchy of errors.

Özden Ekmekçi (1984) tries to investigate the factors influencing a second language learner in making errors, strategies used in second language learning and linguistic categories of the errors made. To conclude her research, she made a study with a thirteen-year-old Turkish boy named Özgür who had been attending the eight grades for two months at the time of the study. As a result of her study she gives the following assumptions: Mother tongue causes the errors of the target language, simple sentences can be adaptable rather than the embedded ones, overgeneralization of the general rules on irregular forms, avoidance of the structures that has not learned yet.

In order to find out whether or not the system of Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interferes the learning of English prepositions, Tokay Gedikoğlu (1987) conducted an experiment with ten Turkish and eight Spanish speakers in the USA. He concluded that even advanced Turkish students avoided using English prepositions and have not gained complete mastery over English prepositions due to native language interference on the target language.

Seran Şimşek (1989) conducted a study to explore and explain the linguistic difficulties which Turkish students meet during their mastery of English using the data collected from the students at Bilkent University Preparatory school during the academic year of 1988-89. According to the results, the most problematic areas for the learners including prepositions were determined and some suggestions for the error correction were given.

The study of Nazan Aycan (1990) was concerned with the identification and the analysis of errors in tense in the written English of Turkish students and the implications of such errors in foreign language teaching. A set of 56 writing samples was collected from diverse groups of Turkish students and users of English and a scheme for identifying the errors was formulated and the distribution characteristic of the errors were examined.

H. Aynur Keservuran (1989) investigated which prepositions are introduced in the first ten units of English elementary level, communicative textbooks used in the English as a Foreign Language Classes in Turkey and in what order these prepositions are introduced in these books.

Fulya Sarı (1978) conducted a correlational descriptive study to provide information about the problematic relation between the Turkish ablative nominal inflectional suffix (-den) and its various English correspondences at the Boğaziçi University.

The aim of the study made by Şule Evin (1993) is to find out whether or not Freshman students at the University of Gaziantep avoid using English local prepositions. She found that the avoidance behaviour of the students was not only due to the native language interference on the target language, but also due to some other affective variables.

In her study, Sevilay Kılıç (1992) tried to analyse major errors experienced by the student in preparatory class students at the University of Gaziantep. The subjects were 75 students that form three randomly selected groups. In the specification of errors both learners' and teachers' perception are taken into consideration.



## CHAPTER III

### METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

#### 3.0. Presentation.

In this chapter subjects, setting and tools which were used for the purpose of this study are explained.

Since this study involves collecting data that test the validity of the hypothesis related to the present status of the subjects of the study, the researcher has decided to use the descriptive method.

#### 3.1. Settings and Subjects.

English Preparatory School classes at the University of Gaziantep were selected as the setting for this study because the researcher could be in a better control of the study.

The subjects of this study were 135 Turkish-speaking students enrolled in the second semester at preparatory class who were randomly selected among 360 students in 1992-1993 academic year. This population was representative for the total population since it was the thirty percent of the total. The age of students varied between 17-21. The students who are not be able to pass Proficiency Test given at the beginning of the first term continue with a one-year preparatory class. The program is based on "core" English; the study of grammatical structures, reading, writing, listening and speaking skills with some emphasis on English for Specific Purposes during the second term.

#### 3.2. Tool.

##### 3.2.1. Test

In order to collect data used for the purpose of this study a questionnaire which was prepared by the researcher was administered.

Before administration of questionnaire to the students face validity of it was approved by six competent lecturers; three of whom have got MA., two of whom have got Ph.D. and one of whom has got Assoc. Prof. degree.

In order to collect data related to the purpose of this study, three types of exercises were used: The use of phrasal verbs was assessed in the first part consisting of multiple choice question type, the use of grammatical prepositions was assessed in the second part consisting of fill-in the blanks question type. In the third part translation question type is used to assess both the grammatical prepositions from Turkish to English and the phrasal verbs from English to Turkish. This test was also given to two native speakers of English who are proficient in all skills in Turkish.

### 3.3. Data Collection.

The Questionnaire was administered to 135 subjects in Preparatory School. Nine students in each of the fifteen classes who were randomly selected were asked to choose the correct one in the first part; were asked to fill in the blanks in the second part and were asked to translate sentences from English to Turkish and Turkish to English.

### 3.4. Procedure of Data Analysis

After the data were collected through the exercises mentioned in 3.2. in this chapter, two tally sheets were prepared and the correct and incorrect prepositions and phrasal verbs were marked on these sheets. For the third type of this test, three tally sheets were prepared and the avoided prepositions and phrasal verbs were marked on these sheets as well as the correct and incorrect ones. After counting the tallies, tables were prepared.

The tables illustrating the use of prepositions and phrasal verbs in Exercises A, B and C are presented in Appendices D, E, F and G.

The percentages of the use of correct and incorrect phrasal verbs in Exercise A and prepositions in Exercise B were calculated. In this calculation, the number of the observed use of prepositions (correct and incorrect) was multiplied by 100 and then divided by the number of total use. The percentages of the use of correct, incorrect and avoided prepositions in Exercise C and phrasal verbs in Exercise D were calculated, the number of the observed use of prepositions (correct, incorrect and avoidance) was multiplied 100 and then divided by the total number. In Exercise C avoidance was accepted as incorrect items. After they were counted in the type of incorrect items they were subtracted from this type and taken consideration into another type named avoidance. In this calculation all of them (correct, incorrect and avoidance) were also multiplied by 100 and divided by the total number.

Apart from the errors in the use of English prepositions and phrasal verbs, no other errors were examined.

## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ANALYSIS

#### 4.0. Presentation

The material used to collect data for this study involves English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs. Each item in Exercise A requires the use of different non-literal phrasal verbs. The second exercise requires the use of English prepositions in terms of agent, instrumentative, comitative, possessive, measure and indirect object. The third exercise has two parts; in the first part, the use of grammatical prepositions and in the second part the uses of phrasal verbs are examined. The results of each item in each exercise are discussed separately.

#### 4.1. Analysis and Discussion of Results

Analysis and discussion of results are presented in the following order:

- Results and discussion of Exercise A,
- Results and discussion of Exercise B,
- Results and discussion of Exercise C.

##### 4.1.1. Analysis and Discussion of Results of Exercise A

Exercise A is a multiple-choice item which includes ten questions with five options. The purpose of this exercise was to investigate whether or not the preparatory students at the University of Gaziantep make errors in the use of English non-literal phrasal verbs and what kinds of errors they are. It would also help the researcher to understand how well the students mastered non-literal phrasal verbs. Each item in this exercise is discussed, and the tables illustrating the correct, incorrect and total use of prepositions are presented as well.

#### 4.1.1.1. ITEM 1

I wish we could sell the piano, it ..... too much space.

- a) takes on    b) takes in    c) takes up    d) takes down    e) takes off

TABLE 6. The uses of the phrasal verb "Take up"

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
132	39	29.54	93	70.46

The appropriate phrasal verb to be used here is "take up" (occupy). As seen in the table, among 132 subjects, 39 (29.54 %) subjects chose the correct option whereas 93 (70.45 %) of them chose the other options.

Most of the subjects who made errors in the use of phrasal verb used the phrasal verb "take in" instead of "take up". "Take in" does not carry the meaning "occupy", the learners may have thought the phrasal verb not a whole item but separate items such as "take" and "in" and translate "almak" and "içine".

#### 4.1.1.2. ITEM 2

The house itself is quite attractive, but the fact that it's near a busy airport ..... me .....

- a) put away    b) put back    c) put by    d) put off    e) put on

TABLE 7. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Put off".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
129	20	15.50	109	84.49

The appropriate phrasal verb here is "put off" (to cause somebody to change his mind). Among 129 subjects, 20 (15.50 %) subjects chose the correct option whereas 109 (84.49 %) of them made errors. The commonest error in this item was the phrasal verb "put away". The preposition "away" may have associated the meaning "uzağa" and the whole phrasal verb "uzağa koymak". They may have supposed the phrasal verb "put away" as the correct option since they accepted it separate items and the meaning of this phrasal verb as "prevent".

#### 4.1.1.3. ITEM 3

I ..... the proposal very carefully with my lawyer and finally I decided not to accept their offer.

- a) went into    b) went ahead    c) went in    d) went for    e) went on

TABLE 8. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Go into".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
128	43	33.59	85	66.40

The correct answer here is the phrasal verb "go into" (discuss). Among 128 students, 43 (33.59 %) of them chose the correct one whereas 85 (66.40 %) of them chose the others. The general tendency here is the phrasal verb "go for".

Since the preposition "for" generally associates purpose, the students may have accepted "go for" in terms of "purpose". "Go into", on the other hand, is generally known "to enter somewhere" which is not related to the sentence given. For that reason, learners may have supposed the option includes "go into" was incorrect.

#### 4.1.1.4. ITEM 4

I tried to telephone Juliet in hospital and ..... without difficulty.

- a) got round    b) got through    c) got off    d) got back    e) got over

TABLE 9. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Get through".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
131	36	27.48	95	72.51

The correct answer here is the phrasal verb "get through" (to contact on telephone). 36 (27.48 %) of the students among 131 subjects chose the correct item whereas 95 (72.51 %) of them did not manage to choose the correct item; most of them chose the phrasal verb "get back".

The phrasal verbs include the preposition "through" are not well-known by most of the learners in Turkey. Instead of it the subjects in this study tended to choose a more familiar phrasal verb "get on" though it does not carry a meaning like this in this study.

#### 4.1.1.5. ITEM 5

It's no use trying to keep it secret; It's sure to ..... in the end.

- a) come over    b) come out    c) come into    d) come through    e) come back

TABLE 10. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Come out".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
127	35	27.55	92	72.44



The correct option here is "come out" (to be revealed or made public). 35 (27.55 %) of the subjects among 127 chose the correct one; 92 (72.44 %) of them chose the incorrect items. Most of the subjects accepted the phrasal verb "come back" as the correct item.

The phrasal verb "come out" is generally known as "to leave somewhere or appear from it". In this exercise, it did not make sense. For that reason learners supposed the item as an incorrect option.

#### 4.1.1.6. ITEM 6

They've ..... all the calculations but they still can't find the mistake.

- a) gone over    b) gone into    c) gone away    d) gone in    e) gone for

TABLE 11. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Go over".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
132	51	38.63	81	61.36

The correct answer is "go over" (examine, think carefully). 51 (38.63 %) of the subjects among 132 chose the correct answer whereas 81 (61.36 %) of them chose the others. The preferable option here is "go into". "Go over" is not very widespread with its usage. The subjects may have misunderstood the whole context.

#### 4.1.1.7. TYPE 7

I'll ..... him ..... for all the nasty things he said.

- a) get away   b) get back   c) get into   d) get along   e) get in

TABLE 12. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Get back".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
120	22	18.33	98	81.66

The possible answer here is the phrasal verb "get back" (to punish or hurt somebody in return for something unpleasant that he has done for you). As seen in the table, 120 subjects answered the question; 22 (18.33 %) of them chose the correct option whereas 98 (81.66 %) of them did incorrectly.

This usage of "get back" is not very common in the other usages of it. Most of the subjects who made errors chose the phrasal verb "get away". They may have thought the phrasal verb "get away" means "make somebody leave you" though it does not mean that.

#### 4.1.1.8. TYPE 8

Look at this mess! ..... your toys ..... at once, children.

- a) put/on    b) put/aside    c) put/out    d) put/off    e) put/away

TABLE 13. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Put away".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
132	32	24.25	100	75.75

The correct answer here is the phrasal verb "put away" (to place something tidily somewhere). 32 (24.24 %) students among 132 did the job correctly whereas 100 (75.75 %) of them chose the other options. The preferable answer here is "put aside".

Although "put aside" means "to place something somewhere next to you until you need it", the subjects accepted it as the correct option. In the sentence, on the other hand, mother wants their children to tidy their toys not to put them next to her. The learners may have confused the meaning because of the meaning the preposition "aside".

#### 4.1.1.9. TYPE 9

I'm waiting till the prices ..... before buying a new carpet.

- a) come off    b) come up    c) come out    d) come away    e) come down

TABLE 14. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Come down".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
127	62	48.81	65	51.18

The correct answer here is "come down" (to become cheaper or less than it was before). 62 (48.81 %) of the subjects among 127 chose the correct option; 65 (51.18 %) of them chose the incorrect items, they generally chose the phrasal verb "come up" here

which is the opposite of "come down". Although "come down" is a familiar phrasal verb they confused it with another well-known phrasal verb partly because they did not understand the whole context or they confused the meaning of "come down" with the other phrasal verb "come up".

4.1.1.10. TYPE 10

She has ..... a lot of weight since I last saw her.

- a) put up    b) put off    c) put on    d) put in    e) put out

TABLE 15. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "Put on".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
133	40	30.07	93	69.92

The correct answer here is "put on" (to become heavier). 40 (30.07 %) of the subjects among 133 did the job correctly whereas 65 (69.92 %) of them chose the other answers. The commonest error here is "put up".

Although "put on weight" are taught as a pattern and used expandly, most of them made errors. Since the preposition "up" associates the meaning "rising" they may confuse the items and make errors.

#### 4.1.2. Analysis and Discussion of Results of Exercise B

Exercise B was designed to test the mastery over the English Grammatical prepositions by the subjects. This exercise includes ten sentences in which prepositions were deleted. Since the number of total usage of preposition in each item differs from one item to another, the result and discussion of each item were dealt. All of the items required only one appropriate preposition.

##### 4.1.2.1. ITEM 1

Sentence: "Rapsodi in August" is produced ..... Akira Kurosawa and you can see it in the cinema on the corner.

TABLE 16. The Uses of the Preposition "by"

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
129	82	63.56	47	36.43

The appropriate preposition to be used here is English grammatical preposition "by" in terms of "agent". The counterpart of this preposition is "tarafindan" which is a postposition in Turkish. As seen in the table above, among 129 subjects 82 (63.56 %) of them found the correct preposition whereas 47 (36.43 %) of them filled the blank with the other prepositions.

There were different answers here, the commonest error was the preposition "in". They may have thought the name of the producer's name as a city name. None of them used "with" instead of "by". It shows that the learners have gained a complete mastery over the preposition of "agent".

4.1.2.2. ITEM 2

Sentence: They showed us photographs ..... their baby

TABLE 17. The Uses of the Preposition "of".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
128	38	29.68	90	70.31

The appropriate answer is the preposition of possession "of". As seen in the table, 128 subjects answered this question; 38 (29.68 %) of them filled the appropriate preposition in the blank; the other 90 (70.31 %) subjects filled the blank incorrectly. There were different answers in this question but the most commonest one is "for"

The subjects who made errors in the use of preposition "of" which correspond to Turkish genitive suffix "-nin" in this context have gained an incomplete mastery over these preposition of possession.

4.1.2.3. ITEM 3

Sentence: Those eggs are sold ..... dozen.

TABLE 18. The Uses of the Preposition "by".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
120	30	25	90	75

The preposition of measure "by" was used correctly by 25 % of the subjects among 120 while 75 % made errors. It is concluded that the mastery over the preposition "by" in terms of "measure" was not complete by the subjects in this study.



#### 4.1.2.4. ITEM 4

Sentence: I managed to find my way..... a torch.

TABLE 19. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
118	41	34.74	77	65.25

The sentence in this item involves the "instrumentative" preposition "with". Among 118 subjects, 41 (34.74 %) of them found the correct preposition. 77 (65.25 %) of them, on the other hand, used incorrect items.

22 of the students of 77 who made errors used the preposition "by" which is another preposition of instrument in English. It can be concluded that the semantic function of Turkish postpositional construction in the absolute case "ile" has had a negative affect in the use of prepositions "with" and "by" on not the majority but minority of the subjects.

#### 4.1.2.5. ITEM 5

Sentence: He started to walk ..... a crutch after the accident.

TABLE 20. The Uses of the preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
122	42	34.42	80	65.57

The preposition in this item was filled correctly by 34.42 % of 122 subjects and incorrectly by 65.57 %. 8 of the students who made errors used "by" instead of the correct item, the majority of the other students used the prepositions "in" or "on". The

results in this item are almost the same as the results of the previous question. It can be concluded that the mastery over the instrumentative "with" is not complete by the subjects since the counterpart of this preposition in Turkish is the same as the English preposition "by".

#### 4.1.2.6. ITEM 6

Sentence: We've lent our hammer ..... Mr Jones and he always keep it for ages.

TABLE 21. The Uses of the Preposition "to".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
117	73	62.39	44	37.60

The preposition of indirect object "to", was used correctly by 62.19 % of 117 subjects while 37.60 % filled the blank incorrectly. It can be concluded that most probably due to the one-to-one correspondance between Turkish dative suffix "-e" and English preposition "to", which leads to positive transfer of the knowledge on target language, and thus, this facilitates the acquisition of preposition "to".

#### 4.1.2.7. ITEM 7

Sentence: Don't touch them ..... bare hands.

TABLE 22. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
122	72	59.01	50	40.98

59.01 % out of 122 subjects used the preposition correctly while 40.93 % of them made errors. The correct answer here the comitative preposition "with". 21 of the students used "using" instead of an appropriate preposition.

Only 4 of the subjects who made errors used the préposition "by" which has the same semantic function in Turkish. Although the subjects have not gained a complete mastery over the preposition "with" they managed to make a good discrimination between these two prepositions ("with" and "by") which denote the postpositional construction in the absolute case "ile" in Turkish.

#### 4.1.2.8. ITEM 8

Sentence: I'm going to the cinema ..... Tom. We've already bought our tickets.

TABLE 23. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
124	122	98.38	2	1.61

98.38 % out of 124 subjects used the correct preposition whereas only 1.61 % of them answered incorrectly. The correct preposition here is the comitative preposition "with". Two of the subjects used "by".

Although "with" and "by" has the same semantic function in Turkish the majority of the subjects did the job correctly. It can be concluded that the mastery over the comitative preposition "with" is complete and the transfer from native language is not negative.

4.1.2.9. ITEM 9

Sentence: The man ..... the pipe and long hair has been working for that company since he was sixteen.

TABLE 24. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
113	49	43.36	64	56.63

The possessive preposition "with" was used 49 (43.36 %) of the subjects out of 113 while 64 (56.63 %) of them used the other prepositions. Most of the subjects who made errors used the preposition "in" and "on".

This type of error may derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language which is called False Concepts Hypothesized by Richards (page: 35). Thinking that the examples such as "The man in black trousers" or "The man on a white horse", the subjects may make false generalizations about the sentence given and instead of the instrumentative preposition "with" they used "in" or "on" in this context.

4.1.2.10. ITEM 10

Sentence: The child was very alarmed ..... the news I brought.

TABLE 25. The Uses of the Preposition "by".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
118	20	16.94	98	83.05

16.94 % of the subjects among 118 used the correct preposition "by" while 83.05 % of them answered incorrectly. Most of them used the preposition "on". It can be concluded that the mastery over the use of preposition with in terms of "instrument" is not complete by the subjects in this study. 20 of the subjects confused the preposition "by" with the use of another "instrumentative" preposition "with".

#### 4.1.3. Analysis and Discussion of Results of Exercise C

Exercise C is a translation exercise that cuts into two parts. The first part includes ten sentences to be translated from Turkish into English. The purpose of the first part of Exercise C was to investigate whether or not the preparatory class students at the University of Gaziantep avoid using English grammatical prepositions when they translate the sentences from Turkish to English. It would also help the researcher to understand if the mother tongue interferes with the use of English grammatical prepositions or not. Each item in this exercise is discussed and the tables illustrating the correct, incorrect, avoided and total uses of prepositions are presented as well. Avoidance was accepted as neither correct nor incorrect because of the instruction given in the test.

##### 4.1.3.1. ITEM 1

Turkish: Okulun adı değiştirildi.

English: The name of the school was changed.

TABLE 26. The Uses of English Preposition "of".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
132	82	62.12	1	0.75	49	37.12

English possessive preposition "of" was used correctly by 62.12 % of the subjects out of 132. Only 0.75 % of the subjects translated incorrectly. 37.12 % of the subjects avoid using preposition and translated the same item using the genitive suffix -s, as "School's name" partly because not to take risks.

#### 4.1.3.2. ITEM 2

Turkish: Sokaklar elektrikle aydınlatılıyor.  
 English: The streets are lighted by electricity

TABLE 27. The Uses of the Preposition "by".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
129	56	43.41	65	50.38	8	6.20

Turkish postposition "ile" is included in this item. The corresponding English preposition in this context is "by". 43.41 % of the subjects out of 129 used the preposition whereas 50.38 % of them used the other preposition "with" which have the same semantic function in Turkish. It was avoided by 6.20 % of the students. Instead of using a preposition they translated from Turkish to English as seen, "Electricity is used for lighting the streets."

#### 4.1.3.3. ITEM 3

Turkish: Bunlar kiloyla satılır.  
 English: These are sold by kilos.

TABLE 28. The Uses of the Preposition "by".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
124	62	50	62	50	0	0

The item tests the attitudes of the subjects in using English preposition of measure, "by" whose corresponding word is "ile" in Turkish. Since the meaning of "ile" corresponds to English preposition "with", it was observed that most of the subjects who made errors used "with" when they translated this sentence. Among 124 subjects, 50 % of the students made a correct translation as well as the students who made errors. None of them avoided using a preposition.



#### 4.1.3.4. ITEM 4

Turkish: Klubün üyeleri haftada bir toplanmaya karar verdi.

English: The members of the club decided to meet once a week.

TABLE 29. The Uses of the Prepositions "of".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
122	94	77.04	3	2.45	25	20.49

Item 4 includes the possessive preposition "of" and it has the same semantic function as the genitive suffix "-ün" in Turkish. On the basis of the percentages in the table above 77.04 % of the students out of 122 used the English genitive suffix correctly while only 2.45 % of them used the other prepositions. 25 (20.49 %) of them avoided using the preposition and translated it with another structure. Instead of "The members of the club" they used the "Club members" without a preposition, and that can be accepted as a correct item.

#### 4.1.3.5. ITEM 5

Turkish: Şapkalı adam yarışta başarılı oldu.

English: The man with a hat was successful in the race.

TABLE 30. The Uses of the Prepositions "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
116	46	39.65	16	13.79	54	46.55

This sentence was translated from Turkish into English by 116 subjects. Out of 116 subjects 39.65 % used the possessive preposition "with" correctly while 13.79 % of them made errors. 46.55 % of the subjects avoided using the preposition and they translated using the relative pronoun "who" as in "The man who has a hat".

#### 4.1.3.6. ITEM 6

Turkish: Kardeşime doğumgününde Yaşar Kemal tarafından yazılan bir kitap vereceğim.

English: On his/her birthday I'm going to give a book to my brother/sister which was written by Yasar Kemal.

TABLE 31. The Use of the Preposition "by".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
111	83	74.77	15	13.51	13	11.71

This sentence was translated from Turkish to English by 111 subjects; 74.77 % of whom used the correct preposition "by", and 13.51 % of whom made errors. 11.71 % of the subjects avoided the preposition.

On the basis of the values in Table 31, it can be concluded that 74.77 % the subjects have gained the mastery over the preposition of agent "by" whose counterpart is "tarafından" in Turkish. 11.71 of the subjects avoided using a preposition in this context and translated this sentence using English genitive case "-in" as can be seen in the sentence "Yaşar Kemal's book".

#### 4.1.3.7. ITEM 7

Turkish: Bu kalemle yazmayı dene.

English: Try to write with this pen.

TABLE 32. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
117	61	52.13	26	22.22	30	25.64

The sentence in this item requires the use of a preposition of instrument and the appropriate preposition here is "with". 52.13 % of the subjects used the correct

preposition while 22.22 % of them used the other prepositions. The majority of the subjects who made errors used the other instrumentative preposition "by". Both of them have the same semantic function as the postpositional construction in the absolute case "with" in Turkish.

It was avoided by the 25.64 % subjects who translated the same item from Turkish into English as "Try to write using this pen" which can be acceptable in this context without a preposition.

#### 4.1.3.8. ITEM 8

Turkish: Lütfen bu anahtarları ona verin.  
English: Please give these keys to her/him.

TABLE 33. The Uses of the Preposition "to".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
120	50	41.66	8	6.66	62	51.66

Out of 120 students, 41.66 % of them used the correct preposition "to" whose counterpart is the "dative case" in Turkish while 6.66 % subjects answered the question incorrectly. 51.66 % of them avoided using the preposition and preferred to answer without a preposition as seen in the sentence: "Please give her/him these keys" which is also a reasonable answer in this item.

It can be concluded that the mastery over English direct object is complete by the subjects with or without a preposition. The general tendency is using this item without using the preposition "to".

#### 4.1.3.9. ITEM 9

Turkish: Bugün babamla seyahate çıkacağız.  
English: Today I'm going on holiday with my father.

TABLE 34. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
126	80	63.49	2	1.58	44	34.92

The sentence in this item involves the postposition in the absolute case "ile" corresponding comitative preposition "with" in English. Out of 126 subjects, 63.49 % answered the question correctly, only 1.58 % of them made errors. 34.92 % of the subjects avoided using the correct preposition "with".

It can be concluded that 44 of the 126 subjects avoided using the preposition and translated the same item as seen in the exercise. "My father and I are going on holiday tomorrow".

#### 4.1.3.10. ITEM 10

Turkish: O eşiyile birlikte küçük bir evde yaşar.  
English: He lives in a small house with his wife.

TABLE 35. The Uses of the Preposition "with".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
125	107	85.6	2	1.6	16	12.8

The appropriate answer here is the comitative preposition "with". 16 % of the subjects used the preposition correctly, only 1.6 % of them made errors. The avoidance in this item is 12.8 %.

It can be concluded that the mastery over the use of this preposition by the subjects is complete.

In the second part of Exercise C, the mastery over English non-literal phrasal verbs were analyzed. It would also help the researcher to understand whether the learners got the meaning of the verb or the phrasal verb itself when they translate from English into Turkish. Avoidance in the use of phrasal verbs were considered to be incorrect items since the meaning of the verb is different from the meaning of the phrasal verb. It would provide a better understanding if the learners were aware of the usage and meaning of the English phrasal verbs.

#### 4.1.3.11. ITEM 11

English: It took her a long time to get over the death of her husband.

Turkish: Kocasının ölümünün üstesinden gelmesi uzun zaman aldı.

TABLE 37. The Uses of English Phrasal Verb "get over".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
105	23	21.90	23	78.09	0	0

As seen in the table, out of 105 subjects 21.90 % translated the phrasal verb "get over" (üstesinden gelmek) correctly, 78.09 % of them made errors. Most of the subjects who made errors translated the phrasal verb "get over" as "unutmak" trying to guess the meaning from the context.

#### 4.1.3.12. ITEM 12

English: The gun went off by accident and wounded him in the leg.  
Turkish: Silah kazayla ateş aldı/patladı ve onu bacağından yaraladı.

TABLE 38. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "go off".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
116	74	63.79	42	36.20	0	0

The second phrasal verb which was tested in this item is "go off" (ateş aldı or patladı). It was concluded that the mastery over this phrasal verb by 63.79 % of the subjects is complete. 36.90 % of them made errors. None of them avoided using the phrasal verb itself and translated only the verb "go" into Turkish.

It can be concluded that the mastery over the phrasal verb "go off" is not complete but good. This can be the result of the usage of this phrasal verbs are more widespread than the others.

#### 4.1.3.13. ITEM 13

English: The question of salary will come up at the next general meeting.  
Turkish: Maaş sorunu gelecek toplantıda görüşülecek.

TABLE 39. The Uses of Phrasal Verb "come up".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
104	50	48.07	54	51.92	47	45.19

The sentence was translated from English into Turkish by 104 subjects, 48.02 % of whom translated the phrasal verb come up (görüşülecek), which is correct and 51.92 % made errors. 45.19 % of the subjects who made errors translated the verb of the phrasal verb rather than the phrasal verb itself. Instead of "görüşülecek" they think the meaning of the verb "come" and translated as "gelecek".



#### 4.1.3.14. ITEM 14

English: He doesn't get on very well with his family.

Turkish: Ailesiyle çok iyi geçinmez/anlaşmaz.

TABLE 40. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "get on".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
124	100	80.64	24	19.35	0	0

80.64 % of 124 subjects have gained a complete mastery over the phrasal verb "get on" since it is a well-known phrasal verb and easy to get the meaning from the context. 19.35 % of the subjects made errors. None of them avoided using the phrasal verb.

#### 4.1.3.15. ITEM 15

English: Mary went away in a such a hurry that she left her passport behind.

Turkish: Mary öylesine aceleyle ayrıldığı pasaportunu arkada bıraktı.

TABLE 41. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "go away".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
102	29	28.43	73	71.57	46	45.09

The item was designed to test the use of the phrasal verb "go away" (ayrılmak). Among 102 subjects, 28.43 % of them translated correctly while 71.17 % of the subjects did not. 45.06 % of the subjects who made errors translate the verb of the phrasal verb instead of the meaning of phrasal verb itself. Instead of "ayrılmak" they answered "gitmek".

It can be concluded that the mastery over the phrasal verb "go away" is not complete, in other words "go off" was not accepted as a new word and "off" was ignored.

#### 4.1.4.16. ITEM 16

English: He always takes his false his teeth out before he goes to bed.

Turkish: Her zaman yatmadan önce takma dişini çıkarır.

TABLE 42. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "take out".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
103	64	62.14	39	37.86	30	29.12

This item tests the meaning of the phrasal verb "take out" (çıkarmak) and 37.86 % of whom made errors whereas 62.14 % of whom translated correctly. 29.13 % of the errors are done by the subjects who translated the verb "take" instead of "take out" and they translated the same item as "takma dişlerini alır".

#### 4.1.3.17. ITEM 17

English: I took my cup of tea into the sitting room and sat there.

Turkish. Çayımı odaya götürdüm ve orada oturdum.

TABLE 43. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "take into".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
113	12	10.62	101	89.38	86	76.11

Of 113 subjects, 10.62 % translated correctly the meaning of "take into" while 89.38 % of them did not. 76.11 % of the subjects translated the meaning of the verb "take".

It can be concluded that the mastery over the phrasal verb "take into" is not complete although it can be accepted a well-known phrasal verb in English.

#### 4.1.3.18. ITEM 18

English: The shelter might fall down if the rain comes back.

Turkish: Eğer yağmur tekrar yağarsa sığınak çökebilir.

TABLE 44. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "come back".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
105	81	77.14	24	22.85	24	22.85

The meaning of the phrasal verb "come back" (happen again) is tested in this item. On the basis of the percentages, it can be said that the majority of the subjects have gained a complete mastery over the phrasal verb "come back" in this context.

77.14 % of 105 subjects translated correctly whereas 22.85 % of them made errors. All of the subjects who made errors translated the verb come (gelmek) itself. All the errors in this sentence were the result of the avoidance of using the phrasal verb, the others did the job correctly.

#### 4.1.3.19. ITEM 19

English: The policeman took down the number of the stolen car.

Turkish: Polis çalınan arabanın numarasını yazdı/not etti.

TABLE 45. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "take down".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
118	28	23.73	90	76.27	70	59.32

The item tests the meaning of the phrasal verb "take down" by the 118 subjects, 76.27 % of whom made errors while 23.73 % of whom translated correctly. 59.32 % of them translated the verb "take" instead of the meaning of "take down".

The majority of the errors were from the avoidance of using the phrasal verb, only 6.27 % of the subjects made different errors from the avoidance. The mastery over the use of this phrasal verb has only been gained by the 23.73 % of the subjects.

#### 4.1.3.20. ITEM 20

English: She put her daughter through college by selling her jewellery.  
 Turkish: Mücevherlerini satarak kızının okul masrafını karşıladı.

TABLE 46. The Uses of the Phrasal Verb "put through".

Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors	Total Avoidance	% of Avoidance
97	4	4.12	93	95.88	32	32.98

Only 4.12 % subjects of 97 translated the phrasal verb "put through" while 95.88 % of them translated incorrectly. 32.98 % of errors are made by the students who translated the verb "put" instead of the phrasal verb "put through". These subjects translated this item as "Okula koydu" which is an appropriate usage in Turkish.

It can be concluded that the mastery over the phrasal verb "put through" is incomplete since this phrasal verb is not very common and well-known in English.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 5.1. Summary

There are some factors which may influence and characterize second language learner system. Two of them are important in particular: mother tongue interference and intralingual interference. Mother tongue has got an important effect on acquisition and use of other languages. Sentences in the target language may exhibit interference from the mother tongue. Interference analysis tends to be from the deviant sentence back to the mother tongue. Intralingual interference, on the other hand, refers to items produced by the learner, which reflect not the structure of the mother tongue, but generalizations based on particular exposure to the target language. Contrastive analysis works the other way, predicting errors by comparing the linguistic systems of the mother tongue and the target language. Thus, contrastive analysis and error analysis complement each other in their applied goals and error analysis only becomes more fruitful when undertaken with the help of contrastive analysis. It is a fact that contrastive analysis supports error analysis both at the beginning and during the process of language learning.

Differences between languages are important for the learner because they are the sources of difficulties. Learning a foreign language is essentially learning to overcome these difficulties. Hence, teaching will be directed at these points where there are structural differences. Similarities, on the other hand, hardly ever cause difficulties. Since teaching is directed at the differences between languages and the teaching will vary according to the mother tongue of the learners, when the differences are discovered by the help of a comparative-contrastive study, it becomes possible to predict the difficulties that the learners have.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the errors committed in the use of English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs and the origins of errors produced by Turkish learners of English since they are the most problematic topics for Turkish learners of English. The researcher also attempted to explore what sort of difficulties students were confronted with during their mastery of English and whether or not they avoided using English grammatical prepositions and non-literal phrasal verbs when they translated these items.

The data were collected through three different types of exercises:

- A. Multiple choice,
- B. Fill-in-the-blank,
- C. Translation.

The results were categorised as Total, Correct and Incorrect in Exercises A and B; Total, Correct, Incorrect and Avoidance in Exercise C. In this study, descriptive method was used because this study involves collecting data that test the validity of the hypotheses related to the present status of the population. The researcher has also decided to use descriptive method in order:

- to describe the facts and characteristics of the population factually and accurately,
- to describe a situation or an area accurately by bringing the fact to the attention to the reader.

## 5.2. Conclusions

Analysis of the data collected from the subjects through Exercise A indicates that the mastery over non-literal phrasal verbs is not complete by the preparatory class students at the University of Gaziantep. The results show that non-literal phrasal verbs create problems for students, not only because there are so many of them and it is too difficult to learn them, but also because the combination of verb and particle seems completely random. These may be increased by the way in which phrasal verbs are presented in course books, by methodology or by the fact that there is no system for learning phrasal verbs. The subjects in this study did not accept the phrasal verbs used in this exercise as new words but as item whose meaning can be understood by separating the parts. However, the meaning of idiomatic phrasal verbs (e.g. non-literal phrasal verbs) does not appear to be the sum of the two parts. For example, in the third question in exercise A there is a sentence like this. "I went into the proposal very carefully", nobody is going or entering anywhere in this item. In this sentence, "go into" means "to discuss" and hardly anybody answers this question if he does not know the meaning of this phrasal verb itself or if he tries to understand the meaning considering these two items separately.

A very important feature of phrasal verbs is that many of them have special meanings. They cannot be understood by knowing what the individual parts mean. They must be learnt as a single unit in the same way as one learns an idiomatic phrase. Phrasal verbs have more than one meaning; some of them are literal and they generally do not cause difficulties. On the other hand, non-literal ones, or in other words, idiomatic ones are the most problematic of all the phrasal verbs. Along with this, the same phrasal verb can be both literal and non-literal. For Example:

- a. I left my umbrella in the bus but I got it back from the Lost Property Office.  
(= get something again which you own)
- b. I'll get him back all the nasty things he said. (Item 7, Exercise 1)  
(= punish someone)

The second item is much more difficult to understand than the first one because you may understand the meaning of the item by considering the meanings of the verb



and particle separately even if one does not know the meaning of the phrasal verb itself. The second one, on the other hand, is a non-literal phrasal verb and it is almost impossible to understand the meaning of it by knowing what the individual parts mean. Anyone who has to answer the question, cannot translate this sentence correctly unless he knows the meaning of the phrasal verb or guesses the meaning in the context correctly.

TABLE 46. The Uses of English Non-literal Phrasal Verbs by the Subjects

Phrasal Verb	Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
put off	129	20	15.50	109	84.49
get back	120	22	18.33	98	81.66
put away	132	32	24.45	100	75.75
get through	131	36	27.48	95	72.51
come out	127	35	27.55	92	72.44
take up	132	39	29.54	93	70.46
put on	133	40	30.07	93	69.92
go into	128	43	33.59	85	66.40
go over	132	51	38.63	81	61.36
come down	127	62	48.81	65	51.18

This table was prepared in accordance with the order of difficulty encountered by the subjects in the use of English non-literal phrasal verbs. As seen in the table, approximately 70 % of subjects have difficulties in using phrasal verbs. The phrasal verbs such as "come down" and "go over" which were used correctly by the subjects are the ones which are used more commonly than the others and not highly idiomatic ones.

Difficulties which are confronted by the learners may arise from the mother tongue interference on the target language. In Turkish, there are also two-word verbs but the meanings of each item can be understood by knowing the meanings of parts. These are not the idiomatic words like the phrasal verbs in English and they also do not carry a meaning different from their real meaning. Apart from mother tongue interference, idiomaticity of the phrasal verbs may be another reason of the errors. These are difficult items not only for the foreign learners of English but also for the native speakers. As Richard Side (1990) explains the students do not like phrasal verbs because of the idiomaticity of them and partly because there is no system for learning the phrasal verbs; they are generally learnt by heart.

It can be concluded that the errors committed in the use of non-literal phrasal verbs by the subjects in this study were [Intralingual errors] rather than [Interference errors] as mentioned on page 32. This type of error originated within the original structure of English itself. Moreover as Richards and Sampson state that (1974) some of the items in English are difficult for native speakers as well as for learners of English as a foreign language.

In Exercise B, English grammatical prepositions "with", "by", "of" and "to" were analyzed. This table below indicates the results of the prepositions "of" in terms of "possessive" and "to" in terms of "indirect object".

TABLE 47. The Uses of the Prepositions "of" and "to" by the subjects.

preposition	Total Usage	Correct Usage	% of Correct Usage	Errors	% of Errors
of Item 2	128	38	26.68	90	70.31
to Item 6	117	73	62.39	40	37.90

As seen in the Table above, the majority of the subjects committed errors in the use of the possessive preposition "of" whereas the mastery over the indirect object "to" is complete by the subjects of this study. In Turkish, the "genitive case" is the counterpart of the possessive preposition "of", there is another usage of "genitive case" such as "-in", "-ın" in Turkish. The subjects may have learnt this item better than the first one. The other reasons for the errors committed by the subjects can be misunderstanding the context, carelessness or lack of interest. The "dative case" in Turkish is the counterpart of the indirect preposition "to" and most of the subjects have gained a complete mastery over the usage of this preposition.

In English the preposition "by" has different functions such as "agent", "instrument" and "measure"; on the other hand "with" is used in terms of "instrumentative", comitative" and "possessive". In all of them the most problematic one for Turkish students is the usage of instrumentative" because both of them are denoted by the same postposition "ile" in Turkish.

TABLE 48. The Uses of the Preposition "with" by the Subjects

No. of the Item	The Uses of "with"	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage
4	Instrumentative	118	41	77
5		122	42	80
7	comitative	122	72	50
8		124	122	2
9	possessive	113	49	64

TABLE 49. The Uses of the Preposition "by" by the Subjects

No. of the Item	The Uses of "by"	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage
1	agent	129	82	47
3	measure	120	30	90
10	instrumentative	118	20	98

is the "instrumentative" use of them since they have the same semantic function in Turkish. The postposition "ile" in Turkish denotes both "with" and "by" in English. It can be concluded that the native language interferes with the foreign language and transfer from their native language here is negative. The subjects who succeeded in the use of "with" in terms of "instrumentative" were fewer than the subjects who made errors in the use of this preposition. Findings demonstrate that the subjects did not make a good discrimination between the usage of "with" and "by" because of the interference from the native language of the subjects.

When we analyze the items in which the prepositions "with" and "by" were used in terms of "instrument" we can realize that the majority of the subjects did not confuse these items and they generally filled in the blanks with the correct items as was expected by the researcher. For example, the preposition "with" in terms of "comitative", which corresponds to the Turkish postposition "ile" was acquired by the 122 subjects out of 124 in the sentence: "I'm going to the cinema with Tom". Only two students answered the question using the preposition "by". In the following two tables are the results of the questions in which the prepositions "by" and "with" were used.



TABLE 50. English Grammatical Prepositions According to the Order of Difficulty.

Preposition	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Errors
by (instrument)	129	56	65
by (measure)	116	62	62
with (instrument)	132	61	26
with (possessive)	116	46	16
by (agent)	111	83	15
to (indirect obj.)	120	50	8
of (possessive)	122	94	3
with (comitative)	126	80	2
	125	107	2
of (possessive)	132	82	1

Apart from the "instrumentative" usage of these two prepositions, the mastery over the use of the preposition "by" in terms of "measure" has not been gained by the majority of the subjects partly because it is not a very well-known usage of the preposition "by".

The "comitative" use of the preposition "with" was filled in correctly by the majority of the subjects. Approximately only 20 subjects filled the space with the incorrect prepositions and the others did the job correctly though it has the same semantic function as the preposition "by" in Turkish.

It can be concluded that the mastery over the grammatical prepositions "with" and "by" is complete except for their usage of in terms of "instrumentative". This is not the result of the target language interference but native language interference since they

have the same semantic function in Turkish. This result cannot be valid for the comitative usage of the English preposition "with" which denotes the same postposition (-le) as well as the preposition "by".

Exercise C has two parts; the first part included ten sentences which were required to be translated from Turkish into English.

TABLE 51. The Uses of Prepositions According to the Order of Avoidance

No. of the Item	Preposition	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage	Total Avoidance
8	to Indirect Object	120	50	8	62
5	with Possessive	116	46	16	54
1	of Possessive	132	82	1	49
9	with Comitative	126	80	2	44
7	with Instrumentative	117	61	26	30
4	of Possessive	122	94	3	25
10	with Comitative	125	107	2	16
8	by Agent	111	83	15	13
2	by Instrumentative	129	56	65	8
3	by Measure	124	62	62	0

This table was prepared in accordance with the order of avoidance encountered by the subjects in the use of English grammatical prepositions. As seen in the table, the results were not different from the results of the Exercise B except in the usage of "possessive" grammatical preposition "of". In Exercise B, the preposition "of" is one of



the problematic ones although it is one of the best ones done correctly by the subjects. It does not mean that the subjects were not familiar with the form but this error was random. Thus, it is better to call this item not an error but a mistake because of carelessness, lack of attention or forgetfulness

The other results demonstrate that the "instrumentative" uses of the prepositions "by" and "with" were also the problematic ones as well as the "measure". The usage of the preposition in terms of "measure" is related to the fact that there is native language interference on the target language. The striking point here is the complete mastery over the usage of the preposition "with" in terms of "comitative" although it has the same semantic function in Turkish as the other prepositions mentioned above. It can be concluded that there are also some other factors affected the learning of English grammatical prepositions "by" and "with" besides the native language interference.

The use of the preposition "by" in terms of "agent" was complete by the subjects in Exercise C as well as the Exercise B.

As seen in the table above, the majority of the subjects avoid using prepositions rather than committing errors, most probably in order not to take risks. The subjects who avoided using prepositions translated the items into English using the other structures of English and most of them did the job correctly without using a preposition.

The findings validate the researcher's hypothesis that the preparatory class students at the University of Gaziantep avoid using English grammatical prepositions. Although there can be different psychological or linguistic factors that affect the avoidance behaviour of the subjects in using English grammatical prepositions, the most effective factor is native language interference since there are differences between English and Turkish. These two languages are two different systems and there are many-to-one correspondences between them. For Example, the counterpart of English grammatical prepositions "with" and "by" is the Turkish postposition "ile" and this postposition not only denotes the "instrumentative" usage of "with" and "by" but also denotes these two prepositions in terms of "measure" and "comitative". The results show that except for the comitative usage, the subjects have not gained a complete mastery over these usages.

By looking at the results of this Exercise and the other studies done before and mentioned in Research History on pages 38-39, it can be concluded that many other Foreign learners of English have difficulties in the use of English prepositions as well as the Turkish learners of English. In order not to take risks and commit errors they avoid using prepositions and express the ideas with the other structures of English that have fewer risks than English prepositions.

TABLE 52. The uses of English Non-literal Phrasal Verbs

Phrasal Verb	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage	Avoidance
take into	113	12	86	86
take down	132	28	90	70
come up	104	50	54	47
go away	102	29	73	46
put through	97	4	61	32
take out	103	64	39	30
come back	105	81	24	24
get on	124	100	24	0
go off	116	74	42	0
get over	105	23	82	0

In this Exercise, avoidance was taken into consideration not separately as in the previous Exercise but as a part of incorrect usage since the avoidance in the use of phrasal verbs when they were translated from English into Turkish cannot be acceptable. In the translation of the non-phrasal verbs in this exercise, except for "get on", "go off" and "get over", the subjects generally translated only the verbs and ignore the meaning of the phrasal verb itself. As seen in the Exercise A, the general tendency here is to translate the parts in a phrasal verb not the whole part without separating. The majority of them translated "get on" in the item 14, partly because it is a very well-known phrasal verb in Turkish. The other subjects who did not avoid translating the whole part instead of the separate parts may have translated the phrasal verbs guessing correctly the meaning of the phrasal verbs from the context.

The phrasal verb which is translated by the majority of the subjects incorrectly is the phrasal verb "put through". Only 4 of the students translated the sentence into Turkish correctly since it is very idiomatic and not well-known even to some native speakers of English.

It can be concluded that the subjects have not gained a complete mastery over the usage of non-literal phrasal verbs; mostly because of the difference between the system of English and Turkish, the systems of phrasal verbs, lack of phrasal verbs in Turkish and difficulties in learning non-literal phrasal verbs. Phrasal verbs are one of the demoralizing items in English for both native speakers and learners of English as a foreign language.

The results may be summarized as the following in this study:

1. As was pointed out before, "interference" is the only point to which contrastive analysis paid attention but it is a defect to see all errors as effects of the "interference" of the mother tongue, ignoring all the other phenomena.

2. There are some elements in the foreign language which have similar features in his own language; these similar elements will be easy for the learner to get, but the elements that are different will be difficult for him to learn.

3. Translation word by word of idiomatic expressions into the learner's first language can produce classic howlers. Learners may try to translate a familiar expression into his first language at times. One of the most typical situations is when a learner has been asked to communicate something in writing he is aware that he does not know the appropriate expression or structure or he may even be unaware that an appropriate one exists. Naturally, as he wishes to communicate his ideas, he will fall back on the language system with which he is familiar, namely his mother tongue or try to guess the meaning of the item from the context.

4. While people are learning their native language, they acquire regularities in the language and they apply these all structures in the language. This is the same for second language learners. They make generalizations or regularizations and sometimes the application of rules is not complete because there are many exceptions in English.

5. Turkish learners of English avoid using prepositions if they can express the ideas with another structure of the language. They tend to avoid preposition rather than making errors in order not to take risks.

6. Turkish learners of English have not gained a complete mastery over phrasal verbs. They are not aware that phrasal verbs are whole units different from the separate parts that form the phrasal verb. They try to understand the meaning of a phrasal verb by translating the parts, ignoring the fact that it is a new item and not just a sum of the parts.

7. In the light of the study the researcher thinks that the students at the University of Gaziantep have difficulties in using English prepositions and phrasal verbs during their mastery of English.

### 5.3. Recommendations

Errors must be seen as signs of learning, not as signs of failure. Errors are not cause for alarm but are tools for helping us to help the student progress easily and naturally through the stages of his interlanguage. By the help of error analysis, as teachers, we may be able to allow the learner's innate strategies to dictate our practice and determine our syllabus. We may also learn to adapt ourselves to his needs rather than impose upon him our preconceptions of how, what and when he should learn it.

This study needs attention because learning English prepositions and phrasal verbs are a big handicap for Turkish students learning English as a foreign language. Because of the different structures of the two languages, prepositions are always very difficult to learn. They either avoid using them or use them incorrectly. Therefore, it seems obvious to emphasize the correct use of prepositions beginning at the elementary level.

### 5.4. Further Considerations

Prepositions and phrasal verbs should be taught to the students not in isolation, but in several contexts. It may eliminate the negative effects of many-to-one correspondences between English prepositions and Turkish case marker and postpositions on the acquisition of the prepositions in English.

During this study, the researcher observed that error analysis is not widespread in Turkey. As EFL teachers, we should accept error analysis as an essential part of teaching and learning English.

Making an error analysis is a form of self-education. The errors may show a teacher areas where his teaching has not been effective. Error analysis may lead to improved teaching methods through a greater awareness of the nature and causes of the errors that are committed by the learners. It also makes anybody who undertakes this work think about the nature of the errors and the reasons why they are made. He may then attempt to find some answers. Error analysis can provide valuable data for the preparation of teaching materials, textbooks and examinations. By the help of error analysis we may be concerned with performance at a particular level and with problems associated with a particular word, tense or structure across various levels of learning.

Without a study based on error analysis it is difficult to determine which errors play a major role in the student's ability to manipulate grammatical elements to build up sentences. We need to know which part of the language they have difficulties with so that we can conduct remedial teaching.

EFL teachers should be aware of what is going on in the field of EA. We can gain new insights that will help us to view our students in a new light. We can expect to gain a great deal from research done on error analysis in the future.



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## APPENDIX A

### EXERCISE A

Choose the best option.

1. I wish we could sell the piano; it ..... too much space.  
a) takes on    b) takes in    c) takes up    d) takes down    e) takes off
2. The house itself is quite attractive, but the fact that it's near a busy airport ..... me .....  
a) puts/away    b) puts/back    c) puts/by    d) puts/off    e) puts/on
3. I ..... the proposal very carefully with my lawyer and finally I decided not to accept their offer.  
a) went into    b) went ahead    c) went in    d) went for    e) went on
4. I tried Juliet in hospital and ..... without difficulty.  
a) got round    b) got through    c) got off    d) got on    e) got over
5. It's no use trying to keep in secret; it's sure to ..... in the end.  
a) come over    b) come out    c) come into    d) come through    e) come back
6. They've ..... all the calculations but they still can't find the mistake.  
a) gone into    b) gone away    c) gone over    d) gone in    e) gone for
7. I'll ..... him ..... for all the nasty things he said.  
a) get/away    b) get/back    c) get/into    d) get/along    e) get/in
8. Look at this mess! ..... your toys ..... at once, children.  
a) put/on    b) put/aside    c) put/out    d) put/off    e) put/away
9. I'm waiting till prices ..... before buying a new carpet.  
a) put/off    b) put/up    c) put/away    d) put/out    e) put/down
10. She has ..... a lot of weight since I last saw her.  
a) put off    b) put up    c) put on    d) put in    e) put out

## APPENDIX B

### EXERCISE B

Fill the appropriate prepositions in the blanks.

1. "Rhapsodi in August" is produced ..... Akira Kurosawa and you can see it in the cinema on the corner.
2. They showed us photographs ..... their baby.
3. Those eggs are sold ..... the dozen.
4. I managed to find my way ..... a torch.
5. After the accident, he started to walk ..... a crutch.
6. We've lent our hammer ..... Mr Jones and he always keeps it for ages.
7. Don't touch them ..... bare hands.
8. I'm going to the cinema ..... Tom. We've already bought our tickets.
9. The man ..... the pipe and long hair has been working for that company since he was sixteen.
10. The child was very alarmed ..... the news I brought.

## APPENDIX C

### EXERCISE C

C. I. Translate the following sentences into English. Make sure you use (a) preposition(s) in each sentence.

1. Okulun adı deęiřtirildi.
2. Sokaklar elektrikle aydınlatılıyor.
3. Bunlar kiloyla satılır.
4. Kulübün üyeleri haftada bir toplanmaya karar verdi.
5. Şapkalı adam yarışta başarılı oldu.
6. Kardeşime doğumgününde Yaşar Kemal tarafından yazılan bir kitap vereceğim.
7. Bu kalemle yazmayı dene.
8. Lütfen bu anahtarları ona verin..
9. Bugün babamla seyahate çıkacağız.
10. O eşiyile birlikte küçük bir evde yaşar.

C.II. Translate the following sentences into Turkish.

1. It took her a long time to get over the death of her husband.
2. The gun went off with an accident and wounded him in the leg.
3. The question of salary will come up at the next general meeting.
4. He doesn't get on very well with his family.
5. Mary went away in such a hurry that she left her passport behind.
6. He always takes his false teeth out before he goes to bed.
7. I took my cup of tea into the sitting room and sat there.
8. The shelter might fall down if the rain comes back.
9. The policeman took down the number of the stolen car.
10. She put her daughter through college by selling her jewellery.



## APPENDIX D

TABLE A. 1. The Use of Phrasal Verbs in Exercise A by the Subjects

No. of Item	Phrasal Verb	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage
1	take up	132	39	93
2	put off	129	20	109
3	go into	128	43	85
4	get through	131	36	95
5	come out	127	35	92
6	go over	132	51	81
7	get back	120	22	98
8	put away	132	32	100
9	come down	127	62	65
10	put on	133	40	93

APPENDIX E

TABLE A. 2. The Use of Grammatical Prepositions by the Subjects in Exercise B.

No. of Item	Preposition	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage
1	by	129	82	47
2	of	128	38	90
3	by	120	30	90
4	with	118	41	77
5	with	122	42	80
6	to	117	73	44
7	with	122	72	50
8		124	122	2
9	with	113	49	64
10	by	118	20	98

APPENDIX F

TABLE A. 3. The Use of Prepositions by the Subjects in Exercise C.I

No. of Item	Preposition	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage	Avoidance
1	of	132	82	1	49
4		122	94	3	25
2	by	129	56	65	8
3	by	124	62	62	0
5	with	116	46	16	54
6	by	111	83	15	13
7	with	117	61	26	30
8	to	120	50	8	62
9	with	126	80	2	44
10		125	107	2	16

APPENDIX G

TABLE A. 4. The Use of the Phrasal Verbs by the Subjects in Exercise C. II.

No. of Item	Phrasal Verb	Total Usage	Correct Usage	Incorrect Usage	Avoidance
11	get over	105	23	82	0
12	go off	116	74	42	0
13	come up	104	50	54	47
14	get on	124	100	24	0
15	go away	102	29	73	46
16	take out	103	64	39	30
17	take into	113	12	101	86
18	come back	105	81	24	24
19	take down	118	28	90	70
20	put through	97	4	93	32