

A STUDY OF ERRORS IN LEARNING TURKISH:

CASE ENDINGS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study deals with errors in the use of case endings in learning Turkish by English-speaking students. Eighty-two examination papers submitted by the participants in an intensive summer course offered by Boğaziçi University are analyzed according to previously established categories of errors. Case endings are found to be an area where errors occurred in high frequency.

Two major types of errors are observed in the use of Turkish case endings; a case ending is either omitted or substituted by an inappropriate one. Omission of the case ending is more frequent than its substitution. Among the several types of case endings, accusative, dative and nominative forms represent the highest frequency of errors in that order. Also, the use of possessive represents a special difficulty.

The study indicates that most of the errors in the use of cases could be explained by the inherent difficulties of Turkish itself and a smaller portion of them by mother tongue interference. On the basis of this and other observations, implications for teaching are discussed.

The findings of this study should be considered as an attempt to identify the major areas of difficulty in teaching Turkish to foreign students, with an exploration as to the possible causes of errors. Similar studies along this line could provide further valuable information.

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada anadili İngilizce olan öğrencilerin Türkçe öğrenirken ismin hallerinde yaptıkları hatalar ele alınmaktadır. Boğaziçi Üniversitesi tarafından açılan yoğun yaz kursuna katılmış bulunan öğrencilere ait 82 sınav kâğıdı, daha önce belirlenmiş kategorilere göre incelenmiştir. Hataların en çok toplandığı yerlerden birinin, ismin halleri olduğu görülmüştür.

Türkçede ismin hallerinin kullanılmasında belli başlı iki tür hata yapıldığı gözlenmiştir; ya ek kullanılmamakta ya da gerekli ek yerine bir başkası kullanılmaktadır. Ekin kullanılmaması durumu daha yaygındır. En çok hata yapılan ismin halleri, sırasıyla, belirtme hali, yönelme hali ve yalın haldir. Ayrıca, iyelik halinin kullanılmasında da öğrenciler özellikle güçlüklerle karşılaşmaktadırlar.

Yapılan çalışma, ismin hallerindeki hatalı kullanımın daha çok Türkçenin kendi yapısıyla ilgili güçlüklerden kaynaklandığını; bu hataların nisbeten küçük bir kısmının, anadildeki alışkanlıklarla açıklanabileceğini göstermiştir. Elde edilen bulgular, öğretim uygulaması açısından tartışılmıştır.

Bu çalışma, yapılan hataların nedenleriyle ilgili tahminlerle birlikte, öğretimde karşılaşılan başlıca güçlüklerin ortaya çıkarılmasına yönelik bir çaba olarak görülmelidir. Bu yönde yapılacak benzeri çalışmalarla daha geniş ve değerli bilgiler elde edilebilir.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Occurrence of error in a course of language learning is a well-known fact. In the traditional approach, errors were considered to be a result of rules which were not mastered by the learner. Later, errors were regarded as indicators of difficulty that the learner had with certain aspects of the target language. The difficulty was generally explained by habits which were already established in the native language. According to this view, the errors due to the mother tongue interference could be avoided by adequate teaching techniques based on contrastive analysis of native and target languages.

The most recent theories draw our attention to the fact that the substantial number of errors may be due to the learners' tendency to regularize and systematize the language data which they are being exposed to. This tendency in the direction of simplifying the target language are based either on mother tongue experience or on the earlier experience in the target language. In this context, the error analysis could be used for better understanding of language acquisition and, as feedback in the teaching process. This explains why the error analysis is a growing area of interest for linguists, psychologists and teachers of foreign language.

Error analysis is a systematic way of describing and explaining errors made by learners to achieve theoretical and pedagogical functions. The former leads to a better understanding of a second language learning strategies, while the latter is an excellent way to comprehend the main learning difficulties

in groups of learners. The identification of the errors together with qualitative (linguistic) and quantitative (frequency) classification may help the course planners, textbook writers and teachers to assign priorities to the treatment of each problem. In addition to the linguistic classification and the analysis of frequency, identification of possible causes of each type of error have implications for corrective and remedial teaching.

Purpose of the Study

This study is concerned with learners of Turkish as a foreign language. The writer was interested in the problem while she served as an assistant in a program of Turkish language and culture designed for foreign students.

It was felt that systematic analysis of errors could help to illuminate the special difficulties faced by learners and contribute to teaching of Turkish as a foreign language. Since the errors could be distributed over a very large area, it was decided that the study would be limited to one specific area in which the learners had a particular difficulty in mastering.

Method of Approach

This study is directed to the analysis of errors made by American learners of Turkish who participated in a two-month summer program of Turkish Language and Culture offered by Boğaziçi University in 1982 and 1983. The subjects covered in the study were all native speakers of English who came from various American universities and had previously had some

instruction in Turkish.

The analysis is based on the available 82 examination papers submitted by the participants of the summer program mentioned above. First, the categories of errors were established as a result of detailed examination of all the papers. The two broad categories identified were lexical and structural. Since lexical errors were considered outside the scope of this study, only the structural errors were further classified into subcategories. Altogether nine categories were identified: verb forms, pluralization, negation, question form, word order, cases, possessive and genitive forms and others.

The counting of these errors according to the above categories has resulted in a relatively high concentration in certain areas. One of these areas was cases. Considering this high concentration, this study will focus on the errors made in the case system together with genitive and possessive constructions. Possible causes of the errors made in the use of case endings are discussed. This is followed by implications for teaching.

II. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this chapter the place of error analysis in improving language instruction will be discussed with reference to available literature. This will be followed by an analysis of the nature and possible sources of errors.

A. The Place of Error Analysis in Language Teaching

Recent developments in technology have facilitated the contact of different language speakers within everyday life. Newspapers, magazines, books, films, television and radio programs are the media for entertainment as well as information exchange. The international tourism industry and vocational mobility have also played a role in this language contact. This internationalization of industry, commerce and professional affairs have led to an increase in the need and demand for language learning.

Scholars from various disciplines have been attracted by the increasing demand for language learning in the last several decades. Language teaching is not a discipline by itself. Its methods are based on the findings of linguistics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics.

Since linguistics has many important implications for language learning and teaching, a brief summary of major theories of modern linguistics is useful. Historically, there

are three main approaches: traditional, structural and generative-transformational grammar. Each approach is either a reaction to or a modification of the previous one.

Traditional Analysis

Latin was the primary language of scholarship in Europe until the 16th century. It was the only language whose grammar was studied in English schools. Studies of English grammar began to appear during the 16th and 17th centuries. Although the English structure differed from that of Latin, the latter was still used as a model. That is, the purpose of these studies was to use Latin as a tool in order to explain the structure of English. The traditionalists were primarily concerned with the written language. During the Renaissance, English and other Western European languages gained some importance as languages of scholarship. Scholars who tried to analyze the English language used the same old patterns of the preceding two centuries for classification of words and sentences. They concentrated on parts of speech which were categorized according to case, person, number, gender, mood, tense, etc. Sentences were classified as simple, compound and complex. This analysis gave rise to grammar-translation method in which students learned grammar rules and memorized vocabulary items. Learners were asked to translate a passage using a bilingual dictionary.

Structural Analysis

During the 19th century schools of grammar began to study and compare languages different from Latin in structure.

These studies led to the discovery of the shortcomings of the traditional approach in grammar. The structuralists thought that meaning can not be used as a tool for structural analysis. They did not reject the validity of distinguishing sentences as simple, compound and complex, but proposed to examine language in terms of its practical functions as means of communication. They made a distinction between lexical and structural meaning. The grammatical functions of a word in a sentence was its structural meaning. In order to understand a sentence one had to know both what the word meant and its grammatical function. Structural linguists argued that the recognition of structural meaning was independent of lexical meaning. They stressed the importance of contrasts within a language and between languages (Finacchiaro, p.8). This approach gave rise to the audio-lingual methods which incorporated the systems of source and target language at the levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax. It was considered that such analysis would serve for the prediction of the learners' difficulties. Native language interferes with the target language. Elements and structures similar in both the native and target language would be learned easily while those that were different needed to be emphasized. The psychological theory behind the audio-lingual method was behaviorism. In accordance with the principles of this school, language learning was seen as habit formation or a kind of conditioning. The application of behaviorism and structural linguistics is summarized by R. Lado as follows:

"Linguists insisted on the imitation and memorization of basic conversational sentences as spoken by native speakers. They also provided the descriptions of the distinctive elements of intonation, pronunciation, morphology and syntax that constituted the structure of the language, which gradually emerged as one mastered the basic sentences and variations. The powerful idea of pattern practice was developed, that is practice that deliberately sets out to establish as habits the patterns rather than the individual sentences, particularly where transfer from the native language creates learning problems." (Lado, p.6)

Structural linguistics was a revolutionary departure from the traditional grammar. For traditionalists grammar meant discussion of how a certain form of a construction was used etymologically or semantically. Whereas for structuralists the basic question was how languages actually worked as a functional system of communication.

Generative-Transformational Analysis

Structuralist school dominated the field of linguistics until Noam Chomsky's book titled Syntactic Structures was published in 1957. This new grammar is known as generative-transformational grammar.

Transformationalists disagree with the theory of language acquisition that the structuralists proposed. For structuralists, the child learns the language by associating certain language forms with specific situations (Stimulus-Response). Transformationalists argue that association cannot be an explanation for how languages are learned because the number of possible sentences in a language is infinite; no one can hear or produce all of them. Yet, a speaker of a language can understand and create new sentences without being

aware that he had never used or heard them before. They contend that every human being is born with a natural capacity which allows him to understand and apply the rules of a language. Studies on child language indicate that language acquisition is not based merely on imitation; it is a cognitive process.

There were two basic criticisms against structural grammar: (a) It was limited to the inventory and analysis of a collection of utterances without giving the characteristics of the rules which permit all the native speakers to produce grammatical sentences, and (b) it remained at the surface structure level. Concerning the first criticism, transformationalists believe that grammar should be an account of all and only the acceptable sentences in a language. It should generate any sentence that a native speaker is capable of creating an understanding. Transformational grammar provides clear, explicit and ordered rules instead of the forms provided by structuralist grammar. Transformational grammarians' aim was to achieve the most economic and systematic description of a language. As for the second criticism, transformational grammar assigns each sentence an underlying structure (deep structure). Transformational rules apply to this deep structure to generate corresponding surface structures.

Transformationalists have introduced the concepts of competence and performance. Competence is the native speaker's tacit, intuitive knowledge of the underlying system of the rules which he has internalized and the ability to judge the

grammaticality of an utterance by this unconscious knowledge. Performance is the speaker's actual use of language (verbal behavior).

As far as language teaching is concerned, although transformationalists have many criticisms of previous applications of linguistics to language teaching, they have not developed a complete alternative model. Chomsky himself makes this point as follows:

"...I am participating in this conference not as an expert on any aspect of the teaching of languages, but rather as someone whose primary concern is with the structure of language and, more generally, the nature of cognitive process. Furthermore I am frankly rather sceptical about the significance for the teaching of languages of such insights and understanding as have been obtained in linguistics and psychology. Surely the teacher of language would do well to keep informed of progress and discussion in these and the efforts of linguists and psychologists to approach the problems of language teaching from a principled point of view are extremely worthwhile from an intellectual as well as a social point of view. Still it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a 'technology' of language teaching."
(Roulet, p.42)

Still, the transformational-generative grammar has contributed to language teaching in the course of the last ten years. It gave rise to the communicative approach. From the practical point of view, transformational grammar provides information for structural exercise of the transformational type which has an important place in language teaching. Different structural drills are a result of the transformational approach to language. Transformational-generative grammar

emphasises the creative aspect of language which plays a very important role in modern language learning. It provides a system of rules permitting the generalization of infinite number of grammatical sentences. The mother tongue has not been regarded as an interfering factor but, as valuable aid that gives information on the systems and functioning of the target language. In practice short meaningful dialogs to teach alternative creative utterances are used. Description of grammar and vocabulary and transformations of basic sentences are included.

In the light of the preceding discussion of three different analyses it is possible to say that the most important contribution of generative- transformational grammar is determining the new interest and areas of research for the improvement of language teaching in the study of learning. Today the emphasis has shifted from teaching to a study of learning, which means a shift from teacher- centered to student-centered strategies.

Today the research in applied linguistics is primarily interested in the semantic aspects of language and of communication (Finocchiaro, p.9).

Teaching materials used in audio-lingual method, are merely based on contrastive analysis. There may be similarities and contrasts between two languages. Similarities facilitate the learning process while differences may interfere with the units of the target language. In the psychology of learning

this type of facilitation and interference falls within the area of transfer of learning. The literature suggests that teachers were often dissatisfied with the results of instruction completely based on contrastive analysis. Contrastive approach has also been criticized by linguists. The difficulties assumed on the basis of contrastive analysis may not correspond to the actual problem areas due to the fact that the differences between two languages are not the only sources of error, and in fact the differences may not be at times a source of error at all. In this connection Richards makes the following observation:

"Studies of second language acquisition, however, have tended to imply that the contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology, and least predictive at the syntactic level" (Richards, p. 172).

Error Analysis as a Possible Approach

Recent linguistic and psychological theories brought new dimensions to language teaching. If language learning is not merely habit formation, but a cognitive process, imperfectly formed habits and negative transfer are not enough for the explanation of the errors committed by the second language learners. In order to overcome this deficiency, some linguists propose studying learners' performance. Among them is Corder:

"... the study of learners' errors, and subsequently of interlanguage, as a phenomenon, was motivated, as I suggested, by a particular hypothesis about the process of language learning. The results of these studies have tended so far to confirm the usefulness of this particular approach. The hypothesis is that the learner is creating for himself an account

of the structural properties of the target language, about its grammar, on the basis of his interaction with the data he is exposed to. This account, which constitutes a sort of hypothesis about the data, is systematic and coherent and is...his personal grammar of the data" (Corder, p. 73).

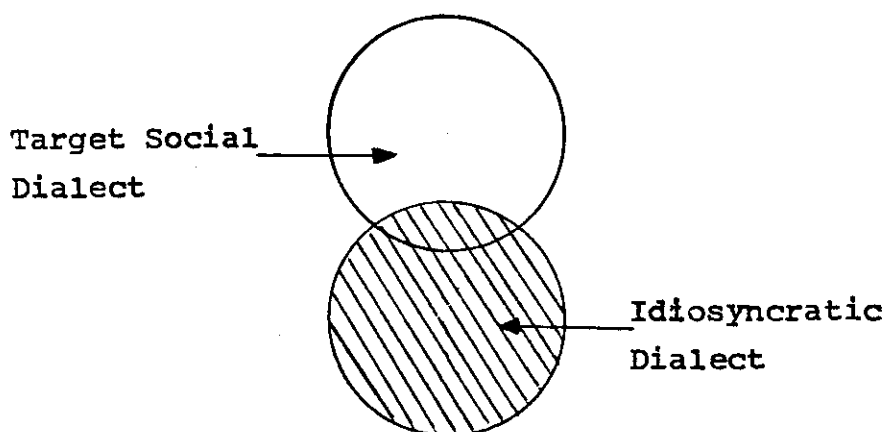
Error analysis has been used to explain how a child learns his native language. Second language learning is considered to be the same as the first language acquisition, except the motivation required for the former. Corder proposes as a working hypothesis that "...the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. Such a proposal does not imply that the course of learning is the same in both cases" (Corder, p.8). In this context, learners' errors may have a significance for language teaching. Consequently errors should not be viewed only as problems to be overcome, but rather as normal and inevitable features indicating the strategies that learners use (Richards, p. 4).

In contrastive analysis and its application to teaching occurrence of errors is a sign of inadequate teaching technique; whereas in recent theory, error has a positive implication and constitutes a feedback for the learner and the teacher. Thus, we may summarize the purpose of error analysis as a systematic way of describing and explaining errors made by speakers of a foreign language (Johansson, p. 248).

Errors are considered as an inevitable and necessary part of language acquisition. Corder states that teachers may

understand learners' state of knowledge at any particular moment, and the strategies employed by them through studying the errors. In this sense systematic errors give the teacher the opportunity for devising appropriate corrective measures.

Corder suggests that the language of (language) learners is a special sort of dialect. He gives two justifications for this argument. First, the learners' language has a grammar, and secondly, some of the rules account for both the learner's language and the target language. Since two languages sharing some rules of grammar are dialects in the linguistic sense, the learners' language is a dialect too. However, there are some other criteria for dialects; they are a form of language used in a part of a country or by a class of people. A dialect must be associated with a social group or a geographic area. Thus, Corder makes a distinction between social dialects (the language of social groups) and idiosyncratic dialects which are not the languages of social groups. Some of the rules of idiosyncratic dialects are particular to an individual, and these characteristics make interpretation difficult for the native speaker (Corder, pp.14-15). The following figure shows Corder's idea:



He suggests four classes of idiosyncratic dialects:

1. Language of poems,
2. Speech of an aphasic,
3. Language of an infant learning his mother tongue,
4. Language of learners of a second language.

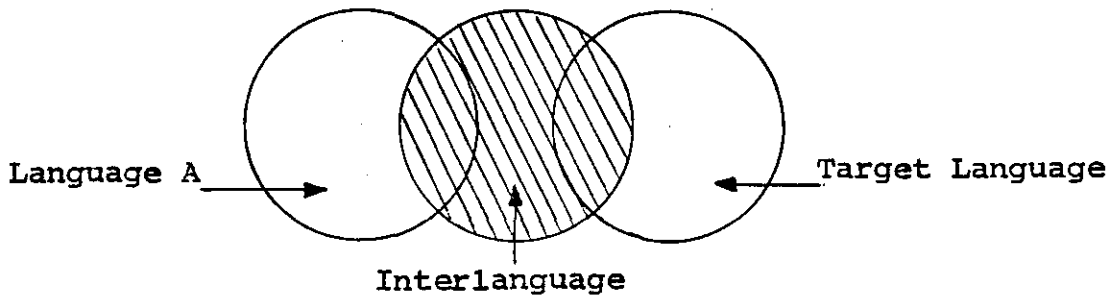
Error analysis is applicable to all of them.

Selinker has proposed the term interlanguage for the last class of idiosyncratic dialects. Systematic errors have led to the concept of interlanguage. Regular and consistent errors indicate that the learner's language has its own rules. The version of the target language employed by the learner has been given some other names by different linguists. The term approximative system is proposed by Nemser, and it is defined as follows:

"An approximative system is the deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to utilize the target language. Such approximative systems vary in character in accordance with proficiency level; variation is also introduced by learning experience,...communication function, personal learning characteristics etc." (Richards, p. 55).

James calls this system interlingua while Corder himself, offers the term transitional competence.

As Corder points out, all of these terms emphasize different aspects of the phenomenon. The terms interlanguage and interlingua suggests that the learner's language is a mixed system of source and target language.



(Taken from Corder, p. 17)

The term "transitional competence" emphasizes that the learner has a constantly developing knowledge that underlies the utterances he makes. Finally, "approximative system" emphasizes the goal-directed development of the learner's language towards the target language system (Corder, p. 67).

The study of interlanguage provides valuable data for the theories of (second) language learning and about the strategies and procedures employed by the learner. In addition to this theoretical investigation, the practical aim of such a study is to provide results which would lead to better teaching methods and materials. Error analysis is an important tool for this purpose (Svartvik, p. 52).

Error analysis may also be used for predicting difficulties in foreign language learning. Using the results of error analysis which have been previously made, a course could be designed and materials could be prepared with a view to emphasize the possible problem areas for the learner.

Svartvik summarizes how error analysis could improve the language teaching situation as follows:

1. to set up hierarchy of difficulties
2. to achieve a realistic ranking of teaching priorities at different levels
3. to objectify principles of grading, preferably in international cooperation
4. to produce suitable teaching materials
5. to revise syllabuses in a non-ad hoc manner
6. to construct tests which are relevant for different purposes and levels
7. to decompartmentalize language teaching at different levels, in particular the school and university levels (Svartvik, p. 13)

In conclusion, we may say that the error analysis could be used for a variety of purposes by linguists, psychologists and teachers. These purposes include research, course design, development of teaching materials, choice of teaching strategies and evaluation.

B. Sources and Nature of Errors

Error analysis goes beyond the collection of errors. A list of errors has little value and is insufficient for achieving better teaching methods and materials. Thus, several scholars have given particular attention to the possible sources of errors which occur at different stages during the learning process. The work in this area includes description of errors, their explanation and finally the ways

of dealing with them.

Corder makes a distinction between the errors of performance and the errors of competence (Corder, p. 10; Richards, p. 172). According to him, errors of performance are related to nonlinguistic factors, such as fatigue, memory limitations, and psychological conditions. The speaker immediately realizes such an error and can correct it. Errors of competence, on the other hand, represent the learners' transitional competence, or his final stage of knowledge of a certain aspect of a language. For example, the learner may use the singular form of a verb with a plural subject noun and then correct it immediately as opposed to the same error made regularly without being fully conscious of it. The first would be an error of performance, while the second would be an example of an error of competence. Such a distinction is valid. It is also useful for distinguishing between the systematic errors which require further work from those which are unsystematic. However it may not always be possible to distinguish between the two types of errors as in the case of scattered errors found on limited written data. In addition, the distinction works better with individuals rather than with groups.

Errors of performance are also called intralingual and developmental errors, which reflect the learner's mastery of the target language at a particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. According to Richards (p. 173), such errors are not the result

of mother tongue interference (interlanguage errors), but their sources are within the target language itself.

In order to understand the sources and nature of errors, it is necessary to review the psychological learning strategies employed by the learner. Selinker, gives five central psycholinguistic processes that constitute the knowledge which underlies interlanguage behavior (Selinker, pp. 214; 216-221):

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

These psychological learning strategies are studied as independent from the mode of instruction.

The central concept in the psycholinguistic processes above is fossilization. This phenomenon is defined as "...-linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language" (Selinker, p. 215). Selinker explains the five processes employed in interlanguage performance as follows:

"It is my contention that the most interesting phenomena in interlanguage performance are those items,

rules, and subsystems which are fossilizable (...). If it can be experimentally demonstrated that fossilizable items, rules, and subsystems which occur in interlanguage performance are a result of the native language then we are dealing with the process of language transfer; if these (...) are a result of identifiable items in training procedures, then we are dealing with the process known as the transfer of training; if they are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned then we are dealing with strategies of second language learning; if they are a result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language, then we are dealing with strategies of second language communication; and, finally, if they are a result of a clear overgeneralization of target language rules and semantic features then we are dealing with the overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material" (pp. 216-217).

Research in the psychological aspect of language learning has contributed to broaden our understanding of language acquisition.

Similar concepts are referred to by many other linguists in order to explain the sources of errors which occur in interlanguage performances. Following Selinker's framework, Richards suggests four types of errors:

1. Overgeneralization,
2. Ignorance of rule restrictions,
3. Incomplete application of rules,
4. False concepts hypothesized.

When the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language, it is attributable to overgeneralization. Taylor defines overgeneralization as "a process in which a language learner uses a syntactic rule of the target language inappropriately when he attempts to generate a novel target language utterance"

(B. Taylor, p. 393). For example, speakers of many languages may produce a sentence like "Where did you wanted to go?" when they are learning English. Here past tense suffix -ed is applied to an inappropriate environment by analogy to the affirmative form in the learner's English interlanguage.

Inadequate teaching methods play a potential role in the frequency of overgeneralized structures. Many pattern drills seem to encourage the application of incorrect rules. The example given by Richards is:

"

<u>Teacher</u>	<u>Instruction</u>	<u>Student</u>
He walks quickly	Change to continuous form	He is walks quickly

This has been described as overlearning of a structure. Other times, he walks may be contrasted with he is walking, he sings with he can sing, and a week later, without teaching any of the forms, the learner produces he can sings, he is walks" (Richards, p. 176)

Overgeneralization errors can be taken as a clue for the learner's knowledge about a particular syntactic rule of the target language. Such errors indicate that the learner has mastered certain rules without learning their correct distribution. Richards defines ignorance of the rule restrictions as "...failure to observe the restrictions of existing structures, that is, the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply" (Richards, pp. 175-176). The word rahatlı found in the present data is an example: Turkish

attributive suffix -li derives adjectives from nouns such as dikkat (care), dikkat-li (careful). However, the word rahat means both comfort and comfortable.

The third category of learning strategies is the incomplete application of rules. Richards gives the example of the systematic difficulty in the use of questions. Although both the question and the statement forms are extensively taught, the grammatical question form may never become part of the competence in the target language. The learner can achieve quite efficient communication, by using a statement form, instead of a question form.

The last category is developmental errors which result from "faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language" (Richards, p. 178). Such errors may be due to the presentation or gradation of the material. The form was may be interpreted as the past tense marker and lead the student to utter one day it was happened.

Although most of the errors made by second language learners are due to inherent difficulties in the target language itself, the role of interference in second language learning is also accepted by many linguists. Some linguists, however, have doubts about the reality of the phenomenon of interference. One of them, Carroll, makes this point as follows:

"I have been assuming that positive and negative transfer phenomena in learning a second language are reality. We could in fact, ask the question whether transfer phenomena are not simply artifacts of particular training methods, or rather the absence of

suitable training methods. Many examples of interference seem to be the result of what we may call unguided imitative behavior, or of untutored responding in terms of prior learning" (Bhatia, p. 339).

The three types of errors, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction, and incomplete application of rules are called intralingual errors. Errors on the other hand, which can be due to the established habits in the native language are called interlanguage or interlingual errors. Intralingual errors are due to the interference from the target language. This category could also be called internal interference (Bhatia, p. 339). Interlanguage errors are clearly due to mother tongue interference.

Research on different groups of language learners indicates that interlingual and intralingual errors correlate with each other. Errors due to native language transfer are more common among elementary students. As the learner's proficiency increases, this reliance on mother tongue decreases.

Both reliance on mother tongue and on prior learning in target language leads to strategies of simplifying and regularizing the linguistic system of the target language. The learner relies on his previous knowledge when he faces a novel learning situation. For the elementary student, his native language is the only system he can rely on; therefore mother tongue interference is common. For a more advanced student, the system of target language becomes more meaningful. As he masters the target language, he is no longer sure when it is safe to operate in terms of his native language. For

this reason, the number of errors particularly due to over-generalization increases (B. Taylor, pp. 354-395).

Language learning is a complex phenomenon, and existing theories give only partial explanations about language learning. Therefore we need to look more carefully into what occurs in actual teaching-learning situation. Errors made during the second language acquisition are fruitful areas for such studies. Since errors are an inevitable part of the language learning process, they can be best used for a better understanding of the learning process and the improvement of teaching strategies. This is the basic assumption of this study.

III. STUDY OF ERRORS IN LEARNING TURKISH

This chapter deals with the analysis of actual errors in the sample papers selected for study. First, however, the method of approach used in this analysis is explained and the major limitations of the study are stated.

A. Method of Approach

The analysis in this chapter is based on the test papers submitted by a group of American learners who participated in a special program on Turkish language and culture offered by Boğaziçi University during the summer months of 1982 and 1983.

The participants came from different parts of the United States. They had been studying Turkish for 1-3 years as part of their major areas in Oriental and Middle East Studies such as Ottoman History, Hittitology and Political Science. The amount of previous instruction that each participant had in Turkish differed according to their major subject of study and the opportunities provided at the university in which they were studying.

The program at Boğaziçi University was designed as a two-month intensive course. The participants had four hours in class and an additional lab hour each day. They had 25 hours of instruction per week.

The program attempted to place due emphasis on all the major aspects of language learning; listening comprehension,

reading comprehension, speaking and writing. Class hours were devoted to a variety of activities which provided opportunities for improving different language skills. Instructional materials used in the program had the purpose of enlarging the vocabulary of participants, teaching idioms and introducing the special aspects of Turkish culture. An important consideration in the material used was to strengthen their command of modern Turkish structure. Situational conversations and discussions on passages they read provided opportunities to reinforce correct usage. In addition to the above activities, they had the opportunity to practice their skill in Turkish through oral and written assignments. Laboratory hours permitted audio-lingual practice outside of classroom. The students had the chance to hear a variety of speakers of Turkish while they had extra practice on listening and comprehending, and working on supplementary drills.

The instructional material consisted primarily of selections from magazines, short stories and novels written by Turkish authors. Also selected Turkish proverbs, anecdotes, articles, texts of interviews, and television schedules from daily papers were included. Other material, such as sets of dialogues, short reading passages, and supplementary drills and exercises were developed by the instructors in the program.

In addition to their regular course work, the American student participants were offered, weekly lectures in Turkish culture and history. They stayed at the university dormitory where they had further occasion to practice their Turkish

with the help of teaching assistants. The program also included a social component and sightseeing opportunities both in and out of İstanbul.

In 1982 there were 21 participants separated into two sections. They were all given advanced Turkish. The 1983 group had 17 participants, divided into Elementary and Advanced sections; 11 participants were in the advanced section, the remaining were in the elementary group.

For the purpose of the error analysis, this study does not include the elementary group because of their small number, i.e. only six; the advanced students included in this study are 32 in number.

As for the exams used for the error analysis, the participants both in 1982 and 1983 were given three official tests. Two of them were proficiency tests given in the beginning and at the end of the program. The third one was the final exam; each test included a cloze test, some free or guided completion items, and a few topics to choose from, the students were asked to write a composition of 200 words. The final exam also had listening comprehension items. All of these sections are used in the present analysis of errors.

One limitation of using this type of data in error analysis is that the items, except for the free composition, are highly structured and to a certain extent guided, perhaps leading the participant to rely on his analytical knowledge rather than his intuitive habit of using Turkish as a foreign

language. Another disadvantage could be the time pressure or anxiety that lead to some unusual error. However, there is an important advantage of using this type of test papers. They present an appropriate coverage in the use of Turkish, so that no important area of usage is neglected. The first shortcoming mentioned above is moderated by the free composition part of the examinations.

Since some of the participants were absent in some of the examinations the number of the exams available for the analysis were 82. These 82 papers constituted the sample material.

B. Classification of the Errors

There are no established categories for the classification of errors. When the research on error analysis is reviewed, it is found that the errors are examined either selectively or exhaustively. For practical purposes, usually the traditional grammar terms are used for the headings of categories.

At present, the target language found in the available research, is mostly English. Since Turkish and English are syntactically two different languages, and there is not always one-to-one correspondence between two grammatical forms, we need to develop a classification system suitable to Turkish. The test papers were examined carefully before the categories of errors were given specific headings. First, the errors were

divided into large categories, namely lexical and structural. A lexical error is a misuse or a distortion of a word while a structural error is a deviant form within the grammar of Turkish. The following examples taken from actual sample papers illustrate what is meant by the above categories.

1. Examples of lexical errors:

(1) *"...gözlüğümü giyerim."¹

(gözlüğümü takarım / I wear my glasses.)

gözlük	glasses
/-üm/	possessive suffix
/-ü/	accusative suffix
giy(mek)	(to) wear
/-er/	aorist
/-im/	first person singular

In this example the student used the exact translation of English verb wear whereas he should have used the correct Turkish verb tak. Verb giy is basically used for clothes in Turkish.

(2) *"...Almanca Portakalca gibi birkaç yabancı dil öğrendim./ I have learned a few languages like German and Portuguese.)

Alman	German
/-ca/	derivational suffix forming names of languages

1. Asterisks indicate erroneous forms; corrections and English translations are given in parantheses.

portakal	orange
gibi	like
birkaç	a few
yabancı dil	foreign language
öğren(mek)	(to) learn
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

The participant did not use the correct word for Portuguese in this particular example, and substituted the name of a fruit instead.

II. Examples of structural errors:

(3) *"...üç camilar gördüm".

(üç cami gördüm. / I have seen three mosques.)

üç	three
camı	mosque
/-lar/	plural suffix
gör(mek)	(to) see
/-dü/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

Turkish plural suffix /-ler/ is not normally used when a noun is preceded by a number. Also vowel harmony rule has not been observed.

(4) *"İstanbul'a geleli iki ay olur".

(İstanbul'a geleli iki ay oldu or oluyor / It's been two months since I came to Istanbul.)

/-a/	dative
gel(mek)	(to) come
/-eli/	subsequential gerund (since)
iki	two
ay	month
ol(mak)	(to) be
/-ur/	aorist

In this example the wrong tense is chosen. The student used aorist suffix /-ir/ instead of simple past tense suffix /-di/ or present continuous /-iyor/.

Structural errors are subdivided according to their various structural features. Under the heading of structural errors, verb forms, pluralization, negation, question form, word order, cases, possessive and negative forms are included. Those errors which do not belong to any of the categories above are listed under the heading of "others".

Errors in spelling and errors related to organization of the compositions, such as paragraph development, clarity, relevance, order etc. are not included.

A brief review of what is meant by each grammatical category which is placed under structural errors and some examples taken from present data will be given before we deal with the distribution of errors.

Verb Form: All the errors in tenses and modals are included under this label. Passive, reflexive and causative constructions

are also marked on the verb in Turkish; so such errors are also included. Turkish has five different simple tenses, namely, simple present, present continuous, simple past, presumptive past and future. There are also a rich number of compound tenses formed by a combination of inflectional suffixes of simple forms with auxiliary postclitics. Turkish modals include abilitative, necessitative, conditional, subjunctive and imperative forms, and they have a relatively small number of compound conjugations.

Examples of erroneous use:

(5) *"Seni görmeseydim araba ile ezdirirdim."

(Seni görmeseydim (arabayla) ezderdim / If I didn't see you I would have run over you.)

sen	you
/-i/	accusative suffix
gör(mek)	(to) see
/-me/	negative suffix
/-se/	conditional
/-ydi/	past tense postclitic
/-m/	first person singular
araba	car
ile	by
ez(mek)	(to) run over
/-dir/	causative suffix
/-ir/	aorist
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In this example causative form of the Turkish verb ezmek is misused.

(6)*"Osmanlıca öğretecek hiç kimseyi bulmadım."

(Osmanlıca öğretecek hiç kimseyi bulamadım / I couldn't find anybody to teach Ottoman Turkish.)

Osmanlıca	Ottoman Turkish
öğret(mek)	(to) teach
/-ecek/	future suffix
hiç kimse	anybody
/-yi	accusative suffix
bul(mak)	(to) find
/-ma/	negative suffix
/-dı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In the above example simple base form of the verb is used, whereas the context indicates that the abilitative suffix /-ye/ is required.

Plural: The errors in plural form are included under this heading. In Turkish plural is formed by adding /-ler/ to the singular.

Examples of erroneous use:

(7)*"Arkadaşımız gelmeyecekler."²

(Arkadaşımız gelmeyecek /Our friend won't come.)

arkadaş	friend
/-ımız/	first person plural-possessive

2. The correct form may also be "arkadaşlarımız gelmeyecek(ler)" which means "Our friends won't come".

gel(mek)	(to) come
/-me/	negative suffix
/-yecek/	future suffix
/-ler/	plural suffix

In example (7) there is no subject-verb agreement. The plural suffix is added to a verb following a singular subject.

- (8) *"İstanbul'a geleli çok müzeler ve abideler gördüm."
 (İstanbul'a geleli(bir) çok müze ve abide gördüm /
 I have seen lots of museums and monuments since I
 came to Istanbul.)

/-a/	dative
gel(mek)	(to) come
/-eli/	subsequential gerundive suffix, since
çok	lots of, many
müze	museum
/-ler/	plural suffix
ve	and
abide	monument
gör(mek)	(to) see
/-dü/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In Turkish, plural suffix is not used when a noun is preceded by an adjectival which denotes quantity.

The most common error in the case of plurals is the misuse of plural suffix with a noun preceded by a numeral as shown in example (3).

Negation: The incorrect use of negative forms are counted under this heading. Turkish negative suffix is /-me/.

Examples of erroneous use:

- (9) *"...hiçbir şey biliyor."
 (...hiçbir şey bilmiyor/ he doesn't know anything at all.)

hiçbir şey	nothing at all
bil(mek)	(to) know
/-iyor/	present continuous tense, third person singular

hiç functions as an adverb to reinforce negatives in Turkish.

In the above example the negative suffix has been omitted.

- (10) *"İnsanlar birbirini sevmedikçe savaşlar duracak."
 (İnsanlar birbirini sevmedikçe savaşlar durmayacak / Wars won't end unless people love each other.)

insanlar	people
birbirini	each other
sev(mek)	(to) love
/-me/	negative suffix
/-dikçe/	gerund (durative)
savaş	war
/-lar/	plural suffix
dur(mak)	(to) stop, end
/-acak/	future tense suffix

In example (10) the verb dur is used in affirmative form instead of negative.

Question Form: All the deviant interrogative forms are listed under this heading. The interrogative suffix is /-mi/ in Turkish, and it turns the immediately preceding statement into a question.

Examples of erroneous use:

- (11) * "Ama niçin Türkiye'ye gittin, gezmek için?"
 (Ama niçin Türkiye'ye gittin, gezmek için mi? / But, why did you go to Turkey, did you go there to travel?)

ama	but
niçin	why
Türkiye	Turkey
/-ye/	dative
git(mek)	(to) go
/-ti/	past tense suffix
/-n/	third person singular
gez(mek)	(to) travel
için	for

In example (11) the question suffix is omitted. Such forms are rarely used as a question in the spoken language, with intonation helping to differ an interrogative form from a regular statement.

- (12) * "...o da Hititlere ait mi?"
 (O da Hititlere mi ait? /Does it belong to Hittites too?)

o	it
da	too

Hitit	Hittite
/-ler/	plural suffix
/-e/	dative
ait(olmak)	(to) belong to

In this example the student has attached the question suffix to the wrong word. In this case the context was such that the question suffix -mi should have been attached to either da or Hititler to indicate the included emphasis.

Word Order: The errors made in word order are recorded under this heading. The typical word order in a Turkish sentence is "subject - expression of time - expression of place - indirect object - direct object - modifier of the verb - verb" If any of these elements is qualified the qualifier precedes it. (Lewis, 1957)

Examples of erroneous use:

- (13) * "Lâzım Türkçe okumak araştırmalarım için."
 (Araştırmalarım için Türkçe okumak lâzım / It is necessary to read Turkish for my research.)

lâzım	necessary
Türkçe	Turkish
oku(mak)	(to) read
araştırma	research
/-lar/	plural suffix
/-ım/	first person singular possessive suffix
için	for

Sentence (13) starts with an adjective predicate verb while it should end with it. Other constituents are also in wrong order.

- (14) *"Her yurttaki odalarda 2-3 kişi kalıyorlar."
 (Yurttaki her odada 2-3 kişi kalıyor (lar) /
 2-3 people are staying in each room at the dorm.)

her	each, every
yurt	dorm
/-ta/	locative suffix
/-ki/	nominal demonstrative suffix
oda	room
/-lar/	plural suffix
/-da/	locative suffix
kişi	person
kal(mak)	(to) stay
/-iyor/	present continuous tense suffix

Since the qualifier precedes the qualified element in Turkish, her should be used before the noun oda. The intended meaning is not each dorm but each room. Also, her is followed by a singular noun.

Case: This label includes nominal inflectional suffixes except the genitive, possessive and plural suffixes. Turkish grammarians traditionally assign five cases for the nouns, namely, nominative /0/; locative /-de/; ablative /-den/; dative /-ye/; accusative /-yi/. The other nominal suffixes are separately treated in this study under the heading of genitive, possessive and plural.

Examples of erroneous use:

- (15) * "Dolmabahçe gitmedim."
 (Dolmabahçeye gitmedim / I haven't been to Dolmahçe.)

git(mek)	(to) go
/-me/	negative suffix
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In the above example instead of dative form of Dolmabahçe, nominative form is used.

- (16) * "Tezim yazdım."
 (Tezimi yazdım / I wrote my thesis.)

tez	thesis
/-im/	first person, possessive
yaz(mak)	(to) write
/-dı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In example (16) the accusative suffix /-yi/ is omitted.

Possessive: The erroneous forms related to possessive are counted under this label. Turkish possessive suffixes are as follows:

first person singular	-(i)m
second person singular	-(i)n
third person singular	-(s)i(n-)
first person plural	-(i)imiz
second person plural	-(i)niz
third person plural	-leri(n)-

Nominals suffixed by forms are usually preceded by other nominals including personal or demonstrative pronouns with the genitive suffix /-nin/, /-im/ to form possessive constructions.

Example of erroneous use:

- (17) * "Çocuklarınız yok."
 (Çocuklarımız yok / We don't have children.)

çocuk	child
/-lar/	plural suffix
yok	adjective meaning non-existent

In Turkish the possessive suffix for first person plural is /-imiz/. The form -iz used above does not exist as a possessive suffix.

Genitive: Errors in the use of the genitive form are listed under this heading. Turkish genitive suffix is /-nin/ or /-im/.

Examples of erroneous use:

- (18) * "Birinci defa babam ailesi ile tanıştım."
 (İlk kez babamın ailesi ile tanıştım / I've met my father's family for the first time.)

birinci defa	for the first time (<u>ilk defa</u> or <u>ilk kez</u> is the proper expression in this context)
baba	father
/-m/	first person singular
aile	family

/-si/	third person singular, possessive suffix
ile	with
tanış(mak)	(to) meet
/-tı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In example (18) the genitive suffix is omitted after the word babam, although it is followed by possessive form of word aiile.

- (19) *"...benim üniversite adı..."
 (...benim üniversitemin adı../The name of my university)

ben	I
/-im/	genitive suffix
üniversite	university
ad	name
/-ı/	possessive suffix

In the above example üniversite is used in the nominative form, while it requires both possessive suffix /-m/ and genitive suffix /-in/.

Other: The errors under this heading are either obscure sentences that no interpretation of any sort can be made or sentences that represent erroneous forms which do not belong to the above categories:

- (20) *"Herhalde ben bekârım, ve doğumdan beri aşağı yukarı, her dokuz ay tandım."

Sentence (20) is unintelligible.

As can be seen, the categories included in structural errors are not equal in scope. For example, the category verb form includes all the Turkish tenses and modals and all other forms (reflexive, passive, causative) which are marked on the verb in Turkish, while negation is a highly limited category by comparison. When the results of the error count are interpreted this important point should be kept in mind.

C. Distribution of Errors

The errors in the sample papers are counted according to the categories described in section II.B. Each paper was read systematically and when an error was seen, it was classified under one of the headings previously established for the errors. Altogether 1429 errors were recorded. Distribution of these errors over the categories established is shown in Table I.

Table I. Distribution of Errors in Sample Papers

Category	Number	%
Lexical	435	30.4
Structural		
Verb form	280	19.6
Plural	49	3.4
Negation	14	1.0
Question form	14	1.0
Word order	65	4.5
Case	273	19.2
Possessive	127	8.9
Genitive	29	2.0
Other	143	10.0
Total	1429	100.0

Approximately around one third of these errors fall into the lexical category. As for the subcategories of the structural the highest frequency occurs in verb form at 19.6 per cent and cases at 19.2 per cent. This is followed at a distance by possessive and by others in descending order.

D. The Most Common Type of Error

Considering the high concentration of errors drawn from the sample papers, this study will focus on errors made in the case system together with possessive and genitive categories. They altogether make up 30.1 per cent of all structural errors.

For the analysis of cases the five categories generally accepted by grammarians are: nominative, accusative, dative, locative and ablative.

While reading the papers systematically, any of the erroneous forms which belong to the categories above are listed under their proper headings. As the errors are counted the correct form is taken as basis for the classification. For example, when the student used the nominative form where he should have used the dative form, this error is listed under the dative.

The detailed analysis of standard cases of Turkish are shown in Table II.

Table II. Distribution of Errors in the Use of Cases
Except Genitive and Possessive Forms

Category	Number	%
Nominative	53	19.5
Accusative	113	41.3
Dative	60	22.0
Locative	21	7.7
Ablative	26	9.5
Total	273	100.0

The table indicates that by far the highest proportion of errors occur in the accusative category, followed by the dative and the nominative. Errors in locative and ablative cases are comparatively less frequent.

As for the errors in use of possessive and genitive forms no breakdown into categories was possible. The frequency of errors in these forms has already been given in Table I. An interesting observation is that the percentage of errors in the possessive is 8.9 while errors in the genitive make up only 2.0 of the total. Since these two forms are interrelated the difference needs an explanation. This may be due to special use of possessive forms in compounds in Turkish as in ev ka-
pisi(house door). Detailed analysis and further examples will be given with the contrastive and semantic analysis of cases.

The full analysis of errors in cases including the genitive and possessive forms and their examples will be provided in the next chapter.

IV. ANALYSIS OF THE MOST COMMON ERROR SELECTED

The taxonomy of the errors given in Chapter III, Section C indicates that American learners of Turkish have special difficulty in the use of case endings. Detailed analysis of the errors made in the use of Turkish case endings and in the possessive and genitive forms will be discussed together with contrastive analysis in this chapter.

A. Contrastive Analysis of the Error Selected

Contrastive analysis used to be considered sufficient for predicting the problem areas in the course of learning a foreign language. However, contrastive approach has been criticized a great deal recently for being insufficient in predicting and explaining the learning problems. In order to overcome the deficiencies of contrastive analysis, study of learner's errors has been put forward as a better approach. In other words, taking contrastive analysis as a starting point for the identification may be misleading but, it may have a complementary role in the explanation of the errors.

The purpose of error analysis is to describe systematically the errors made by the learners and explain them to achieve better teaching strategies. In this study error analysis has been used to identify and explain certain errors made by American learners of Turkish.

In error analysis, after listing all the errors the next step is to identify possible causes of the errors.

Since mother tongue interference is one of the sources of errors, contrastive approach is taken as a starting point for an explanation. In this study if an error is not an interlingual one, that is, if it can not be explained by mother tongue interference, the possible explanation is intralingual interference, that is, the interference within the target language itself. This interference may take several forms, including overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesised. These were explained in previous chapters. This study however, is limited to an explanation only at broad categories of interlingual and intralingual interferences because of the data and the methodology used.

Application of Contrastive Analysis

Case is defined as "the change of form by which is indicated the grammatical relationship in which a noun or a pronoun stands to other parts of a communication" (M. Bryant, p. 31). The relationship of a nominal group to other parts of the communication is indicated by nominal inflectional suffixes and a case ending is attached to the final element in a nominal group in Turkish.

In this section, each case ending will be treated separately. Examples from actual papers will be provided in the discussion.

Nominative Form

Nominative form is the form of the noun with zero morpheme.

The Usage:

The subject nouns are in the nominative form in Turkish as they are in English.

Example

- (20) "Ali geliyor."
(Ali is coming.)

Ali	proper noun
gel(mek)	(to) come
/-iyor/	present continuous suffix

The plural genitive and possessive suffixes can be attached to the nominal groups behaving as subjects in a sentence. The plural suffix can be added not only to simple nouns but also to nominals called possessive constructions and possessive compounds which include genitive and possessive suffixes.

- (21) "Odalar kalabalık."
(The rooms are crowded.)

oda	room
/-lar/	plural suffix
kalabalık	crowded

- (22) "Odanın kapısı açık."
(The door of the room is open.)

/-nın/	genitive suffix
kapı	door
/-sı/	possessive suffix
açık	open

- (23) "Odaların kapıları açık."
 (The doors of the rooms are open.)
- | | |
|--------|-------------------|
| /-ın/ | genitive suffix |
| /-lar/ | plural suffix |
| /-ı/ | possessive suffix |

There is no grammatical unit that corresponds to Turkish possessive suffix in the above constructions in English.

As in English the noun may be generic, definite or indefinite in Turkish. When a noun is used in the generic sense, it refers to the entire species of its kind, as in "man is mortal". The definite noun on the other hand, assumes that the person hearing the message can identify the referent of the noun used. e.g. "The man came." In this case, there is a definite person that the hearer has been expecting to come. Finally when the noun is indefinite the referent of the noun phrase is hardly identifiable by the hearer, as in "A man came." In this case the person who came is clearly not someone expected to come (Comrie, Taylan, Tura).

Turkish does not have an article system corresponding to English articles the, a, and an. When the noun is the subject of a sentence there is no grammatical distinction between the generic and definite uses in Turkish.

Example:

- (24) "Çocuklar süt içer."
 (The children drink milk / Children drink milk.)
- | | |
|--------|---------------|
| çocuk | child |
| /-lar/ | plural suffix |

süt	milk
iç(mek)	(to) drink
/-er/	aorist suffix

In such cases the context helps to clarify the meaning.

The only article used in Turkish is bir to distinguish definite and indefinite noun phrases. It roughly corresponds to English a or an when it is unstressed (Sebüktekin, pp. 45,-92-93). Since definiteness is usually marked by the accusative ending /-yı/, in the object position. The nominative form indicates indefiniteness. Such forms are also generic and neutral in number.

Example:

(25)	"Ben bir kitap okudum."
	(I have read a book.)
ben	I
bir	a
kitap	book
oku(mak)	(to) read
/-du/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

Bir is omitted when the object of the sentence is generic or neutral in number. Ben may also be omitted since the person is marked on the verb in Turkish.

Subject noun is always preceded by bir when it is indefinite.

Example:

- (26) "Bir adam geldi".
 (A man came.)
- | | |
|----------|-------------------|
| bir | a |
| adam | man |
| gel(mek) | (to) come |
| /-di/ | past tense suffix |

If bir is omitted in example (26), it indicates that the subject noun is definite or generic; the referent adam (man) is identifiable both by the speaker and the hearer.

Example of a generic plural noun in the subject position has already been given in sentence (24). Turkish generic nouns in the object position are in the nominative form.

Example:

- (27) "Kitap severim."
 (I like books.)
- | | |
|----------|-----------------------|
| kitap | book |
| sev(mek) | (to) like |
| /-er/ | aorist suffix |
| /-im/ | first person singular |

Nominative form is used for vocative both in Turkish and in English.

Example:

- (28) "Taksi."
 (Taxi!)

Errors in the Use of the Nominative Form

19.5 per cent of the case ending errors are the errors made in the use of the nominative form. Types of these errors are given in Table III.

Table III. Errors in the Nominative Form

Type of Error	Number
Noun + accusative suffix	29
Noun + dative suffix	4
Noun + ablative suffix	3
Noun + locative suffix	10
Noun + possessive suffix	3
Noun + genitive suffix	4
Total	53

The most recurrent type of error is using the accusative form when the direct object is indefinite or a generic noun.

Examples of erroneous use:

(29) *"Aileme bazı hediyeleri alacağım."

(Aileme bazı hediyeler alacağım/ I am going to buy some presents for my family.)

aile	family
/-m/	first person singular
/-e/	dative suffix
bazı	some
hediye	present
/-ler/	plural suffix

/-i/	accusative suffix
al(mak)	(to) buy
/-acak/	future tense suffix
/-ım/	first person singular

- (30) *"Dört tane halıyı aldım."
(Dört tane halı aldım / I bought four carpets.)

dört	four
tane	piece
halı	carpet
al(mak)	(to) buy
/-yı/	accusative suffix
/-dı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

- (31) *"iki yıldır Türkçe'yi çalışıyorum."
(iki yıldır Türkçe okuyorum / I have been studying
Turkish for two years.)

iki	two
yıl	year
/-dır/	predicate marker
Türkçe	Turkish
/-yi/	accusative suffix
çalış(mak)	(to) study (<u>okumak</u> is the proper expression in this context.)
/-iyor/	present continuous tense
/-um/	first person singular

- (32) *"Müzik çok severim, piyanoyu çalabilirim."
(Müziği çok severim, piyano çalabilirim/I like music
very much, I can play the piano.)

müzik	music
/-i/	accusative suffix
çok	very
sev(mek)	(to) like
/-er/	aorist suffix
/-im/	first person singular
piyano	piano
/-yu/	accusative suffix
çal(mak)	(to) play
/-abil/	abilitative
/-ir/	aorist suffix
/-im/	first person singular

In examples (29) - (32) the objects of the sentences are in the accusative case while nominative forms with zero ending are required. The context that sentences (29), (30) and (31) were used in implied that the object nouns should be indefinite. In sentence (29) the object noun phrase bazı hediyeler (some presents) is not expected to be identified by the hearer. Similarly in sentence (30) the object noun halı (carpet) is not definite; that is, the speaker is not interested in the identifiability of the carpets. His intention is conveying the class membership of the referent. The object noun Türkçe (Turkish) in sentence (31) is inherently definite, thus the accusative ending is redundant. If the English counterparts of the sentences (29), (30), (31) are considered, there should be no difference between the Turkish and English usage. The definite form of the objects is required for the same

reason in English too. Thus, these errors can hardly be attributed to the habits in the native language. In other words, they seem to be intralingual errors.

As for example (32), the student used the accusative form of the object piyano (piano), which implies a specific piano. The intended meaning is that he knows how to play the piano, and he can play any piano. The definite article the is always used before musical instruments in English. Therefore, it is possible to attribute this error to mother tongue interference. However, the fact is that the same erroneous use of the object noun occurs in all the sentences above, including the sentence (32). Therefore the particular error found in sentence (32) might be interpreted as an intralingual error as well.

The erroneous choice of the accusative form of a noun instead of the nominative in the subject position is comparatively less (only in five sentences) than the erroneous use of the object noun in the accusative case. This type of error appears in nonverbal sentences³

Example of erroneous use:

- (33) *"Saatimi çalışmıyor."
(Saatim çalışmıyor / My watch is out of order.)

3. "Nonverbal sentences in Turkish are different from verbal sentences in that they take a nonverbal element as the predicate which is conjugated only for tense and person" (Tura, p. 1).

saat	watch
/-im/	first person possessive
/-i/	accusative suffix
çalış(mak)	(to) work
/-mı/	negative suffix
/-yor/	present continuous tense suffix

Since there is no structural difference between English and Turkish forms of sentence (33) the error is not attributable to mother tongue interference either. This sentence may be taken as an example of intralingual error.

A noun with a locative case ending is another erroneous use of the nominative form. Many of the adverbs of time (such as bugün, o zaman) are originally nouns in the nominative form in Turkish (Lewis, p. 35). There is a tendency to use the locative case ending /-de/, after such adverbials in the data.

Examples:

- (34) *"o zamanda Türkiye'nin doğusuna gittim."
 (O zaman Türkiye'nin doğusuna gittim / I went to east of Turkey then.)
- | | |
|---------|--------------------|
| o zaman | then, at that time |
| Türkiye | Turkey |
| /-nin/ | genitive suffix |
| doğu | east |
| /-sun/ | possessive suffix |
| /-a/ | dative suffix |

git(mek)	(to) go
/-ti/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

- (35) *"Bir arada adının çağırıldığını duydu."
(Bir ara adının çağırıldığını duydu / He heard his name being called at one point.)

bir ara	at one point
ad	name
/-ın/	possessive suffix
/-ın/	genitive suffix
çağırıl(mak)	(to) be called
/-diğ/	non-future verbal nominal suffix
/-ın/	third person possessive
/-ı/	accusative suffix
duy(mak)	(to) hear
/-du/	past tense suffix

Turkish locative ending /-de/ is misused after other adverbials too:

- (36) *"Türkçe'de konuşmayı seviyor."
(Türkçe konuşmayı seviyor / He likes speaking in Turkish.)

Türkçe	Turkish
konuş(mak)	(to) talk
/-ma/	verbal nominal suffix
/-yı/	accusative suffix
sev(mek)	(to) like
/-iyor/	present continuous tense suffix

In sentences (34) - (36) English makes use of different prepositions while the same meaning is expressed by nominative form of the noun in Turkish. The above sentences seem to represent transferred mother tongue habits, thus it may be possible to interpret the errors in sentences (34) - (36) as examples of interlingual errors.

In conclusion, there are 53 erroneous sentences in the use of the nominative form. Eleven of them may be interpreted as examples of interlingual errors while 39 of them seem to be intralingual errors. The remaining three are open to discussion.

Accusative form

The Turkish accusative suffix is /-yi/ and it alternates with /-y1/; /-yü/; /-yu/; /-i/; /-1/; /-ü/; /-u/ according to the Turkish vowel harmony rule.

The Usage: Definiteness is marked by the accusative suffix in Turkish when a noun is in the object position. In this respect the Turkish accusative suffix /-y1/ corresponds to the English definite article the.

Example:

(37) "Ali kitabı okudu."
(Ali read the book.)

Ali	proper noun
kitap	book
/-1/	accusative suffix

Ankara	a city in Turkey
/-y1/	accusative suffix
gez(mek)	(to) tour
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-ler/	third person plural

In sentence (39) Ali is inherently a definite noun, but the accusative ending is still required since Ali and Ayşe share the same semantic features (Comrie). Example (41) may further clarify this point:

- (41) a) "Ayşe filmi anlatıyor."
 (Ayşe is talking about the movie.)
- b) "Ayşe film anlatıyor."
 (Ayşe is talking about a movie.)

In sentence (42 a) the direct object film (the movie) is definite as kitap (the book) in sentence (37). As for sentence (41 b), the hearer is not expected to specify the movie Ayşe is talking about (see example 25). Thus, when the direct object is a proper noun as in (39) the accusative ending is obligatory to clarify the grammatical roles of the noun phrases of the sentence; and accusative /-y1/ is used as a definitizer with common nouns as in (37) and (41 a).

The demonstrative and personal pronouns in the object position are always followed by the accusative suffix in Turkish.

Examples:

- (42) "Sizi bekliyor." not siz bekliyor
 (He is waiting for you.)

siz	you
/-i/	accusative suffix
bekle(mek)	(to) wait
/-iyor/	present continuous tense suffix

(43) "Bunu istedi."

(He wanted this one.)

bu(n)	this one
/-u/	accusative suffix
iste(mek)	(to) want
/-di/	past tense suffix

However, "Bu istedi" is possible when bu is used as a subject.

Nominals with possessive suffixes are followed by the accusative suffix in Turkish when they are in the object position.

Example:

(44) "Kalemimi istedi."

(He wanted my pencil.)

kalem	pencil
/-im/	first person singular
/-i/	accusative suffix
iste(mek)	(to) want
/-di/	past tense suffix

It is also possible to use the accusative ending attached to the direct object preceded by bir as seen in the sentences below:

(45) a) "Ali kitap arıyor."

(Ali is looking for a book.)

- b) "Ali bir kitap arıyor."
(Ali is looking for a book.)
- c) "Ali bir kitabı arıyor."
(Ali is looking for a book.)

In sentence (45 a) the number of the books are not specified. In sentence (45 b) Ali is looking for only one book as in sentence (45 c); however, the speaker is arousing the hearers interest in the identity of the book in question in (45 c).

Errors in the Use of Accusative Form

The highest proportion of errors in the use of case suffixes occurs in the use of accusative case at 41.3 per cent Table IV illustrates the errors in accusative case.

Table IV. Errors in the Accusative Form

Type of the Error	Number
Lack of case ending	79
Noun + dative suffix	28
Noun + ablative suffix	2
Noun + locative suffix	4
Total	113

There are 113 erroneous sentences in the use of accusative form. The accusative /-yı/ is omitted in approximately three-fourths of these erroneous sentences. As for the other types of errors the highest frequency occurs in the substitution of dative.

The most recurrent type of error in the use of accusative case is the omission of the accusative suffix.

Examples:

(46) *İbrahim Bey tanıdım."

(İbrahim Beyi tanıdım / I met İbrahim Bey.)

tanı(mak) (to) meet

/-dı/ past tense suffix

(47)* "Pinar } hiç görmedim."
Aksaray }

(Pinar'ı } hiç görmedim / I haven't seen Pinar
Aksaray'ı } been to Aksaray^{at all})

Pinar proper name

Aksaray a place name in İstanbul

hiç at all, never

gör(mek) (to) see, visit

/-me/ negative suffix

/-dı/ past tense suffix

/-m/ first person singular

As it is illustrated earlier in sentence (40) the Turkish accusative suffix is obligatory after place and person names when they are the direct object. English makes this distinction by syntactic position and as a rule, the definite article is not used with proper nouns. So there is no correspondence between the two languages in this respect and the errors in sentences (46)-(47) can be taken as interlingual errors.

Nominals with possessive suffixes require the accusative ending in Turkish, while English makes use of possessive

pronouns in order to convey the same meaning. Lack of the accusative ending is very common in this usage in the observed data,

Examples of erroneous use:

(48) *"...en büyük bavulum kullanıyorum."

(...en büyük bavulumu kullanıyorum /...I use my largest suitcase.)

en büyük	largest
bavul	suitcase
/-um/	possessive suffix
kullan(mak)	(to) use
/-iyor/	present continuous
/-um/	first person singular

(49) *"Tezim yazdım."

(Tezimi yazdım / I have written my thesis.)

tez	thesis
/-im/	possessive suffix
yaz(mak)	(to) write
/-dı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

(50) *"Köpeğim evde bırakacağım. / I'll leave my dog at home.)

köpek	dog
/-im/	possessive suffix
ev	home
/-de/	locative suffix
bırak(mak)	(to) leave

/-acağ/	future tense
/-im/	first person singular

It is possible to attribute the erroneous forms illustrated in sentences (48) - (50) to mother tongue interference.

Turkish /-yi is also omitted in sentences where English makes use of the definite article the.

Examples of erroneous use:

- (51) * "Bina gördü."
 (Binayı gördü / He saw the building.)
- | | |
|----------|-------------------|
| bina | building |
| gör(mek) | (to) see |
| /-dü/ | past tense suffix |
- (52) * "Haberler çok seviyorum."
 (Haberleri çok seviyorum / I like the news very much.)
- | | |
|----------|-----------------------|
| haber | news |
| /-ler/ | plural suffix |
| çok | very |
| sev(mek) | (to) like |
| /-iyor/ | present continuous |
| /-um/ | first person singular |
- (53) * "Bütün bir gün Uludağ'da geçirdim."
 (Bütün bir günü Uludağ'da geçirdim / I spent the whole day in Uludağ.)
- | | |
|-------|-------|
| bütün | whole |
| bir | a |
| gün | day |

Uludağ	a place name
/-da/	locative suffix
geçir(mek)	(to) spend
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In sentences (51) - (53) the Turkish accusative suffix /-yı/ is omitted in spite of the fact that English makes use of the definite article the to convey the same meaning. The omission in this use can not be attributed to mother tongue interference.

The accusative suffix is omitted in 79 sentences. The omission after place and personal names (e.g. 46-47) is observed in 11 sentences. Lack of the accusative suffix after nominals with possessive suffixes is observed in 17 sentences. (e.g. 48-50) Thus, altogether 28 sentences may be interpreted as examples of interlingual errors while it is possible to consider 51 of the total as intralingual errors.

A relatively small group of erroneous forms is the substitution of the dative suffix for the accusative suffix. However, the problematic points are the same as the total omission of the accusative case.

Example:

- (55) * "Anneme görmedim."
 (Annemi görmedim / I haven't seen my mother.)
- | | |
|------|-------------------|
| anne | mother |
| /-m/ | possessive suffix |
| /-e/ | dative suffix |

gör(mek)	(to) see
/-me/	negative suffix
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

In this sentence the dative is used after a possessive construction. This error cannot be attributed to mother tongue interference since English does not use the dative to convey the same meaning.

- (56) *"Türkiye'ye ziyaret etmek zor değil."
 (Türkiye'yi ziyaret etmek zor değil / It is not difficult to visit Turkey.)

Türkiye	Turkey
/-ye/	dative suffix
ziyaret et(mek)	(to) visit
zor	difficult
değil	negative suffix

As discussed earlier, place names are followed by the accusative ending in Turkish when they are the direct object of the sentences (see sentences 39-41, 46,47). The substitution of the dative suffix for the accusative suffix seems to be a result of inherent difficulties in target language. There is no application of English usage. Both 55 and 56 can be interpreted as intralingual errors.

Substitution of the locative ending is relatively rare:

- (57) *"İstanbul'daki müze ve camide gezmek için..."
 (İstanbul'daki müze ve camileri gezmek için.../ In order to see (visit) the mosques and museums in İstanbul.)

müze	museum
cami	mosque
/-de/	locative suffix
gez(mek)	(to) see-visit
için	for, in order to

In sentence (57) müze ve cami is the definite direct object so the accusative suffix is required as is the definite article the in English. Here the error originates from the inherent difficulties of the target language. Since English does not use the dative to convey the same meaning, the error can be interpreted as an intralingual one. In conclusion, out of 113 erroneous sentences in the use of the accusative 72 of the errors seem to result from the inherent difficulties of the target language, while 36 of them can be attributed to mother tongue interference. The remaining five are open to discussion.

Dative Form

The Turkish dative suffix is /-ye/. It alternates with /-ya/ according to the Turkish vowel harmony rule. /-y/ is used as a buffer when the base final is a vowel.

The usage:

a) Its main function is denoting the indirect object of the sentence. In this respect it roughly corresponds to English for and to.

Examples :

(58) "Kitabı Ali'ye verdim."

(I gave the book to Ali.)

kitap	book
/-ı/	accusative suffix
Ali	proper noun
/-ye/	dative suffix
ver(mek)	(to) give
/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

b) The dative indicates the place to or toward which the motion is directed (Underhill, p. 67).

(59) "Ali Ankara'ya gitti."

(Ali went to Ankara.)

Ali	proper noun
Ankara	a city in Turkey
/-ya/	dative suffix
git(mek)	(to) go
/-ti/	past tense suffix

(60) "Kitabı masaya bıraktı."

(He left the book on the table.)

kitap	book
/-ı/	accusative suffix
masa	table
/-ya/	dative suffix

c) There are single word adverbials which take the dative suffix.

bura-ya	here
ora-ya	there
dışarı-ya	out
dışarı	
içeri-ye	in
içeri	

d) There are a number of intransitive verbs which require nominals with the dative suffix in Turkish. English counterparts of such verbs are transitive, and take a direct object. Başlamak (to start); değmek, dokunmak (to touch); devam etmek (to continue); varmak (to arrive, to reach); girmek (to enter); yardım etmek (to help); bakmak (to look); vurmak (to hit); mani olmak (to prevent) are some of them.

Example:

(61) "Çocu <u>ğ</u> a yardım etti."	
(He helped the child.)	
çocuk	child
/-a/	dative suffix
yardım et(mek)	(to) help
/-ti/	past tense suffix

The dative is also used with postpositions in Turkish. Some examples with their English translations are given below:

-ye	{ göre	according to
	{ rağmen	in spite of

-ye	doğru	towards
	karşı	against
	dair	concerning
	kadar	up to, until
	ait	belonging to
	oranla	in proportion to

- (62) "Gazeteye göre adam suçlu."
(The man is guilty according to the newspaper.)

gazete	newspaper
/-ye göre/	according to
adam	man
suçlu	guilty

- (63) "Sabaha kadar çalıştı."
(He worked until morning.)

sabah	morning
/-a/	dative suffix
kadar	until
çalış(mak)	(to) work
/-tı/	past tense suffix

The Turkish dative case is also used to express purpose. When the infinitive form is transformed into the dative it denotes purpose.

- (64) "Ders çalışmaya gitti"/Ders çalışmak için gitti.
(He went to study.) (for)

ders çalış(mak)	(to) study
git(mek)	(to) go
/-ti/	past tense suffix

Although the Turkish dative case is translated into English as to or for, there are many differences in its distribution and function as it is described above. Most of the students tend to omit /-ye/ rather than substituting another ending. The characteristics of erroneous usage are given below in Table V.

Table V. Errors in the Dative Form

Type of Error	Number
Lack of case ending	31
Noun + locative suffix	9
Noun + ablative suffix	1
Noun + accusative suffix	19
Total	60

There are 60 erroneous sentences in the use of the dative form. The dative suffix /-ye/ is omitted in half of them.

The dative suffix is mostly omitted when it should be attached to nominals indicating the place to which the motion is directed.

Examples of erroneous use:

(65) "Marmara adası }
 Kapalıçarşı } gittim."
 Dolmabahçe }

(Marmara adasına)	} gittim. / I went to	Marmara adası
Kapalıçarşıya		Kapalıçarşı
Dolmabahçeye		Dolmabağçe)

(66) *"Dükkân geri dönüp onu açtı."

(Dükkana geri dönüp (onu) açtı / He came back to the store and opened it.)

dükkan	store
geri dön(mek)	(to) come back
o(n-)	it
/-u/	accusative suffix
aç(mak)	(to) open
/-tı/	past tense suffix

English translations of the above sentences all include a preposition to distinguish the dative form of the noun. Still the dative suffix /-ye/ is omitted in Turkish sentences. Thus, sentences (65) and (66) seem to be examples of intralingual errors.

With transitive verbs which take dative objects like başlamak (to start) and bakmak (to look), lack of the dative is observed only in few sentences, in the present data. Substitution of accusative and locative cases for the dative is more recurrent with such transitive verbs:

(67) *"Bahçedeki çiçekler bakıyorum."

(Bahçedeki çiçeklere bakıyorum / I am looking at the flowers in the garden.)

bahçe	garden
/-de/	locative suffix

/-ki/	demonstrative suffix
çiçek	flower
/-ler/	plural suffix
bak(mak)	(to) look
/-iyor/	present continuous
/-um/	first person singular

Here the error seems to be an intralingual one since English makes use of at against Turkish dative /-ye/.

- (68)a) * "...dağı çıktık."
 (...dağa çıktık / We climbed the mountain.)
- | | |
|----------|---------------------|
| dağ | mountain |
| /-ı/ | accusative suffix |
| çık(mak) | (to) climb |
| /-tı/ | past tense suffix |
| /-k/ | first person plural |

- b) * "Odayı girdi."
 (Odaya girdi / He entered the room.)
- | | |
|----------|-------------------|
| oda | room |
| /-yı/ | accusative suffix |
| gir(mek) | (to) enter |
| /-di/ | past tense |

Here the error seems to originate from mother tongue interference since the erroneous use of the Turkish case ending seems to be an application of the English usage.

- (69)a) * "Ohio State Üniversitesinde devam ediyorum/ I am studying at Ohio State University.)

- b) * "Adanada vardıktan sonra..."
 (Adana'ya vardıktan sonra.../After arriving in Adana...)

at in sentence (69 a) and in in sentence (69 b) are translated as /-de/ into Turkish. In sentences (69 a-b) we have applications of the English usage. Thus, the errors may be due to mother tongue interference.

The substitution of the accusative case is also observed when the noun is the indirect object:

- (70) * "Annenizi haber verdik."
 (Annenize haber verdik / We informed your mother.)

The error in sentence (70) seems to be an example of over-generalization of a syntactic rule. Nominals with a possessive require the accusative ending when they are the indirect object (see 48-50). However, the verb haber vermek takes an object with the dative, so the error in this sentence seems to be an intralingual one.

In conclusion, out of 60 erroneous sentences in the use of the dative, 22 of the errors seem to result from mother tongue interference, while 34 of them can be attributed to inherent difficulties of the target language. The remaining four are open to discussion.

Locative Form

The Turkish locative case suffix is /-de/. It alternates with /-da/, /-te/, /-ta/ according to the Turkish vowel harmony and consonant harmony rules.

The usage:

a) It is used to express the place or time in which the action occurs.

Examples:

(71) "Ali Ankara'da oturuyor."

(Ali lives in Ankara.)

(72) "Ali saat ikide burada olacak."

(Ali is going to be here at two o'clock.)

b) The locative suffix also denotes the place of an object:

(3) "Masada bir kitap var."

(There is a book on the table.)

c) A noun in the locative form may be used as the predicate of a sentence in Turkish:

(74) "Kitap masada(dır)."

(The book is on the table.)

For the uses illustrated by example (71) - (76), English makes use of different prepositions such as on, at, in, by, and over to convey the same meaning. In this respect there is a complete correspondence between two languages.

d) The Turkish locative suffix is used with expressions indicating shape, size, colour, and age. In other words they function as adjectives:

(75) "iki metre uzunluğunda"

(two metres long)

(76) "kalem şeklinde"

(in the shape of a pencil)

(77) "15 yaşında/ 15'inde
(15 years old)

There is no correspondence between English and Turkish forms of the sentences above.

e) Some idiomatic uses of the locative suffix are given below with English translations:

gözde	favorite
elde etmek	to obtain
sözde	as if, so called
gündelik	daily

Errors in the Use of Locative Form

Errors in the use of the locative case are comparatively less frequent. The percentage of errors in the locative makes up the 7.7 of the total. The types of the errors for this case are given in Table VI.

Table VI. Errors in the Locative Form

Type of Error	Number
Lack of case ending	10
Noun + dative	6
Noun + genitive/possessive	5
Total	21

The locative ending is omitted in approximately half of the erroneous sentences. Accusative and ablative forms are not substituted for the locative in the observed data.

Locative suffix is mostly omitted when the noun is used as an adverb of time.

Examples of erroneous use

- (78) * "Washington D.C. bulunan akrabalarım..."
 (Washington D.C.'de bulunan akrabalarım.../...my relatives who are in Washington D.C.)
- | | |
|------------|-------------------|
| bulun(mak) | to be present, be |
| akraba | relative |
| /-lar/ | plural suffix |
| /-ım/ | possessive suffix |
- (79) * "Çoğu zaman İstanbul kalmama rağmen..."
 (Çoğu zaman İstanbul'da kalmama rağmen.../ Although I have stayed mostly in İstanbul...)
- | | |
|------------|----------------------------------|
| çoğu zaman | mostly |
| kal(mak) | (to) stay |
| /-ma/ | verbal nominal suffix |
| /-m/ | first person singular possessive |
| /-a/ | dative suffix |
| rağmen | in spite of, although |
- (80) * "9 Haziran masters aldım."
 (9 Haziranda masterımı aldım / I got my masters degree on the 9th of June.)
- | | |
|---------|-----------------------|
| Haziran | June |
| al(mak) | (to) get |
| /-dı/ | past tense suffix |
| /-m/ | first person singular |

In examples (78), (79), (80) the errors can not be attributed to mother tongue interference. English makes use of different prepositions which correspond to the Turkish locative suffix /-de/. The errors above seem to be intralingual.

The same is relevant for the substitution of the dative suffix for the locative:

- (81) * "Aynı zamanda Türkiye'ye seyahat ettim."
 (Aynı zamanda Türkiye'de seyahat ettim / Meanwhile I travelled in Turkey.)

aynı zamanda	meanwhile
Türkiye	Turkey
/-ye/	dative suffix
seyahat et(mek)	(to) travel
/-ti/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular suffix

- (82) * "Törene org çaldığım için..."
 (Törende org çaldığım için.../ because I played the organ at the ceremony...)

tören	ceremony
/-e/	dative suffix
org	organ
çal(mak)	(to) play
/-dik/	verbal nominal suffix
/-im/	first person singular possessive
için	for

In sentence (81) the context indicates that the intended meaning is not traveling to Turkey; the student has travelled

in Turkey during the program. For sentence (82), playing an organ for a ceremony is semantically impossible in Turkish. In English "playing an organ for a ceremony" has the implication of a gift or favor to the person who organized the ceremony. However, the intended meaning is that, the speaker had played the organ "at" the ceremony.

As seen from the above examples there is no difference between the Turkish and English forms of the above sentences. Errors in the use of locative case are not due to mother tongue interference.

Ablative Form

The Turkish ablative suffix is /-den/. It alternates with /-dan/, /-ten/, /-tan/ according to the Turkish vowel and consonant harmony rules.

The usage:

a) The ablative case expresses the starting point of an action. It denotes the place through which and the place from which the action has started out.

Examples:

(83) "Ankara'dan geldi."
(He came from Ankara.)

(84) "Pencereden çıktı."
(He went out by the window.)

This usage completely corresponds to English. English conveys the same meaning by use of different prepositions such as from, by, of etc.

b) The ablative case denotes the material out of which something is made as in "tahtadan masa", "taştan duvar" (wooden table, a stone wall).

c) The ablative case is used to explain the cause of action. This usage is translated into English as because or because of .

Examples:

(85) Üzüntüden	}	hastalanmış.	
Yorgunluktan			
Açlıktan			sorrow
Soğuktan			tiredness
He got sick because of		hungar	
		cold	

(86) "Kitabı okumadığından konuşmaları takip edemedi."
(He couldn't follow the conversation because he hasn't read the book.)

d) Some Turkish intransitive verbs like korkmak (fear), hoşlanmak (like), nefret etmek (hate), take an object in the ablative case while English has a direct object for the same words.

Examples:

(87) <u>Kediden</u>	}	korktu.
<u>Karanlıktan</u>		

b) Ali'den hoşlandı.
(She liked Ali.)

e) The ablative is also used for comparison in Turkish.

Example:

- (88) "Ali Ayşe'den (daha) uzun boylu."
(Ali is taller than Ayşe.)

There is a complete correspondence in the usage illustrated by example (88).

f) The ablative case with postpositions and their English translations are as follows:

-den	{ önce	before
	{ sonra	after
	{ beri	since
	{ dolayı	because of
	{ başka	besides
	{ itibaren	from...on

- (89) "Mektup iki günden önce gelmez."
(The letter won't come before two days.)

- (90) "Saat ikiden beri bekliyoruz."
(We've been waiting since two o'clock.)

g) /-de/ and /-ye/ are used together in reduplicative compounds in Turkish:

- (91)a) Birden bire durdu.
(He stopped suddenly.)

- b) Doğrudan doğruya bana sordu.
(He directly asked me.)

The Errors in the Use of Ablative Form

There are 26 erroneous sentences in the use of the ablative case. Five different types of errors are observed in the present

data. The number of the deviant sentences in each group is very small. The details are given below in Table VII.

Table VII. Errors in the Ablative Form

Type of Error	Number
Lack of case ending	5
Noun + accusative	3
Noun + dative	6
Noun + locative	8
Noun + possessive / genitive	4
Total	26

The locative case is erroneously used instead of ablative case after possessive constructions in the present data.

Example:

(92) * "Postanenin önünde geçerken..."
 (Postanenin önünden geçerken / as passing by the
 post office...)

postane post office

önünden by

geç(mek) (to) pass

/-er/ aorist

/-ken/ while, as

by can be translated into Turkish as /-de/ in some uses, e.g. yanım-da (by me). However the verb geçmek after a possessive

construction, requires the ablative /-den/ in Turkish. This sentence can be an example of overgeneralization of the uses of the locative /-de/. Thus, the error is due to the inherent difficulties of the target language. It is possible to interpret this error as intralingual.

Some students substituted the dative for the usage illustrated in sentence (93).

- (93) * "postanenin önüne geçerken."
 (postanenin önünden geçerken / as passing by the post office)

Since the substitution of dative is not an application of the English usage, this error can not be attributed to mother tongue interference.

The ablative suffix /-den/ is sometimes translated into English as from.

- (94) * "İnsanlarda bu yaz çok şey öğrendim."
 (İnsanlardan bu yaz çok şey öğrendim / I learned a lot from people this summer.)

insanlar	people
/-da/	locative suffix
bu	this
yaz	summer
çok	many
şey	thing
öğren(mek)	(to) learn

/-di/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

Here the error seems to be an intralingual one, because English makes use of from which corresponds to the Turkish ablative suffix /-den/.

The errors in the use of the ablative case may be due primarily to the inherent difficulties of the target language.

In conclusion, American learners of Turkish make two major types of errors in the use of Turkish case endings. The case ending is either omitted or a wrong case ending has been substituted for the proper one. The case ending is totally omitted in 125 sentences out of 273 erroneous sentences which makes 45.8 per cent of the total deviant forms.

Table VIII illustrates the distribution of the errors in the use of Turkish case endings in interlingual and intralingual interference:

Table VIII. Number of the Errors in the Use of Turkish Cases in Terms of Interlingual and Intralingual Interference

Case	Interlingual Errors	Intralingual Errors	Open to Interpretation	Total
Nominative	11	39	3	53
Accusative	36	72	5	113
Dative	22	34	4	60
Locative	-	21	-	21
Ablative	-	24	2	26
Total	69	190	14	273

It is clear that, in all cases intralingual errors are more common. It is interesting that no interlingual errors were found in the locative and ablative cases. As previously mentioned the reason here is that English makes use of different prepositions which correspond to Turkish /-de/ and /-den/. The errors do not represent an application of the English usage. The interlingual errors which numbered 69 formed 25.3 per cent of the total 273 errors. Intralingual errors, on the other hand, which were 190 in number, made up 69.6 per cent of the total.

Genitive-Possessive Constructions:

Turkish genitive suffix is /-nin/ and it alternates with /-im/ after the personal pronouns ben (I) and biz (we). The alternants of /-nin/ are /-nın/, /-nun/, /-nün/, /-in/, /-ın/, /-ün/, /-un/.

Possessive Form:

Turkish possessive suffixes are:

first person singular	-(i)m
second person singular	-(i)n
third person singular	-(s)i(n-)
first person plural	-(i)miz
second person plural	-(i)niz
third person plural	-leri(n)-

When a noun is used with possessive suffix it is possessed by another noun. A noun in the genitive form is followed by a noun with a possessive suffix somewhere in the sentence.

Similarly a noun in the possessive form means that there must be a noun in the genitive form somewhere earlier in the sentence. Nouns with possessive suffixes are used in combination with nouns with genitive suffixes including personal or demonstrative pronouns. The genitive suffix indicates the possessor while the possessive suffix indicates the possessed noun.

(benim) kitabım

(senin) kitabın

(onun) kitabı

(bizim) kitabımız

(sizin) kitabınız

(onların) kitapları

When the possessor is a pronoun it may be omitted as illustrated above. However, when a personal pronoun is omitted for the third person plural, e.g. kitapları, there is ambiguity. It might mean "their books", "his book" or kitaplar followed by the accusative ending. The context helps to clarify the meaning:

(98) "Kitapları kayboldu."

(His books are lost / Their books are lost.)

(99) "Kitapları gönderdim."

(I sent the books.)

Turkish makes use of possessive compounds like Türkçe öğretmeni (Turkish teacher), elma ağacı (apple tree), ders kitabı (text book), oturma odası (living room). In possessive

compounds the genitive suffix is omitted from the first noun. Any modifier is used before the entire group; nothing can come between the two nouns:

(100) "Bir çocuk kitabı"

(A children's book)

"Yeni bir çocuk kitabı" not çocuk yeni kitabı

(A new children's book)

This construction is also used with proper names and titles:

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi

Balgat Köyü

Bağdat Caddesi

Konyalı Lokantası

The first noun of these compounds is rarely in the plural in Turkish, "anneler günü" (mothers day), "hayvanlar âlemi" (animal kingdom) representing exceptions.

Third person singular possessive suffix $-(s)_1(n-)$ is also attached to nominals in order to form indefinite pronouns and adverbials:

<u>birisi</u>	someone	<u>burası</u>	here
<u>hiçbirisi</u>	none	<u>şurası</u>	there
her biri(<u>si</u>)	each	<u>orası</u>	there
her ikisi	both	<u>ortası</u>	the middle
<u>çoğu</u>	several		
<u>bazısı</u>	some		
<u>hepsi</u>	all		
<u>birkaçı</u>	some		
<u>kimisi</u>	some people		

(Sebüktekin, p. 97)

It is possible to form possessive constructions with more than two nominals in Turkish. The nominal which is a

possessive construction or possessive compound may be possessed by another nominal.

Examples:

(101) "Ali'nin evinin bahçesi"
(The garden of Ali's house)

(102) "Ayşe'nin Türkçe kitabı"
(Ayşe's Turkish book)

Errors in the Use of Genitive / Possessive Construction

The errors made in the use of the genitive formed 2.0 per cent while erroneous use of the possessive suffix made up 8.9 per cent of the total. Although genitive and possessive suffixes are related, the frequency of errors made in the use of them in the present data is quite different. This may be due to the special use of possessive compounds in Turkish.

The most typical error in the use of genitive form is the omission of it in a possessive construction.

Examples:

(103) * "...babam ailesi ile tanıştım."
(...babamın ailesi ile tanıştım / I've met my father's family.)

baba	father
/-m/	possessive suffix
aile	family
/-si/	third person singular possessive

ile	with
tanış(mak)	(to) meet
/-tı/	past tense suffix
/-m/	first person singular

(104)*"İnsanlar çoğu İngilizce konuştular."
 (İnsanların çoğu İngilizce konuştular / Most of the
 people spoke in English.)

İnsanlar	people
çok	many
/-u/	possessive suffix
İngilizce	English
konus(mak)	(to) speak
/-tu/	past tense suffix
/-lar/	plural suffix

The erroneous use of the possessive suffix varies. It is mostly omitted when a pronoun is present as the first co constituent of a possessive construction.

Example:

(105)*"Benim gözler hastaydı."
 (Benim gözlerim (hastaydı) bozuktu.)

ben	I
/-im/	genitive suffix
göz	eye
/-ler/	plural suffix
hasta	ill
/-ydi/	past tense postclitic

The most difficult construction for the American learners of Turkish in terms of genitive-possessive forms is the possessive compounds. Almost three-fourths of the errors in the use of possessive is observed in this usage.

- (106) a) *"Yolculuk sigorta alacağım."
(Yolculuk sigortası alacağım/I'll get travel insurance.)
- b) *"Boğaziçi Üniversite"
(Boğaziçi Üniversitesi/ Boğaziçi University)
- c) *"Hava alana gittim."
(Hava alanına gittim/ I went to the airport.)
- d) *"Osmanlı Türkçede çalışıyor."
(Osmanlı Türkçesi çalışıyor/ He is studying Ottoman Turkish.)
- e) *"Topkapı Saray"
(Topkapı Sarayı/ Topkapı Palace)

In English, the first noun functions as modifier adjective. Thus, it modifies the second noun which is the nominative form. In this usage the error originates from mother tongue interference because the erroneous use of the Turkish possessive ending seems to be an application of the English usage.

C. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

This study is based on the test papers submitted by English speaking learners of Turkish who participated in a summer program on Turkish language and culture offered by Boğaziçi University in 1982 and 1983.

The errors in 82 papers which constituted the sample material of the study are counted according to previously established categories. The study is limited to the errors made in the use of Turkish case endings with genitive and possessive constructions. This group represents the second highest area in the distribution of overall structural errors.

Frequency of error is related to the degree of learning difficulty; the present study shows that Turkish case endings constitute a high degree of difficulty for the American learners of Turkish. Two major types of errors are observed in the use of Turkish case endings: the learner either omits the ending or makes a wrong choice. Omission is more frequent than the substitution an inappropriate case ending. Cases that exist both in Turkish and English naturally display differences in some of their functions and distribution which explains a substantial part of errors. As discussed in the previous section, interference from mother tongue is one of the sources of error. However, this study indicates that a number of errors seem to result from interference between the forms of Turkish itself. Within this framework the detailed analysis of the errors are made and the findings are discussed.

Foreign language learning is a complex process and many

aspects of it have not been discovered yet. Errors which may be attributed to transfer from mother tongue and those which may be related to inherent difficulties of the target language both present challenges for those who plan and conduct second-language teaching.

Working on actual errors and considering the possible causes has a practical value from the teaching point of view. Error analysis can help the course planners, textbook writers and teachers for selecting, arranging and grading their material and methodology. The error analysis presented in this study has several implications for teaching Turkish to English speaking people. The main implications are discussed below.

Implications for Teaching:

First, case endings is an important area where the number of errors is second only to the number of errors in the proper use of verb forms. This implies that any plan for teaching Turkish should include sufficient time and adequate opportunities for the students in the use of case endings where most of the errors are found. Among the several types of case endings accusative, dative and nominative forms represent the highest frequency of errors in that order. Thus, particular attention needs to be given to these forms in teaching Turkish. Similarly, the use of the possessive represents a special difficulty. Since the possessive construction is the basis of phrases that correspond to various types of English clauses, it is essential that this form must be fully mastered for effective communication.

Both informal observations during the summer courses and analysis of the errors made suggest that the students have comparatively less difficulty in understanding the case relationships when they read and, to a certain extent, when they listen. But it is in their own writing and speaking that they exhibit these errors to a great extent. Thus, from the teaching point of view, the instructor should provide ample opportunities to practice what the students have learned either by rule or passive exposition, in order to help them to internalize the correct use of these structures.

The second implication could be stated as this: since the errors are due both to transfer from mother tongue interference and to internal difficulties of the target language, the instructor should not concentrate only in the areas where the two languages differ from each other (examples are already given in the text), but it is also essential to consider the tendencies of overgeneralization as early as possible. From the practical point of view, high error areas should be given adequate attention.

A third implication reinforces a well known practice in teaching foreign languages; the instructor should have a background in the native language as well as a full command of the target language. Wherever possible, the use of native speakers could provide advantages, especially in the areas where the erroneous use is related to the inherent difficulties of the target language itself.

This study indicates that the mastery of case endings

is not an easy task. Some suggestions drawn from the implications above and related to introductory teaching are proposed below:

It is known that simply giving the grammatical rules of a language does not enable the learners to use and understand the particular language. Having knowledge or perception of the meaning expressed by a certain case ending does not mean that the student has the ability to make the correct choice automatically when he uses Turkish. The alternate approach, pattern practice, is not enough by itself because generally such drills neither put the structures in a larger context nor provide opportunity for perception of the meaning differentiation. Thus, conceptual units, and their associated forms need to be presented in contexts that reinforce the distinctions within Turkish itself. This is especially important when the source of the error is overgeneralization.

Dialogues, short passages for reading and listening which illustrate intensively a few points at a time, could be used for the above purpose. Reading or listening, or both, would help the students to associate the form with the meaning or vice versa, while they become familiar with the given case ending. This could be followed by simple questions which would make the student repeat the structures from the passage in a meaningful context. Then the students may be given the opportunity to use the forms in a guided communicative situation. Providing an opportunity for using the structures in a similar context is another possibility. Contextualisation

by itself is often not enough. An additional and more formal approach is desirable especially for adult learners. Thus, following the above steps, the grammatical explanation is necessary. However, it is preferable to minimize the formal terminology since the aim is giving the students a cognitive grasp of the patterns. Various types of drills and exercises could be used to achieve fluency after the grammatical explanation. Simple or multiple substitution drills, transformation and addition drills, dialogues with one part printed and the other part faded, spot dictation or printed passages in which the case ending has been omitted are among the number of possible drill and exercise types. Also short passages or dialogues including case endings could be given and questions could be asked on the passage to obtain information. Another possibility is asking the students to talk about a depicted scene or narrate a sequence of events in a given picture format. All of these exercises could be provided with a view to teaching or reinforcing the correct use of case endings.

The important target for the instructor should be to prevent the errors as much as possible. But, in spite of this, it is known that errors inevitably occur because the students have a tendency to simplify and regularize the language rules. The crucial point is to detect the errors as early as possible to provide corrective and remedial instruction.

Error analysis is an excellent way to predict the areas of most common errors so that remedial material could be pre-planned. Some of these materials could be used for the entire group when they exhibit the same errors, or when the error is made by one or two individuals, individual help could be given.

The remedial material should include the grammatical review of the incompletely learned case ending. The student may possibly know the rules related to that specific point. But the distribution or an exception may be confused with some other case ending, or they may be overlooked. Since most of the errors are due to the inherent complexity of Turkish, the contrast within Turkish itself needs emphasis. Sufficient examples of the case ending under review should be given before providing exercises. Exercises which make the students think about what they are doing are more valuable than simple repetition drills. Visual aids and technological devices such as pictures, charts, language laboratories, film strips etc. could be helpful as well as the traditional exercise sheets and drilling materials.

It should be kept in mind that an intensive review does not guarantee that the students are not going to make similar mistakes later. If the errors continue to appear, that particular point must be reviewed again. This later review may be designed as a reminder, it can even be done when the class is working on another grammatical point.

The papers examined in this study belong to advanced students who are assumed to have mastered the grammar. However, the high concentration of errors in the use of case endings suggests that drills on the problem areas should be included in the remedial grammar sessions regardless of their level of proficiency. Ideally in any instructional design the possible problem areas should be considered from the very

beginning and the material should be selected and arranged accordingly to prevent the errors as much as possible. However, sometimes there may be practical difficulties: this is the case especially with students coming from different schools with different amount and quality of instruction at the beginning or intermediate level or beyond. In such cases, remedial and corrective instruction needs to be organized on the basis of difficulties encountered.

As a final remark, it should be pointed out once more that this is a limited study based on 82 papers and limited to cases alone. Similar studies need to be made with larger and more varied groups of learners of Turkish and should include other aspects of Turkish structure.

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