THE ‘SPLIT’: SINGLE EXPONENT IN L1, MULTIPLE EXPONENTS IN L2: CONSEQUENCES FOR L2

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ABSTRACT

SINGLE EXPONENT IN L1 MULTIPLE EXPONENTS IN L2: CONSEQUENCES FOR L2

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The thesis hypothesized that when an exponent of a linguistic concept in the native language maps onto several different exponents in the target language, learners have difficulty when acquiring those structures in the target language. By contrast, when an exponent of a linguistic concept in the native language and its counterpart in the target language stand in a one-to-one correspondence, the possibility of making errors decreases to a considerable extent. In order to test this hypothesis, I examined three different phenomena which allow both the usage of one-to-one and many-to-one structures: prepositions *on, at, in*; the usage of Present and Past Simple tense in embedded clauses; and the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple in matrix clauses. Turkish learners of English were administered several data collection tools: translation task, fill-in-the-blanks-tasks and think aloud protocols to determine if their errors might be caused by the interference of Turkish on acquisition of English as a second language. The hypothesis was confirmed for the two phenomena examined and the results of the three phenomena provide a lot of evidence that is consistent with L1 interference. However, the erroneous usage of tense in matrix clauses seems to have independent sources. It was also observed that the structures are not problematic *per se*; that is, they become problematic when they are required in a context where more than one L2 possibility exists for a single structure the effect L1 and interference can be decreased to some extent through the usage of various linguistic clues.

Keywords: Errors/Mistakes, L1 Interference, Second Language Acquisition

ÖZ

ANADİLDE BİR İÇERİĞE KARŞI HEDEF DİLDE BİRDEN FAZLA İÇERİK: İKİNCİ DİL EDİNİMİ İÇİN ETKİLERİ

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Bu tez; anadilde (Türkçe) bir yapının hedef dilde (İngilizce) birden fazla yapıyla karşılandığında öğrencilerin hedef dildeki bu tür yapıları edinmekte zorlandığı aksine, anadilde bir yapı hedef dildeki bir yapı ile birebir örtüştüğünde, hata yapma olasılığının belirgin oranda azaldığı önerisini savunmaktadır. Bu önerinin doğruluğunu değerlendirmek için anadilde ve hedef dilde birebir eşleşen yapılar ile anadilde bir karşılığın hedef dilde birden fazla karşılığa sahip olduğu üç farklı yapı incelenmiştir. Anadilde bir yapı ile ifade edilirken hedef dilde birden fazla karşılığı olan yapılar Türkçede bulunma hal eki *–dA*'ya karşılık gelen ve İngilizcede yer ve zaman ifade etmek için kullanılan edatlar *at, in,* on; Türkçede bağlı cümle oluşturmak için kullanılan *–dIk* ekine karşılık gelen ve İngilizcede bağlı cümlelerde Geniş Zaman ve Geçmiş Zamanı ifade etmek için kullanılan zamanlar *Present Simple* ve *Past Simple*; Türkçede temel cümlelerde Geçmiş Zamanı ifade etmek için kullanılan *–dI Geçmiş Zaman* ekine karşılık gelen ve temel cümlelerde kullanılan *Present Perfect* ve *Past Simple* zamanlarını kapsamaktadır. İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerine uygulanan boşluk doldurma, çeviri, sesli düşünme protokolleri gibi birden fazla veri toplama araçları ile yapılan hataların anadilin hedef dil üzerindeki etkisinden kaynaklanıp kaynaklanmadığı araştırmıştır.

Sonuçlar üzerinde yapılan incelemeler araştırılan hipotezin doğruluğunu ispatlamıştır ve sonuçlar anadilde bir şekilde ifade edilirken hedef dilde birden fazla şekilde ifade edilen bu yapıların ediniminde yapılan hataların anadil etkisinden kaynaklandığını göstermiştir. Ancak temel cümlelerde *Past Simple* ve *Present Perfect* yapılarını ifade etmek için kullanılan zamanlarda yapılan hataların farklı sebeplerden kaynaklandığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Hatalar, Anadil Etkisi, İkinci Dil Edinimi

To my son UMUT EFE

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABL: Ablative Case Marker

ACC: Accusative Case Marker

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CON: Continuous

DAT: Dative Case Marker

EA: Error Analysis

FTFA: Full Transfer Full Access

GEN: Genitive Case Marker

L1: Native Language

L2: Second Language

LOC: Locative Case Marker

NEG: Negation

PLU: Plural Form

PP: Prepositional Phrase

SING: Singular

TAP: Think Aloud Protocol

UG: Universal Grammar

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

When a learner is faced with the task of acquiring a second language, s/he has to establish the rules of that language. In an attempt to adapt a new mode of communication, language learners seek support from the mother tongue or the target language (Lekova, 2010). According to UG theory, L2 acquisition passes through several developmental stages that are referred to as interlanguages before they get more proficiency. These inter-languages are maybe not the first language or the second language of the learner. So some grammars in these interlanguages are usually considered as errors. In particular, when writing or speaking the target language (L2), second language learners tend to rely on their native language (L1) structures to produce a response. If the structures of the two languages are distinctly different, then one could expect a relatively high frequency of errors to occur in L2, thus indicating an interference of L1 on L2 (Tolentino and Tokowich, 2011; Dechert, 1983 and Ellis, 1997). Similarly, Lado (1957: 2) claims that "the situation when a person comes in contact with a foreign language, they will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult". Those elements that are similar to his language will be simple for the learner and those elements that are different will be difficult. In addition, Bialystok (2001) states that when the two languages are very different from each other, there may be more learning difficulties for the learner because the learner may find it difficult to learn and understand a completely new form. Lightbown & Spada (1997) explain this situation as follows: "Where there are similarities between the first and the second languages, the learner will acquire second language structures with ease; where there are differences, the learner will have difficulty." (pg. 23)

In this thesis, I am interested in the interference of L1 (Turkish) on L2 (English) in two broadly defined situations: one in which the relevant concept in L2 (which has to be acquired) corresponds in a one-to-one fashion to the comparable concept in L1, and one in which the relevant concept in L2 maps onto the corresponding concept in L1 in a many-to-one fashion. In particular, I am interested in whether different mappings (one-to-one *vs.* many-to-one) between the relevant grammatical concepts in L1 and L2 play a role in their acquisition.

In the taxonomy of linguistic contrast with six categories of difficulty, developed by Prator (1967) and given in (a) through (f) below, the two situations I am interested in correspond to levels Zero and Five respectively:

a. Level Zero (One-to-one Correspondence): No difference or contrast is present between L1 and L2. Positive transfer of a sound, structure or lexical item from L1 to L2.

b. Level One (Coalescence): Two items in L1 become coalesced (come together) into essentially one item in L2.

c. Level Two (Underdifferentiation): An item in L1 is absent in L2, the learner must avoid that item.

d. Level Three (Reinterpretation): An item that exists in L1 is given a new shape or distribution.

e. Level Four (Overdifferentiation): A new item entirely, not bearing any similarity to L1 item, must be learned.

f. Level Five (Split): One item in L1 becomes two or more in L2, the learner has to make a new distinction.

I expect fewer errors to be made in the one-to-one correspondence situation and considerably more errors to be made in the 'split' situation. In order to test this hypothesis, I examined the errors made by Turkish L2 learners of English in three

different areas of grammar: the usage of prepositions, the usage of tense in matrix clauses, and the usage of tense in embedded clauses.

The first phenomenon includes the comparison of adposition systems in Turkish and English. Contrary to English, which expresses location and direction through prepositions, Turkish has postpositions and case markers. However, while some of the location- and direction-denoting items in Turkish map onto a single preposition in English, some 'split' into multiple distinct exponents. For instance, as example (1) shows, the postposition *için* in Turkish corresponds pretty straightforwardly to the preposition *for* in English. Given the one-to-one correspondence between L1 and L2 expressions of the same concept, students are expected not to make many errors in such situations.

1) Senin için
   You-GEN. for
   'For you'

On the other hand, the meaning of Turkish locative case marker *–dA* is expressed with three different prepositions in English, as in the example (2). Although all phrases express location in time and place in this example, these concepts are expressed with three different prepositions in English *at, in, on.* This situation thus represents the 'split': a single element in L1 (*-dA*) maps onto multiple elements in L2 (*in, at, on*).

2) a. Ev –de
   Home-LOC
   'At home.' / 'In the home.'
   b. 23 Nisan'da
   23 April-LOC.
   'On 23rd April.'

c. Yedi - de buluşalım

Seven-LOC. Meet-Shall-1st P.Plural.

'Let's meet at seven.'

The second phenomenon I am interested in in this thesis involves the usage of tense and aspect in English matrix clauses. Certain tenses in Turkish correspond in a one-to-one manner to the relevant tenses in English, when they are used in matrix clauses. For example, the sentence given in (3) contains *Şimdiki Zaman* in Turkish, which is translated with the *Present Continuous tense* in English.

3) Gel -iyor -um.

Come-CON. 1st P. Sing.

'I am coming.'

However, this is not the case for all tenses. In particular, the meaning of Turkish past-expressing suffix *–dI* sometimes corresponds to English *Present Perfect* and sometimes to the *Past Simple* tense. This is shown in (4). Given that in this particular environment a single possibility in L1 (Past tense suffix *–dI*) splits into two possibilities in L2 (Past Simple and Present Perfect), we expect students to have more difficulties in this situation than they do, for example, with Present Continuous.

4) Ali gel -di.

Ali come-Past.

'Ali has come.' / 'Ali came.'

Finally, the third area of my interest concerns the usage of tense in English embedded clauses. The most common way of embedding a clause in Turkish is through its nominalization. This is done by the embedding, nominalizing suffixes *–dIk* and *–AcAk*. The suffix *–AcAk*, which is also used as the Future tense marker, used in noun clause sentences in Turkish can only be expressed with the future tense marker *will* in English, as in (5).

5) Nezaman geleceği beni ilgilendirmez.
When come-***AcAk***-3rd P.Sing. me concern-Pres.-Neg.3rd Sing.
'It does not concern me when he will come.'

By contrast, the subordinating suffix *–dIk* in Turkish can correspond to both the *Present Simple* and *Past Simple* tenses in English. In the Turkish sentence given in (6), there is no clue which will show us the expression of time; therefore, it can be translated with both tenses in English. This again instantiates a situation where the learner must make a choice in L2 when no choice is possible in L1.

6) Herkes sen-in ne düşün -düğünü bil -ir.
Everybody you-GEN. what think-***dIk***-ACC. know-Pres.-3rd Sing.
'Everybody knows what you think.'
'Everybody knows what you thought.'

We have thus identified three areas in which particular items in L1 stand in a one-to-one correspondence with the relevant items in L2, while some other items in L1 map onto multiple correspondents in L2, i.e. instantiate the 'split'. As mentioned above, I expect learners to make more errors in the 'split' situations than in the situations where the L1 and L2 exponents of a particular concept stand in a one-to-one correspondence. The main aim of the thesis is to determine whether the errors in the learners' performance are caused by the interference of Turkish on English. It examines the extent to which L1 interference in the three areas of grammar defined above accounts for the errors made in the acquisition of these structures in English by intermediate level Turkish high school learners.

The examination was done through the collection and analysis of learners' errors in the usage of forms that instantiate **(i)** one-to-one and **(ii)** many-to-one correspondence structures between English (L2) and Turkish (L1). These concepts were examined through Error Analysis on students' production-based works because the analysis of errors helps to build up the picture of features of the target language that cause difficulty for the specific group of learners (James, 1998).

Adjemian (1976), Corder (1967), Nemser (1971), and Selinker (1972) (as cited in White, 2003) point out that L2 learner's language is systematic and that the errors produced by learners do not consist of random errors but rather suggest rule governed behaviour which can be defined as a sign that learners are internalizing and investigating the system of the new language. In this thesis, the number of errors learners made in the usage of the above mentioned structures collected through several data collection tools has been taken as an indication of L1 interference on L2 acquisition.

The results obtained from the students' performance in the three phenomena provide a lot of evidence that is consistent with L1 interference and suggest that L1 interference is greater in those English structures in which many elements in L2 correspond to one single element in L1 (Turkish).

For the purposes of the study, "error" is defined "as the use of linguistic item in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards it as showing faulty or incomplete learning" (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p.21). In other words, it occurs because the learner does not know what is correct, and thus s/he cannot be self-corrected.

Although the thesis examines only three structures stated above (addressed in different chapters below), which are problematic for Turkish learners, the study is of interest for language teachers because it gives information based on real data about the reoccurrence of errors. Likewise, this study fills a gap in the research on SLA, especially in Turkey since most studies of Error Analysis and Interlanguage have focused just on the types of errors committed and excluded the analysis of errors in order to find out the role of L1 interference in these errors. Therefore, this study aims at presenting the results of the analysis run and interpreting them with respect to the language "Interference Hypothesis" framework of language acquisition (Hulk and Müller, 2000; Müller and Hulk, 2001; White, 2008; Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Literature shows that although they were regarded as the unnatural parts of writings or speech of language learners in the past (Odlin 1989), today errors have been thought to be an inevitable part of learning. Thus, studying the nature of errors enables teachers of foreign languages and researchers to have a better understanding of the linguistic area where students have the most difficulty while trying to communicate effectively. This study aims to illustrate that in the past, L1 interference hypothesis may be regarded as outdated in second language acquisition; however, over the past few decades attitudes towards learners' errors have undergone significant changes following the changes in the methodological approaches to foreign language teaching and now L1 interference seems to be at least partly responsible for errors committed in the process of L2 acqusition. If it were not so, L2 acquisition would proceed with similar benchmarks, pitfalls, as well as success rates as compared to L1 acquisition (Galosso, 2002). In other words, learning a second language should be relatively straightforward. As Galosso (2002) claims, "If L1 was not influential on the acquisition of L2, it certainly could be hypothesized that both L1 and L2 learners would simply go through the same processes of setting the appropriate parameters in face of the language input in accordance to the options permitted by UG" (p:5). Surely, this is incorrect as made apparent by the research regarding the limitations of L2 achievement (Liceras, 1989; Phinney, 1987).

Given that the thesis is written in the spirit of Error Analysis, below I give some background information about it in order to make clear the logic that I follow throughout the work.

1.2. Error Analysis

In the middle of the twentieth century, when behaviourist psychology and structural linguistics were very popular, Contrastive Analysis (CA) was also very widely accepted in language teaching. The underlying assumption of CA is that

second language learners tend to transfer their L1 knowledge to L2 while learning the target language. Interference is important for the contrastive linguistics because it posits that the main reason of the errors students made is the interference of the mother tongue in foreign language learning. In light of the interference assumption, structural linguists identify the areas that cause difficulty to second language learners. This is done by comparing and contrasting the structure of the learner's native language with that of the target language. Learners' errors are significant in that they provide the researcher with the evidence of how language is learned or acquired and of what strategies or procedure the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.

It must be noted that contrastive analysis hypothesis can be divided into a strong and a weak version. These two versions are equally related to the notion of L1 interference. The strong version claims that all the errors in L2 are caused because of the differences between the learner's native language and the target language, but the weak version tries to diagnose errors in L2. Wardhaugh (1970) states that according to the strong version, all L2 errors that will occur can be predicted through the differences between L1 and L2, whereas the weak version uses CA, when applicable, to explain learner errors (Abushibab, 2012).

Arising from the shortcomings of CA to adequately account for second language learner' errors, researchers began to look for an alternative approach for the study of errors; an approach which would be theoretically justifiable and pedagogically practicable. This new approach is based on theories of first and second language learning and the similarities between these theories. It is called "Error Analysis" (henceforth EA) (James, 1998; Richards, 1974). With this approach, errors were no longer considered evil signs of failure in teaching and learning to be eradicated at any cost; rather they were seen as a necessary part of language learning process. EA tries to account for learner performance in terms of cognitive processes which learners make use of in reorganizing the input they receive from the target

language. A primary focus of EA is on the evidence that learners' errors provide an understanding of the underlying processes of second language acquisition.

In his 1998 book, Harmer, one of the important supporters of EA, states that there are three groups of grammatical mistakes. Two of them are *slips* and *mistakes*, while the third one is *errors*. Slips and mistakes occur when students understand that they have made a mistake and are therefore able to correct themselves (Harmer, 1998: 137). Mistakes and slips are not taken into account as the instances of language interference as they are not a result of deficiency in competence and the deviant form can be corrected by the speaker. On the other hand, errors are described as a systematic deviation of the learner's linguistic system and it is defined as "the use of a linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete action" (Richards, 1994: 95). They require correction and explanation as learners do not have the language knowledge needed to correct these types of mistakes yet.

EA involves collecting samples of learner errors, identifying the errors, classifying them in accordance with their hypothesized causes, and evaluating their seriousness. Richards (1974) proposes three different categories for the identification of errors.

a. Interlingual Errors

b. Intralingual Errors

c. Developmental Errors

In the beginning stages of learning a second language, there is a good deal of transfer from the native language to the target language. The native language system is the only linguistic system in previous experiences upon which the learner will build a new one before the second or foreign language is familiar to him. As a result of the interference of the mother tongue with the second language, the learner is bound to make errors which are called interlingual errors.

Schachter and Murcia (1977) state that interlingual errors are those caused by the influence of the learners' mother tongue on his production of the target language presumably precisely in those areas where the languages differ. Similarly, in this thesis, it is claimed that the pupils' knowledge of the framework in which their own language is used causes problems in their L2 or foreign language production when unfamiliar structures appear, in the sense that the pupils use the familiar structure from their L1.

However, Richards (1974) claims that interferences from the students' own language are not the only reason for committing errors. As Ellis (1997) states, some errors appear to be universal, reflecting learners' attempts to learn the target language. The use of the Past Tense suffix *-ed* for all verbs is an example of simplification and overgeneralization. These errors are common in the speech of second language learners and are produced due to generalizations made in the process of learning the target language. These are intralingual errors. In contrast to interlingual errors, intralingual errors are not based on the structure of L1 (Richards, 1974). Intralingual errors occur "as a result of learners' attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience with it" (Çubuk, 2009: 16).

The third type of error categories includes developmental errors which "reflect the learner's competence at one of the stages of language learning continuum" (Richards, 1974: 176). They are natural outcomes of language acquisition process and show common features of this process. Richards (1974) states that these are typical errors that are found in the utterances of anyone learning English as a second language.

In this thesis, I am interested in interlingual errors, which are a consequence of the negative transfer of L1 onto L2.

It is, of course, known that L1 is not the only source of difficulties/errors in L1 acquisition. Performance of L2 learners is influenced by factors other than L1. As

just one example among many studies showing this, the research done by Ionin (2003) can be given. This study investigates article overuse of L1-Russian and L1-Korean learners studying English articles. She examines what happens when an L2-learner whose L1 (Korean and Russian in this case) does not contain articles has to acquire a language with articles, such as English. By doing so, she wants to address error patterns that happen during acquiring English as a second language in the UG framework. She hypothesizes that L2-learners fluctuate between different article parameter settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value in the process of acquisition of articles. She shows that L2 learners can access parameter settings which do not exist either in L1 or in L2. These learners, who do not have articles in their L1, fluctuate between two parameters in their choice of articles in English: the definiteness parameter (present in the L2 grammar) or the specificity parameter (an UG option present in languages distinct from their L1 or L2). Since L2 learners seem to have access to both possible settings of the Article Choice Parameter: the definiteness parameter and the specificity parameter, this shows that they have full access to UG (Ionin, 2003; Montrul & Inonin, 2009; Ionin & Montrul, 2010). This is an example where errors in L2 cannot be traced to L1.

However, while not all errors can be attributed to transfer from L1, such transfer cannot be denied and no one really denies them. Most L2 researchers today agree that at least some aspects of SLA are influenced by the learners' native language, a process known as L1 transfer or interference (See Ellis, 2006; Gass&Selinker, 1992; Odlin, 1989; Schwartz, 1998; Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994). The Full Access Full Transfer Hypothesis (Schwartz & Sprouse 1994) states that L2 learners transfer their L1 grammar to L2 at least in the initial state of L2 acquisition, but that their interlanguages can be characterized in terms of UG parameters distinct from those found in L1.

One of the ways in which L1 transfer is studied today involves the shift of focus to areas of linguistic competence which are the ones most prone to L1 transfer. As

stated by Sorace's (2003, 2005 as cited in Guijarro-Fuentes & Marinis, 2009: 81) Interface Hypothesis, "L1 transfer occurs if language A has a syntactic construction which may seem to allow more than one syntactic analysis and, at the same time, language B contains evidence for one of these two possible analyses". In other words, there has to be a certain overlap of the two systems at the surface level. Therefore, Sorace claims that interfaces, namely the syntax-semantics, syntax-pragmatics and the syntax lexical-semantics interfaces, are especially vulnerable for adults and therefore subject to greater difficulty, delays, and result in so-called L1 interference.

To sum up, while this thesis focuses on L1 influence on L2 acquisition, it is not my intention to try to subsume all L2 errors to L1 transfer. The aim is to investigate to what extent and in which situations such transfer plays a role.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Many of the theories of second language acquisition take L1 interference into account. The Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis (henceforth FTFA) (e.g. Schwartz & Sprouse 1994; White, 2003) maintains that the L1 grammar, including L1 parameter settings, constitutes the initial state of L2 acquisition (full transfer), but that L2 learners have full access to the Universal Grammar (UG) at all times during the acquisition process (full access), and thus that parameter resetting is usually possible. According to FTFA, when a person attempts to learn a second language (such as English), they are said to be resetting their parameters. In other words, when learners acquire a new language, they are consciously or subconsciously changing the rules of language. In this respect, during the acquisition process or resetting the parameters, we can talk about L1 interference on L2 acquisition.

FTFA maintains the position that a set of universal principles, called UG, governs the acquisition of all human languages. This is true both for first and second language acquisition. For many principles of UG, it appears that L1 can never be completely ruled out as a source of L2 learners' unconscious knowledge (Hale, 1996). Since L1 is a natural language and since many UG principles manifest themselves in the L1 in some form or other, it will often be hard or impossible to disentangle the native and the target language. (Hale, 1996). There are many ways in which this interference manifests itself. White (2003) discusses theories as to the role of Universal Grammar and the extent of the mother tongue influence and notes the following possibilities of L1 interference. Firstly, there is a potential for overgeneralization from L1 to the L2, for example, where L1 permits more ways

of realizing a particular argument structure in the syntax than the L2 (White, 2003). In other cases, there may be undergeneralization, with the L2 learner failing to acquire aspects of L2 argument structure which are nevertheless exemplified in the L2 input (White, 2003). Moreover, the interference of the L1 can also show itself in the form of avoidance, which can be defined as learner's avoiding the usage of linguistic structure which they find difficult because of differences between the native language and the target language. We will see in the rest of the thesis that in the situation of the 'split', students either undergeneralize or avoid the relevant structures. For example, it will be observed that since the locative case marker *–dA* in Turkish corresponds to three different English prepositions *at, in, on,* when students cannot retrieve the correct preposition; they often avoid using a preposition, which is defined as omission. On the other hand, it will be concluded, based on the translation of Turkish sentences, that the usage of the pastness suffix *–dI* confuses the students as it maps onto two distinct English tenses: Present Perfect or Past Simple. As a result, it will be revealed from the analysis of think-aloud-protocols that students undergeneralize the usage of the pastness suffix *–dI* to the use of Past Simple in English.

In his book about error theories and second language acquisition, Jie (2008) discusses three main theories: Error Analysis, Contrastive Analysis and Interlanguage. According to Jie, when a student's L1 grammar clashes with their target language, s/he can do one of four things:

a) Overgeneralize the rules of L2 and apply them related to situations:

For example, in the item (7) the learner produces an error because s/he generalizes that adverbs of manner must always be formed by adding *-ly* to the adjectives.

7) *He runs fastly. (Taken from Ratnah 2013)

Similar types of errors are also observed in this study. It will be observed in Chapter 5 that students overgeneralize the usage of Present Simple in matrix

clauses. When presented with the sentence in the item (8) which contains a blank that requires the usage of Present Perfect, they filled the blank with Present Simple tense instead. This may have beed caused by the presence of the time adverbial *now*, which is normally accompanied the present form of the verb *to be*.

8) I ……. (be) here for a week now.

b) Ignore the rules L2:

This type of errors is again a type of generalization. Since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation, some rule ignorance errors may be caused by analogy. For example, the learner knows how to form question tags in English: the main verb appears in the opposite polarity at the end of the utterance. However, when learners encounter a complex sentence, as in the items (9) and (10) (taken from Zhang, 2010) they attempt by analogy to follow the same rule as in the simple sentences and they ignore the rule used for forming tag questions in complex sentences, which says that it is the embedded verb which should be tagged. Thus errors are committed as shown in (9)* and (10)*.

9) I didn't expect that she would give up the opportunity, would she?
*I didn't expect that she would give up the opportunity, did I?

10) I suppose Lucy's crying, isn't she?
* I suppose Lucy's crying, don't I?

c) Apply the L2 rule incompletely:

In order to produce some sentence structures, more than one rule needs to be used or a rule is used to different degrees. But learners sometimes fail to understand or apply these rules completely. For instance, items (11) and (12) (taken from Zhang, 2010) are examples of incomplete application of L2 rules. Again, the learner knows the rule of forming an English tag question. But when there are words in the sentence which denote negative polarity without the word *not*, the learner has some difficulties in dealing with the whole sentence. S/he correctly forms the tag

question, however; s/he does not complete the rule because s/he does take the negation word into account and fails to reverse the polarity of the tag question. Thus he produces the incorrect sentences, as given in (11)* and (12)*.

11) She hardly plays with you, does she?
 * She hardly plays with you, doesn't she?
12) I never said she was wrong, did I?
 * I never said she was wrong, didn't I? (did I?)

d) Create an imaginary rule based on what s/he thinks is the rule in the L2.

This type refers to faulty rule learning at various levels. Ratnah (2013) illustrates this situation like this: due mostly to poor teaching, some students get confused and cannot differentiate between lexical items *go* and *come*, *bring* and *take*, *too* and *very*, etc. Similarly, in this thesis, students made mistakes in the tense required in the example (13) below. Instead of the required Present Continuous tense, they used Present Perfect, likely because they misinterpreted the verb *wear* to mean *put on*.

13) But I ……. (wear) my coat in case it may be cold at night.

Convincing evidence that cross linguistic analysis contributes to second language acquisition comes from a series of studies conducted by numerous researchers (White, 1998, 2008; White & Ranta, 2002; White, Collins, & Muñoz, 2007). In their cross-linguistic analysis of Arabic and English, Scott and Tucker (1974) suggested that substitutions occurred in students' papers in English structures when "an Arabic structure corresponds to several [structures] with subtle differences in meaning in English because the student often didn't know which to use" (p:86). The authors provide the following example of a substitution error in the usage of prepositions by Arabic learners of English. They claimed that since the Arabic preposition *taHt* corresponds to two different English prepositions; *under* and *below*, students substitute them with each other in their writings (See Example (14)).

14) One of the men sits down below the car to try to repair it. [1]

Similar to the proposal in this thesis, in his contrastive analysis of German and English tense and aspect system, Dürich (2005) hypothesized that the highest error rates would be in the areas where English and German tense and aspect systems differ considerably. He found out two main areas of dissimilarities between the German and the English tense and aspect systems as a result of contrasting both systems: firstly, the *Perfekt* – Present Perfect distinctions which is "the result of an ambiguous German temporal reference, covering the meaning and the use of the *Präteritum*" (p:58). Secondly the German language has no grammaticalized progressive aspect to express durative qualities in *Präsens*, *Präteritum* and *Futur I*. Therefore, he expected to observe errors in the usages of Present Perfect and Progressive. However, Dürich (2005) drew different conclusions from the results gathered from this study. He found out that most of the errors on the average are in the usage of Simple Present and Simple Past, which actually show a high degree of similarity to the German equivalents. He realized that the errors made in the usage of Present Simple and Past Simple tense have two main sources. Students preferred to use Present Simple instead of the Future Simple, which is a tense error that can be traced back to transfer from German, and the non-use of the progressive aspect. Similar to the conclusion made in this research, the main source for the errors occurring with the Past Simple in Dürich's article are due to an overuse to avoid the Present Perfect, which does not correspond to the German *Perfekt* in a one-to-one manner. Thus, he concluded that areas where high quantities of errors can be observed involve either transfer from the learner's mother tongue or avoidance of structures which do not occur in the learner's L1 tense and aspect system. Similarly, in this study, the errors in the usage of tense in matrix clauses stemmed from students' preference for using Past Simple. Since Turkish does not have a tense specifically

[1] This example is taken from Scott and Tucker (1974).

referring to Present Perfect, students avoided to use it and substituted it with Past Simple in the fill-in-the-blanks-task.

Another study that fits with the topic of the thesis is Gök (1996). He investigated the errors that learners made in their writings and classified these errors into thirty-nine categories. He suggested two different sources for these errors: developmental and interference errors. The most problematic area in the study was the misusage of prepositions, constituting the 10% of the total errors. She concluded that Turkish students tended to think in Turkish and translate their thoughts into English both in speaking and writing, which resulted in L1 interference errors. Similarly, think-aloud-protocol results in this study also suggest that students think in Turkish and translate their thoughtS. This is because when students were asked to translate Turkish sentences with time adverbials associated with Present Perfect, they provided sentences with Past Simple indicating the presence of the pastness suffix *–dI* as the reason. As suffix *–dI* only means pastness for Turkish learners of English; they do not take English grammar into account which gives rise to ungrammatical utterances.

Though determiner use is not a topic examined in this study, the results of Horst, White, and Bell (2010) show similarities with my study. They showed that learners of English whose L1 is French (or Catalan) benefited from instruction that drew their attention to differences in English and L1 systems for third-person possessive determiner use. More specifically, they claimed that "contrasting the English rule (*his* corresponds to a male possessor, *her* to a female one) to the L1 rule (French *son* and *sa* correspond to the grammatical gender of the possessed entity) led to higher levels of accurate use" (p: 333). These findings, along with the many other studies that identify benefits for cross linguistic analysis gave us reason to think that a cross-linguistic pedagogy might be usefully applied to second language learning environment.

Next chapter provides literature review (2) and the following chapters of the thesis (3-5), I present the three (off-line) experiments that I conducted in order to test the

hypothesis put forth above, that students have difficulties in acquiring structures in L2 that map onto corresponding linguistic concepts in L1 in a many-to-one manner. In Chapter 6, I discuss the results of all the experiments, and Chapter 7 is the conclusion. The results indicate that the hypothesis is correct, and thus that L1 plays a great role in the manipulation of L2 at the intermediate stage of L2 proficiency.

It also must be noted that although Error Analysis constitutes an important contribution to language teaching, an outline of the recent evolution of conceptions, ideas, and research on the area of second language acquisition show us that it is just one among a number of sources that acquisition researchers focus on while explaining how and what language teaching nowadays has come to.

CHAPTER 3:

Phenomenon 1: Interference of the Locative Case Marker *-dA* in the acquisition of prepositions *at, on,* and *in*.

3.1. Introduction

Native speakers are reported to hardly make errors in the use of prepositions while non-native speakers either never master them or reach an almost native like mastery in the use of prepositions with great difficulty, at the latest stage of the language acquisition (Cooper 1968). This chapter examines the extent to which L1 interference of Turkish case markers and postpositions accounts for the errors in the usage of English prepositions by Turkish secondary school learners.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1985) define prepositions as "words expressing a relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by another part of the sentence" (p:657). The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase, a nominal *Wh*-clause, or a nominal *-ing* clause. Following Jackendoff (1993), we can assume the following generalized phrase structure for PPs in English.

15) a. PP→ [P [XP]]

b. XP ∈ {DP, AP, AdvP, PP, VP, CP}

Studies have shown the complexity of preposition acquisition for many learners of English from all levels. There is a lot of research reporting prepositional errors as the most frequent error type compiled from English learners with different L1s (Politzer and Ramirez, 1973; Khampang, 1974; Lococo, 1976; Azevedo, 1980). Celce -Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) note several reasons for the difficulty that prepositions pose for non-native speakers. Firstly, they observe that in their

spatial meaning, prepositions do not match up well from language to language. For instance, the English sentence (16)a) would be translated in French as (16)b).

16) a. The woman walks in the rain. *English*
b. La femme marche sous la pluie. *French*
'The woman walks under the rain.'[2]

Secondly, they claim that it is notoriously difficult to characterize the semantics of prepositions. For instance, English preposition *to* is equivalent to German preposition *zu* and similarly, English *at* is equivalent to German preposition *an*. However, the sentence (17)a) is translated to German as (17)b).

17) a. John is at home. *English*
b. Johann ist zu House. *German*
'Johann is at home.'[3]

Similar problems exist between Turkish and English. However, contrary to prepositions in English, Turkish has postpositions and case markers to express location and direction; therefore, the process of acquiring English prepositions poses additional problems for Turkish learners. For instance, the location in time and space in the sentences in (18), (19) and (20) are all expressed with a single case marker *-dA/-dE* [4] in Turkish, whereas in English three different prepositions are used, as shown in their translated versions.

18) Hakan Ankara'*da* yaşıyor.
Hakan Ankara.LOC. live.Prog.
'He lives in Ankara.'

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[2] Examples are taken from Celce Murcia and Larsen and Freeman (1999).

[3] Examples are taken from Evans V. & Tyler A. (2005).

[4] The vowel of the Turkish locative case marker varies according to the rules of the vowel harmony.

19) Saat yedi'*de* buluşalım.
Clock seven.LOC. let's-meet
'Let's meet at 7 o'clock.'

20) 19 Kasım'*da* buraya gelecek.
19 November.LOC. here.DAT. come.FUT.
'He will come here on 19th November.'

Turkish can also use postpositions [5] to express location as exemplified in (21) and (22) These are also translated into English with prepositions as in their translated versions.

21) Çocuklar kapının önünde oynuyor.
Children door.GEN. front.LOC. play.prog.
'The children are playing in front of the door.'

22) Masanın altında[6] kalem var.
Table/GEN. below.GEN.-LOC. pencil there is.
'There is a pencil under the table.'

When we examine all the examples above, it can be observed that Turkish learners need to acquire two sets of prepositions in the acquisition process of English: those that map onto postpositions in Turkish and those that map onto the locative case markers (in our case *–dA*). The two different types of prepositions are examined in more detail below.

Turkish generally expresses temporality and location within the locative case marking (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005). Locative case is used to indicate physical or

[5] The structure that corresponds to a prepositional phrase is ordered so that the postposition follows the noun phrase instead of preceding it: PP →NP P (Murcia and Freeman, 1999).

[6] Though Turkish postpositions "*önünde*" and "*altında*" do contain *–da* (they are probably morphologically complex), this is not relevant for the study, because a single combination "*önün-de*" always corresponds to a single combination: "*in front of*" and "*altında*" always corresponds to a single item: "*under*".

abstract location. It is shown with the locative case suffix *–dA* in Turkish. Functions of locative case are:

a. Time
b. Place adverbial
c. The location constituent of an existential sentence

Counterparts of *–dA* in English are the prepositions *at, in, on*. This situation represents a many-to-one correspondence structure between English and Turkish, i.e. the 'split'. If there is significant transfer from L1 to L2, this situation should be problematic for Turkish learners of English.

There are, however, types of prepositions in English that correspond to postpositions in Turkish and their mapping in the two languages is typically one-to-one, as shown in the examples (21) and (22). These are expected to be more easily acquired since the L2 exponents of the relevant relations correspond to a single exponent in Turkish as well.

3.2. Previous Research: Acquisition of Prepositions

Literature provides us with a great deal of evidence in terms of difficulty in the acquisition of prepositions. In his investigation of Arabic EFL University students' errors in the use of prepositions, Tahaineh (2010) worked on students' (N: 162) free compositions to find out what kind of errors students made. He found that the substitution type of errors i.e.; the use of an incorrect preposition where another preposition should be used were the main kind of errors that students made in their compositions (78%). Addition (the presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed utterance), and omission (the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed utterance) were the next most frequent errors, accounting for 15% and 7% of all errors respectively. Tahaineh showed that there exist statistically significant differences among the three proficiency levels

concerning the total numbers of errors in the usage of prepositions. He suggested that L1 interference was caused mainly by overgeneralization of L1 grammar on L2 grammar learning.

Jimenez (1996) also studied errors in the Spanish students' descriptive compositions. He found out that among 3427 errors in total, preposition errors were the first among the ten most frequent types of errors with 18.45%. He also grouped prepositions errors into substitution, omission, and addition and the substitution type of errors were claimed to be the most frequent prepositional errors. As we will see, this finding is consistent with my findings when it comes to many-to-one correspondence prepositions.

Studies conducted on the acquisition of prepositions of L1 Turkish students of English (Evin, 1993; Çubuk, 2009; Gedikoğlu, 1987) mainly focus on the kind of errors that learners made, but some also investigate the causes of these errors. For instance, similar to the present study, Evin (1993) examined the use of location or spatial prepositions by 120 freshman students at the University of Gaziantep. She concluded that freshman students avoided using location prepositions and used a total of six prepositions while sixteen prepositions were employed by native speakers of English when they were asked to describe same number of pictures. Moreover, it was reported in the study that *on, in,* and *near* were the most common prepositions used by all subjects of the study.

Gedikoğlu (1987) conducted research on the acquisition of English prepositions. To determine whether Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interfere with English prepositions, the author conducted an experiment with Turkish and Spanish speakers in the USA. Both Turkish and Spanish subjects of the study were asked to fill in the blanks with appropriate English prepositions, and translate the Turkish and Spanish sentences into English. The results of the study revealed that speakers of both Spanish and Turkish languages experienced a difficulty in using prepositions due to their complicated nature. He argued that the

reason of the errors made by Turkish learners is the system of Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interfering with the acquisition of English prepositions.

Çubuk (2009) examined the features and the usages of the most frequently used prepositions *at, in, on* in English by native speakers of Turkish. Participants of the study were recorded in natural classroom environment and the recorded data were transcribed. The compiled corpus was examined by two native speakers of English and the researcher. The data was classified under four main categories for each preposition inquired: correct usage, misuse, overuse, omission. At the end of the analysis, the problematic contexts related to the use of the prepositions *at, in, on* for time and place were identified. In her study, Çubuk claimed that Turkish learners of English produced erroneous forms of prepositions in the second language acquisition process and the underlying reasons of these errors/mistakes was the interference of the native language. It was also suggested that the participants tended to rely on their native language and omit some prepositions since Turkish does not have separate pre- or post-positions to express certain problematic meanings.

The literature thus provides us with the observation that native speakers of Turkish and other languages have similar problems in the acquisition process of English prepositions. However, not many studies examine the causes of these errors. No study investigates the problems in Turkish learners' acquisition process of English prepositions in light of the correspondence between English prepositions and Turkish case markers/postpositions. By contrast, by analyzing students' errors in the use of one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence prepositions in a translation task, this study tries to determine whether Turkish case suffixes and postpositions interfere with English prepositions acquisition. The hypothesis tested is the following:

23) **Hypothesis 1 (Phenomenon 1: Prepositions):**

Given a translation task, students will make errors in the usage of prepositions *at, in, on,* which correspond to a single locative case marker *-dA* in Turkish, whereas they will make fewer errors in the usage of prepositions which correspond in a one-to-one manner to Turkish postpositions/case markers.

We will see that the hypothesis was confirmed, giving support to the claim that L1 interference plays a significant role in the errors that students make in the usage of the English prepositions. Moreover, it will be shown that the interference can indeed be reduced to the many-to-one (the 'split') nature of the relationship between the exponents of the relevant concepts in two the languages, and not to their different morphological status.

3.3. Methodology

3.3.1 Participants

Participants in this study were twenty five students at the ages of sixteen to seventeen in an Anatolian high school in Turkey. Students' proficiency level was recorded as pre-intermediate with Cambridge Key English placement test administered at the very beginning of 2011-2012 Education-Training-year according to Turkish Educational System. Students had twelve hours of English instruction per week. The curriculum consisted of a main course lesson which was expected to include all the language skills together with the grammar and the vocabulary in a communicative way. Students came from similar socio-economic status within a small town in Turkey.

3.3.2. Instruments

In order to gather data which would provide an explanation of the underlying reasons of the errors that students produce in the process of the acquisition of

prepositions, a translation task was used (Appendix A). A Translation task was preferred over a grammaticality judgment task and multiple choice tests because I expected students' production to be based on their interlanguage grammar (presumably a combination of L1 and L2). As a result, L1 interference of the prepositions could be observed more clearly.

The translation task included thirty Turkish sentences in total and students were asked to translate them into English. The task consisted of two main parts; the first part included eighteen sentences which required the usage of *at, in, on* and twelve sentences which required the usage of prepositions other than these. Of the eighteen sentences, six sentences required the usage of *at*, six sentences required the usage of *in* and six sentences required the usage of *on*. Besides, in three of each six sentences, the preposition was used to refer to time and in the remaining three, it was used to refer to place expressions in English. The meaning of the prepositions in all of the eighteen sentences requiring the usage of *at, in, on* in English was expressed with *-dA* locative case marker in Turkish.

The second part included twelve sentences; each contained a different postposition or a case marker that corresponds in a one-to-one, or a near one-to-one[7] fashion to an English preposition. Of the twelve expected prepositions, ten *(after, with, behind, in front of, under, since, about, for, between,* and *by)* are expressed with a postposition in Turkish *(sonra*, *ile*, *arkasınd*a, *önünde*, *altında*, *-dAn beri*, *hakkında*, *için*, *arasında,* and *tarafından)*. Two prepositions, *from* and *to,* are expressed with the ablative case marker *-dAn* and the dative case marker *-a* respectively. Prepositions which in Turkish have different morphological status (a postposition *versus* a case marker) were included in order to see whether the interference in the many-to-one correspondence prepositions *(at, on, in)* occurs because of the many-to-one nature of the relationship between the exponents of

[7] Near one-to-one correspondence is used for the structures such as–*dAn beri*. Though the postposition is a combination of ablative case marker –*dAn* and the word *beri*, its meaning is only expressed with the preposition *since*. Therefore, this type of correspondence is called near one-to-one correspondence.

the relevant concepts in two the languages, or because of the fact that they are case suffixes, rather than postpositions in L1.

3.3.3. Procedure and The Piloting

As students were at pre-intermediate proficiency level in English, they were thought to have acquired the prepositions asked for in the translation task at least to a certain extent. Therefore, no pre-teaching was made on these prepositions. However, in order to evaluate the translation task itself and the understandability of the sentences in Turkish, a piloting session was held. Three students were asked to translate the sentences into English and required changes were made. Besides, one English teacher was asked to go through the task in terms of correction and define if there were any misunderstandings in the instrument. The items which caused problems in the understanding of the sentences and which were thought not to define the situation clearly were excluded from the study and new Turkish sentences were included.

All participants were administered the data collection tool at once. In the process of task administration, students were given as much time as they needed to ensure that all the sentences were addressed.

3.3.4. Data Analysis

After the administration, sentences were analyzed in groups. The first group included sentences with the prepositions *at, in, on* (many-to-one correspondence prepositions) and the second group consisted of sentences requiring prepositions *after, with, behind, in front of, under, since, about, for, between, by, to,* and *from* (one-to-one correspondence prepositions). Any errors in the usage of *at, in, on* and other prepositions were counted. The correct usage of one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence prepositions was then compared via Wilcoxon test in SPSS 21 to see whether students made significantly fewer errors in any of the groups of prepositions.

If students made significantly more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions than in the group of other prepositions, this would validate the hypothesis and would enable us to conclude that L1 interference (the 'split') is responsible for the errors in L2 production. However, if students made equal number of errors in the usage of both many-to-one and one-to-one correspondence prepositions or fewer errors in the usage of many-to-one prepositions, L1 interference hypothesis would be disconfirmed.

The number of errors in the many-to-one prepositions was also compared to the number of errors in only those one-to-one prepositions which correspond to a case marker in Turkish. This was done to ensure that the difficulties which arise were indeed due to the nature of the correspondence between the relevant items in the two languages, and not to their morphological status. If there is no significant difference between the two, it would suggest that the problems in the usage of prepositions *at*, *on*, and *in* might be due to the fact that in Turkish, these prepositions are expressed by an affix. If, however, the errors in many-to-one group outnumber the errors in the one-to-one group, this would confirm the hypothesis that, regardless of whether a preposition corresponds to a case marker or to a postposition, the many-to-one correspondence between English prepositions and their Turkish counterparts causes difficulty for Turkish learners of English.

The kind of errors students had made was also investigated. There are three type of errors defined in the literature (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 150-163): substitution, addition, and omission. Substitution is "expressed as the use of a wrong preposition where another preposition should be used" (p. 155). Addition refers to "the presence of an item that must not appear in a well formed utterance" (p. 156), while omission is defined as "the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterance" (p. 154). If students make errors in the usage of prepositions, this analysis would provide the researcher with an understanding of

what students do when the correct preposition is not retrieved, which would give us implicational results about how to teach prepositions.

Finally, the sentences requiring the usage of prepositions *at, in, on* were separately grouped in terms of the expression of time and place. Any errors in the usage of time and place prepositions of *at, in, on* were counted and compared. This analysis told the researcher where students made more errors: when prepositions express time or place. This would tell us what kind of preposition use poses more difficulty in learning.

3.4. Results

The data were gathered through the translation task presented to 25 students at the same time. In what follows, I present the results.

Firstly, the number of errors in the usage of prepositions *at*, *in* and *on* was counted. In 450 sentences, each of which required the usage of a single preposition, a total of 223 errors were recorded. By contrast, when it comes to errors in one-to-one correspondence prepositions, much fewer errors were obtained. Out of 300 sentences, just 18 errors were recorded (Table 1). Thus, while errors in many-to-one correspondence prepositions account for 92.53% of all the errors, errors in one-to-one correspondence prepositions account only for 7.4% of all the errors.

Table 1: T*he number of errors in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence prepositions*

Variables	N. of Total Sentences	Number of Errors	Percentage (%)
Many-to-one prep.	450	223	**92.531**
One-to-one prep.	300	18	**7.468**
Total	**750**	**241**	100

The two mean values (the mean number of errors in each group of prepositions) were compared by the Wilcoxon test, to see whether the difference is significant. The Wilcoxon test was used because the Shapiro Wilk test results showed that the data of the two groups are not normally distributed (Sig= .214 vs., 000). The Wilcoxon test results show that the difference between the errors that students made in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence prepositions is statistically significant (Z = - 4,310, *p* = 0,00).

This result shows that students have more difficulty in the acquisition of *at*, *in*, and *on* (prepositions which correspond to only one Turkish locative case marker – *dA*) whereas they are more successful in translating one-to-one correspondence prepositions into English.

3.4.1. Analysis of Types of Errors

If my hypothesis is correct, and students' difficulties in the usage of the many-to-one prepositions stem from their many-to-one correspondence between their L1 and L2, for each preposition in this group (*on/at/in*), we expect many substitution errors involving the other two prepositions. To check whether this expectation is confirmed, I analyzed the errors that the participants made with respect to the type of errors and possible incorrect prepositions used.

Table 2 lists the types of errors into which the students' errors may be classified. These are: substitution and omission. As the data in the table shows, omission (53,52%) is the most frequent type of error in the usage of preposition, followed by substitution (46,48%), while no errors involve addition of an unnecessary preposition. However, this may be due to the fact that, due to the focus of the study, most of the sentences that students were requested to translate required a

preposition, so there were no occasions in which an unneeded preposition could be added. [8]

Table 2: *Types of errors in the usage of all prepositions*

Variables	Number of Errors	Percentage (%)
Substitution	112	46,48%
Omission	129	53,52%
Total	241	100

Table 3 shows that a great majority of substitution and omission errors were made in the group of many-to-one correspondence prepositions, while fewer errors were recorded in one-to-one correspondence prepositions. This means the proneness of students to make a particular kind of an error (substitution *versus* omission) cannot be reduced to the type of the preposition involved. Rather, it seems that many-to-one correspondence prepositions are more susceptible to all errors.

[8] There actually were addition type errors in the data. All these addition type errors involve the addition of the preposition *to*, which is equivalent to Turkish dative case marker *–a*. Sentences in (1) and (2) below are the Turkish sentences that students were asked to translate into English. Translations in which students incorrectly added the preposition *to* are shown in these items marked with *. In (1), the expected preposition was *–dA*, the locative case marker, and in (2), students were expected to provide the English preposition which would correspond to *–dAn*, the ablative case marker. The students also incorrectly added *to* as a translation of the dative in Turkish. However, since in this situation the dative marker *–a* has no corresponding exponent in English, and therefore the situation fits neither one-to-one nor many-to-one correspondence situation, these errors were not included in the analysis.

(1) Noel'*de* eve gidiyor musun?

Christmas/LOC. Home/DAT Go/Cont./2nd Sing.

'Are you going home on Christmas?'

*Are you going <u>to</u> home on Christmas? (N of incorrect usage: 13)

(2) İstasyon-*dan* eve yürüdü.

Station/ABL. Home/DAT. Walk/Past

'He walked home from the station.'

*He walked to home from the station. (N of inccorect usage: 14)

Table 3: *Types of errors in many-to-one and one-to-one correspondence prepositions*

Variables	N. of Sentences	Substitution		Omission	
Many-to-one prep.	450	105	93.74%	118	91.47%
One-to-one prep.	300	7	6.26%	11	8.53%
Total	750	112	100%	129	100%

One characteristic of the many-to-one prepositions (*on/in/at*) is that they all correspond to a case marker *-dA* in Turkish. Therefore, it is possible that the high frequency of errors in these prepositions is not due to the fact that the correspondence between L2 and L1 is many-to-one, but to the fact that in L1, the exponent of the relevant concept is morphologically a case-marker, while in L2 it is a preposition. Since the meaning contributed by the case marker in Turkish is integrated into the meaning of the word to which it attaches, it could be speculated that students omitted the corresponding preposition (*in/at/on*) because, governed by their L1 grammar, they "thought" that providing the phrase which would be the complement of the preposition should semantically be sufficient. In order to eliminate this possibility, the number of errors in the prepositions corresponding to *–dA* (*on/in/at*) was compared to the number of errors in the preposition *to*, which corresponds in a one-to-one manner to the Turkish dative case marker *–a*, and *from*, which corresponds to Turkish case marker *–dAn* in a one-to-one manner. The results show that out of 50 answers collected for the usage of the prepositions that correspond to the case markers *–a* and *–dAn*, just 6 errors were recorded in the translation task (12%). However, the number of errors recorded for the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions is much higher (49,5%). This lands support to the claim that the errors in made in the usage of *in, at, on* are related to the semantic overlap in the L1 and they are not due to the morphological status in L1.

Finally, in the many-to-one prepositions (*in/at/on*), the prediction is that, if students make an error and use an incorrect preposition, this preposition would be

one of the other two which correspond to the same locative case marker *–dA* in Turkish. The results in Tables 4, 5, and 6 show that this prediction is borne out. Table 4 shows that when students failed to use the required preposition *in*, they used either *on* or *at* to an approximately same extent.

Table 4: *Prepositions substituted for in.*

Substituted Prep.	**At**		**On**		**Total**
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	
Substitution	17	48.57	18	51.43	35

As Table 5 shows, the preposition that was mostly substituted for *on* was *in* (68.75%), followed by *at* (21.87%). A total of approximately 10% of errors involve a usage of a different preposition (*of* and *to*).

Table 5: *Prepositions substituted for on.*

Substituted Prep.	**At**		**In**		**Of**		**To**		
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**Total**
Substitution	7	21.87	22	68.76	1	3.12	2	6.25	32

Finally, when the preposition *at* was required, but not provided, the preposition *in* was substituted for it almost 90% of the time. The remaining 10% of the errors involve prepositions *on, to,* and *for*.

Table 6: *Prepositions substituted for at*

Substituted Prep.	**In**		**On**		**To**		**For**		
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**Total**
Substitution	34	89.47	2	5.27	1	2.63	1	2.63	38

3.4.2. Many-to-one correspondence prepositions, *At, In, On:* Specific Analysis

Figure 1 shows correct and incorrect usages of each of the many-to-one correspondence prepositions. Errors are made most frequently in the usage of *at* while students use *in* more correctly than the other two prepositions. However, as it can be observed from the figure, the percentages are very similar to each other so no clear generalization can be made.

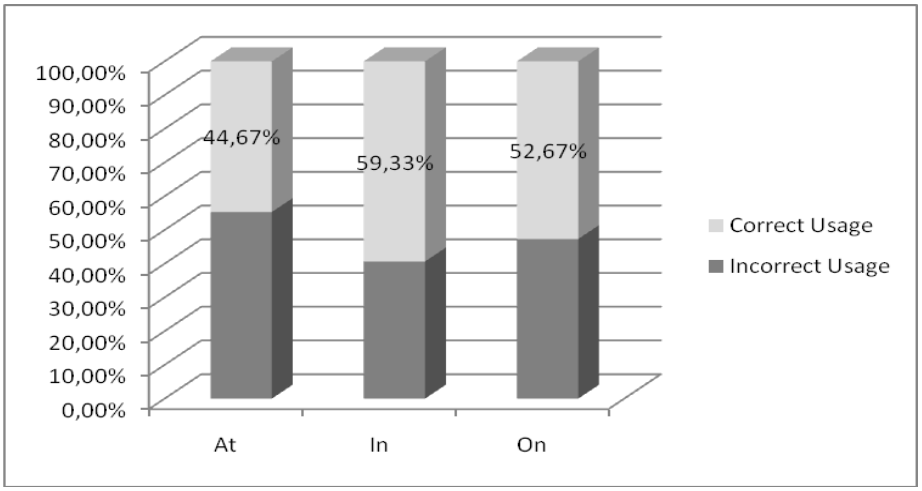

Figure 1: Correct and incorrect usages of *at, in,* and *on*

Some sentences in the translation task related to the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions need to be individually discussed. For instance, although students were expected to make errors in the usage of *at, in,* and *on*, they hardly made errors while translating the items (24), (25) and (26) in the translation task into English. In the item (24), students made no errors. There were only three errors in the usage of *at* in the item (25) and three errors in the usage of *in* in the item (26). This may be due to the fact that expressions such as *on time*, *at + specific hour and in+ city* are memorized in chunks. These are structures which students frequently come across in the grammar books or are taught from the very beginning of English language teaching. Therefore, with much exposure to the

language and proper teaching strategies, students can overcome the problem of language interference and converge on the grammar of L2.

24) Toplantı-y-a zaman-ın -da gel -meli -sin.
Meeting/DAT. Time/GEN./LOC. Come/should/2nd SING.
'You should come to the meeting on time.'

25) Saat 7'-de görüş-ebilir -iz.
Time 7/LOC. Meet/ability/1stSING.
'We can meet at 7 o'clock.'

26) Hakan Afyon' da yaş ıyor.
Hakan Afyon/LOC. Live/CONT./3rd SING.
'Hakan lives in Afyon.'

Another aspect that might prove significant in the discussion of errors in many-to-one prepositions is the semantic concept that the prepositions mark. The three relevant prepositions are used to express relations both in time and in space. To check whether it might be the case that the students actually have problems with the expressions that refer to time or the expressions that refer to space, I compared the errors in the usage of each preposition in both concepts. Table 7 shows that in fact, for each preposition, students made approximately the same number of errors in the expressions of time and the expressions of space. Therefore, the problem does not seem to lie in a particular concept expressed by the prepositions.

Table 7: *Number of errors in the usage of "at, in, on" in the usage of time and place*

Variables	**N.of Sentences**	**Many-to-one prepositions**					
		At		In		On	
Place	75	31	50.81%	44	55.69%	41	49.39%
Time	75	30	49.18%	35	44.30%	42	50.60%
Total	150	61	100%	79	100%	83	100%

3.4.3. One-to-One Correspondence Prepositions: Specific Analysis

Students did better in the usage of one-to-one correspondence prepositions than in the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions. However, there are two interesting examples of errors in one-to-one correspondence prepositions, which can also be an indicator of L1 interference. The relevant items are shown in (27) and (28). Students were expected to translate these sentences into English using the prepositions *since* and *after*. However, two students produced the sentences in (27) and (28), in which they added an unnecessary preposition in order to translate verbatim both the postposition *sonra* and *beri* and case markers *-dAn*.

27) Okul-*dan* sonra görüşebiliriz.
School/ABL. After meet/can/3rd Plural
'We can meet after school.'
*We can meet from after school.

28) 1990'*dan* beri burada yaşıyoruz.
1990/ABL. Since here/LOC. Live/Cont./3rd Plural
'We have lived here since 1990.'
*We have lived here from since 1990.

As it can be recalled from the Table 3, there were also 11 omission errors recorded for the usage of one-to-one correspondence prepositions. No clear generalizations can be made from the errors collected. Still, two of the errors are provided (See the items (29) and (30)) as the examples of omission kind of errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence errors.

29) Sen-in hakkın-da konuş-uyor.
You-GEN. About-LOC. Talk-Cont.3rdSing.
'He is talking about you.'
*He is talking you.

30) Çocuklar-ın önün-de tartış-ma-yalım.
Children-GEN. Front-LOC. Discuss-Neg.Shall.3rdPlu.
'Let's not discuss in front of children.'
*Let's not discuss because of children.

3.5. Discussion

When we examine the results with respect to my hypothesis that test items which involve a many-to-one correspondence are more problematic for learners than items which involve a one-to-one correspondence, we get a lot of evidence that is consistent with it. In accordance with my hypothesis, students made more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions (*at, in, on*) than in one-to-one correspondence prepositions. This indicates that, at least in the non-advanced stages of L2 acquisition, learners adopt the grammar that they already have, the steady state grammar of the mother tongue.

When it comes to the discussion of the types of errors, it can be stated that the results are contradicting the literature. Many studies which examined the type of errors in the usage of prepositions argued that substitution type was the most frequent among the three (Jimenez, 1996; Tahaineh, 2010; Ahmad, 2011). Although in all research studies mentioned, students made substitution errors most, in the present study both substitution and omission types of errors were made to approximately the same extent, with learners actually making omission errors more. The difference may stem from the L1 that learners have. Jimenez (1996) studied Spanish learners; Ahmad (2010) worked on students with Pakistani L1 and Tahaineh (2011) with Arabic EFL students. As these languages and Turkish have different adposition systems, L1 interference may show itself in different ways.

Moreover, recall that we found no significant difference in the errors made when the problematic prepositions were used to express time or place. These results

contradict Habash (1982) and Ahmad (2010). In her study, Habash found out that Arabic students made a lot of errors in the use of prepositions to express place (52%) whereas they made only 19% errors in the use of prepositions to express time. On the contrary, Ahmad (2010) found out that students made more errors in the usage of prepositions to express time. The present research contradicts the results of both of these studies since no difference was found between prepositional errors to express time and place in terms of percentages of errors recorded. In order to investigate this issue further, it would be interesting to see in what kind of L1-L2 correspondence the prepositions examined in Habash (1982) and Ahmad (2010) stand, to check whether it might be the case that in the relevant languages (Arabic and Pakistani), the prepositions that are found to be more problematic have a many-to-one correspondence to English, while the less problematic ones map onto the relevant prepositions in English in a one-to-one manner.

As Tables 4, 5 and 6 illustrate, students either omit the prepositions *at, in, on* or substitute them for each other. There are very few instances of other prepositions which are substituted for *at, in, on*. It is plausible that this is because all of these prepositions map onto only one marker in Turkish, so students cannot decide on the correct preposition. Thus, it can be concluded that L1 is responsible for the errors that students made in the usage of *at, in, on*. We can also conclude that second language learners appear to accumulate structural entities of the target language but demonstrate difficulty in organizing this knowledge into more appropriate coherent structure (Bhela, 1999). Therefore, we can conclude that when students cannot retrieve the correct preposition, they mostly omit or substitute it with other prepositions which also express location/time. It can also be argued that when a number of English prepositions have a single equivalent in Turkish, then speakers of Turkish tend to use the English prepositions interchangeably due to their native language interference and this results in errors in many contexts.

Further support to the claim that errors in many-to-one correspondence items stem from L1 transfer comes from cases where students added the unnecessary preposition *from* to give the meaning of ablative case marker *-dAn* in the translations of *–dAn beri* 'since' and *–dan sonra* 'after'. These examples show clearly that participants refer to their knowledge in L1 and produce ungrammatical sentences. Overall, it can be claimed that as students are at the beginning of the English acquisition: the initial state, they transfer the grammar of L1 onto L2. When we examine the results of this study, this transfer (L1 interference) shows itself in various ways. On the one hand, it can be overgeneralization of L1 to L2 as in the examples in which students add unnecessary prepositions such as *from since* for *–den beri* and *after from* for *–dAn sonra.* On the other hand, it can illustrate itself in the way of avoidance as in the examples of omission of the preposition *at, in, on*. Moreover, it seems that collocational competence can influence EFL learners' overall language ability as stated in the example of "on time". Bahns and Eldaw (1993) argue that a part of EFL teaching should be based on ready-made chunks (collocations) which enhance accuracy as well as proficiency of the EFL learners. Language instruction, therefore, should focus on collocations, and the way they are pieced together, along with the way they vary and the situations in which they are used.

The general results can be summarized as follows: the main problem of the acquisition of prepositions stems from different representations across different languages. In particular, a major source of errors seems to be a situation in which a single grammatical concept in L1 corresponds to multiple grammatical concepts in L2. Such a situation seems to be especially problematic since learners are not certain which of the multiple possible corresponding items in L2 they should use. This seems to be independent of the fact that information that is signalled by a preposition in English is signalled by an inflection on a noun in a highly inflected language like Turkish (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

CHAPTER 4

Phenomenon 2: Interference of the nominalizing suffix *–dIk* with the use of Present Simple and Past Simple in embedded clauses

4.1. Introduction

As it is well-known, Turkish makes intensive use of nominalizations in subordination. Although Turkish has a wide range of suffixes which derive nouns from verbs, only a handful of them form verbal nouns which function as predicates in complement clauses. Turkish does not have an overt tense marker on the embedded verb in noun clauses. Instead, a subordinating suffix attaches to the bare verb. By contrast, there is an overt tense marker on the embedded verb in English embedded clauses.

In English, there are several types of subordinate clauses, which are shown in Table 8 (Parrott, 2000). For the purposes of this study, only noun clauses are focused on.

Table 8: *Types of subordinate clauses in English*

Type of Subordinate Clause	**Examples**
Finite adverbial clauses	They left <u>when we arrived.</u>
Noun clauses	I believe <u>(that) he is coming tomorrow.</u>
Relative clauses	They gave me a book <u>which I read in one sitting</u>.
Non-finite clauses	They found an old man <u>walking around in the dark</u>.
Defining clauses	Mary is the girl <u>(who is) talking to the old woman</u>.
Non-defining clauses	I found the solution, <u>which made me feel much happier</u>.

English has a rather elaborate rule of the sequence of tenses, directing the tense in the embedded clause to shift further into the past (without the reflex of the change in the semantics of the clause) in accordance with the tense of the matrix predicate. However, importantly for our purposes, if the matrix predicate is in the present or future tense, the verb in the subordinate clause may be in any tense, depending upon the sense to be expressed (see examples (31), (32), (33)).

31) He says that he is fine.

32)He says that he was fine.

33)He says that he will be fine.

The difference between English and Turkish with respect to noun clause formation is that English uses a *that* clause, *whether/if*, or *wh*- word to form two grammatically correct and complete sentences, while Turkish attaches one of five different subordinating suffixes to the embedded verb to combine the noun clause with the main clause. These subordinating suffixes are: *-mA, -mAk, -dIk, -AcAk* and *-Iş.* Out of the subordinating suffixes, the suffix *-dIk* usually expresses present or past time. It refers to a time simultaneous with or earlier than that referred to by the superordinate predicate (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005). Similarly *-AcAk* is also a subordinating suffix which indicates future time and it refers to a time later than that referred to by the superordinate predicate.

Suffixes *-dIk* and *–AcAk* alternate with each other on the basis of tense component of their meanings: *-dIk* gives rise to an ambiguity with respect to the tense of the embedded clause, as in (34) while *–AcAk* always corresponds to a tense which is future relative to the tense of the main predicate as in the example (35). As stated above, it may express time which is either simultaneous or earlier than the time of the main verb.

34) Orhan'ın birşey yapma**dığı** belli.
Orhan-Gen anything do-Neg-Sub. -3rd Sing. POSS clear.
'It is obvious that Orhan does not do /did not do aything.'

35) Orhan'ın birşey yapmayacağı belli.
Orhan-GEN anything do-Neg-Fut.-3rd Sing.POSS. clear.
'It is obvious that Orhan will not do anything'[9]

According to Taylan (1988), "time adverbials are the only ways for Turkish speakers to decide the specific time reference of an embedded verb including subordinating suffix *-dIk*." (pg. 186) If an embedded clause does not have a time adverbial, then ambiguity occurs.

Given this property of clauses featuring *–dIk*, here we have another situation of many-to-one correspondence of structures in L2 and L1: two different tenses in English map onto a single exponent of tense (or perhaps absence of tense) in Turkish. Therefore, this chapter examines the extent to which L1 interference of the subordinating suffix *-dIk* in embedded clauses (which corresponds to two distinct forms in English, namely Present Simple and Past Simple) accounts for the errors made in the usage of these tenses in English by intermediate level Turkish high school learners. To this end, I analyzed students' errors in the use of tense and aspect which map in a one-to-one manner from L2 to L1 and compared them to those which stand in a many-to-one correspondence. The data were collected through a the-fill-in-the-blanks task and think-aloud protocols. Based on L1 interference theory, the hypothesis formed about students' errors is the following:

36) **Hypothesis 2 (Experiment 2: Embedded clauses):**

Since both Present Simple and Past Simple tense in embedded clauses in English are expressed by a single subordinating suffix *-dIk* in Turkish, Turkish learners of English will make more errors in the usage of Past Simple and Present Simple in English embedded clauses compared to the number of errors in the use of future

[9] The examples (34) and (35) are taken from Göksel and Kerslake (2005).

tense marker *will* in the same environment because the latter corresponds to Turkish subordinating suffix *-AcAk i*n a one-to-one manner.

The chapter presents findings which support the claim that L1 interference plays an important role in the errors that students make in the usage of the English Present Simple and Past Simple tenses in embedded clauses due to the fact that in the relevant context, they correspond to one single element in their native language. However, the number of errors decreases considerably with the insertion of time adverbials into the embedded clauses.

4.2. Methodology

4.2.1. Participants:

The participants were twenty intermediate students at the age of seventeen/eighteen studying English in the twelfth grade foreign language class in an Anatolian high school in the Education-Training Year 2012-2013. Students' proficiency levels were tested through Oxford Placement Test before the administration of the data collection tools. Defining students' proficiency as intermediate enabled the researcher to claim that the participants were proficient enough to know where to use Present and Past Simple tenses and any deviation which occurs in the usage of these tenses should not be due to the participants' lack of grammatical knowledge but should be ascribed to different factors.

Students had six hours of English per week. The curriculum consisted of a main course which included all the language skills together with the grammar and the vocabulary in a communicative way. Students came from similar socio-economic backgrounds within a small town in Turkey.

4.2.2. Data Collection Tools

In order to test our hypothesis, two different data collection tools were used: a fill-in-the-blanks task and a think-aloud protocol. The tools were prepared by consulting the textbooks and grammar books designed for the teaching purposes. The aim of using a think aloud protocol was to see the strategies that students use while translating sentences from Turkish into English and whether the usage of subordinating *–dIk* confuses the learners.

4.2.2.1 Fill-in-the-blanks-task

This task included thirty English sentences, each containing an embedded clause. Each embedded clause contained a blank; ten of those sentences required the usage of Present Simple, ten sentences Past Simple, and ten sentences Future Simple tense in the embedded clause (Appendix B). The tenses which students were expected to use were specifically defined in the instruction part of the data collection tool. By defining the required tenses in the instructions, I tried to avoid the possibility of their using any other tense such as *be going to* or perfect tenses. Based on a context defined by the researcher, students were required to choose the correct tense. In order to avoid the interference of the sequence of tenses rules, all the main predicates in the task were in the Present Simple tense.

The data gathered through "fill-in-the-blanks task" enabled the researcher to tell how well the participants grasped the difference between the Present Simple and Past Simple tenses in embedded clauses and whether any influence of the Turkish *–dIk* can be detected. The future tense marker was used as a control element because it corresponds in a one-to-one manner to the Turkish future tense suffix -*AcAk*, in both matrix and embedded clauses.

To evaluate the appropriateness of sentences and also to verify that each blank required only one tense, a piloting was administered (See section 4.2.3).

4.2.2.2 Think Aloud Protocols

Besides the fill-in-the-blanks-task, think-aloud protocols were also used in this part of the study. Ten students out of twenty were randomly chosen for this task. Six Turkish sentences including an embedded clause were prepared. Two of the six sentences required future tense, two sentences required Present Simple tense, and the remaining two required the usage of Past Simple tense in the embedded clause (Appendix C). Students were asked individually to translate the sentences into English in the presence of the researcher. The participants were asked to comment on which structure they preferred in order to translate the sentences and what affected their choices. This was done in Turkish to make students express their thoughts and feelings more comfortably and to make them less anxious. All the protocols were recorded, transcribed, and translated into English by the researcher. These data were gathered in order to enable the researcher to arrive at more confident conclusions about whether the relevant errors were done because of the interference of Turkish on the acquisition of English.

4.2.3. Piloting and Administration Procedures

As students were of intermediate proficiency level in English, they were thought to be familiar with the tenses required in the task. Therefore, no pre-teaching was made on these tenses.

In order to evaluate the understandability of the task, a pilot study was conducted. Three English language learners were asked to complete the fill-in-the-blanks task and state whether there were any misunderstandings in the instrument. A similar procedure was followed in the piloting of think aloud protocols. Required changes were made for the sentences in which more than one tense could be used or which were ambiguous regardless of the tense. Moreover, two English teachers and an expert in English language teaching were also asked to go through the task for correctness purposes.

In the process of task administration, participants were given as much time as they needed to ensure that all the answers were attempted.

4.2.4. Data Analysis

After the administration, all the data were collected and analyzed. In the fill in the blanks task, whether students made errors in the usage of Present Simple and Past Simple tenses was examined and the errors students made were counted. Besides, students' errors made in the usage of the Future Simple tense were examined and the number of errors was also determined. The number of errors was examined in order to arrive at the frequency of these errors. Furthermore, through SPSS 20, paired samples t-test was calculated to see if there was a significant difference between the number of errors made in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses (Future Simple, which corresponds to the suffix *–AcAk* in Turkish) and many-to-one correspondence tenses (Past Simple and Present Simple, which both correspond to the subordinating suffix *-dIk* in Turkish). Moreover, I also classified the tenses which were substituted for the required tenses in order to detect any trends in the students' preferences.

Ten randomly chosen students were interviewed in order to translate the six sentences in think-aloud protocols after the analysis of the data collection task. Each student's sentences were analyzed in order to see which tense was preferred in the translation of subordinating suffix *–dIk* and what made the students use that particular structure.

I expected students to make numerous errors in the differentiation of Present Simple and Past Simple tenses in embedded clauses in the-fill-in-the-blank task and to make considerably fewer errors in the usage of the future tense marker *will.* In order to validate the hypothesis, this was required. All other results (which do not meet the expectation stated above) would disconfirm the hypothesis and L1 interference could not be suggested as the source of the students' errors.

4.3. Results

This part of the chapter presents the results of the use of the English Present Simple and Past Simple tenses in embedded clauses by Turkish intermediate L2 learners. Recall that in embedded clauses, tenses that in English are expressed by Present Simple and Past Simple map onto a single subordinating *–dIk* form in Turkish. On the other hand, if an embedded clause in English contains Future Simple tense, this tense maps in a one-to-one manner onto the Turkish suffix *–AcAk*. My hypothesis was that students would make more mistakes in the former situation (many-to-one correspondence situation, the 'split') than in the latter one (one-to-one correspondence situation). The findings are analyzed under two main categories: the results of the fill in the blanks task and the results of the think-aloud protocol.

The first result of the fill in the blanks task comprises the comparison of the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses (Present and Past Simple) with the usage of the one-to-one correspondence tense (Future Simple). This result is followed by the analysis of the sentences requiring each of the three tenses individually: Present Simple, Past Simple, and Future Simple. In each part, I present first the quantitative results, which show the percentage of correct usage of each tense. The quantitative results are followed by a discussion of the contexts in which each particular tense was (mis)used.

After the presentation of the results of fill in the blanks task, the results of the think aloud protocols are presented through the presentation of the student responses in the process of translation.

4.3.1. Results of the fill in the blanks task

Before going into the details of the results, it may be recalled from the section (4.2.2.1) that the fill-in-the-blanks-task included thirty blanks and each ten required the usage of a specific tense, namely Present Simple, Past Simple and Future Simple. However, after the preliminary analysis of the data, it was

observed that the data collection tool included sentences that were ambiguous in terms of the tense required. For instance, some items which the researcher intended to require the usage of Present Simple tense could also be possible with the usage of Past Simple tense. Similar problems also occurred in the usage some other items which can be used with both Past Simple and Future Tense. The eight problematic items were excluded from the main analysis and were analysed separately. The results of these items are presented separately, at the end of this section.

The results provided in this section thus include the analysis of twenty two items used in the fill in the blanks task. Out of twenty two, five sentences required the usage of Present Simple; seven items required the usage of Past Simple and the remaining ten sentences required the usage of Future Simple *will* in the blanks provided.

As can be observed from Table 9, in embedded clauses, students mainly made errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses; namely, Present Simple and Past Simple. The number of errors in many-to-one correspondence tenses (28,75%) was about twice as many as in one-to-one correspondence tense (12%).

Table 9: *Percentage of errors in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence tenses*

	One-to-one correspondence		**Many-to-one correspondence**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	24	12%	69	28,75%
Total Correct Answers	176	88%	171	71,25%
In Total	200	100%	240	100%

The mean amount of errors in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence tenses were compared by a paired samples t-test. The results show that the participants made significantly more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses

(Past Simple and Present Simple) than they did in the usage of the one-to-one correspondence tense (Future Simple) (t (19)= -6,957; p = .000)

Table 10 shows the number of errors for each individual tense. Out of 440 sentences, 347 correct answers and 93 errors were recorded. This table illustrates that the number of errors recorded for the usage of Past Simple and Present Simple are quite similar to each other (29,28% and 28% respectively). By contrast, students made fewer errors in the usage of the Future Simple tense (12%).

Table 10: *The number of errors in the usage of each tense in the fill in the blanks task*

	Past Simple T.	**Present Simple T.**	**Future Simple T.**
Number of errors for Each Tense	41 /140	28/100	24/200
Percentages for errors for each tense	29,28%	28%	12%
STD. of errors in each tense	1.2763	0.7539	0.8335

4.3.1.1. The analysis of errors made in the usage of Present Simple tense

In this part, I am interested in finding out which tense was substituted for the Present Simple, whenever the latter was not used (even though the context required it). This is important to analyze because if the hypothesis is correct, the substituted tense is expected to be Past Simple, given that the two both map onto –*dIk* in Turkish. The results are shown in Table 11. It can be seen that in all of the errors made, Past Simple was substituted instead of Present Simple. All of the errors were made in five sentences. The most problematic ones are illustrated below in items (37) and (38). Nine errors were recorded in the item (37) whereas twelve errors were recorded in the item (38). The common feature of these two

sentences is the lack of a specific time adverbial associated with the usage of the Present Simple. Therefore, it can be claimed that when there is no specific temporal information showing them which tense to use, students confuse Past Simple and Present Simple tense. This can in turn be related to L1 interference of subordinating suffix *–dIk* with the acquisition of these many-to-one correspondence tenses.

Table 11: *Tenses substituted for the Present Simple tense in the errors made*

For Present Simple T.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Past Simple	28	100%
Total N. Errors	28	100%

37) She does not believe that all people ..... (have) a cruel side to their character.

38) It is common knowledge that oil .....(float) on water.

4.3.1.2.The analysis of errors made in the usage of Past Simple tense

This part addresses the errors made in the sentences that required Past Simple tense. Out of 140 sentences, 41 errors and 99 correct answers were recorded. As shown by Table 12, students mainly substituted Past Simple tense with the Present Simple tense (70,74%). However, unlike in the case of Present Simple, the participants also substituted Future Simple and Past Perfect tenses for Past Simple in the errors made. Interestingly, in two sentences, students used Past Perfect instead of Past Simple although Past Perfect was not option stated in the instruction of the fill-the-blanks-task.

Table 12: *Tenses substituted for the Past Simple tense in the errors made*

For Past Simple T.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Present Simple	29	70,74%
Future (will)	10	24,39%
Past Perfect	2	4,87
Total N. Errors	41	100

In order to understand the context in which errors occurred, just the most problematic sentences are illustrated below in items (39), (40), (41) and (42). The items (39) and (40) are interesting to consider because they include factive verbs which lead to the interference that the proposition expressed in the embedded clause is true, i.e. that the action is completed. This should require the usage of the Past Tense. However, students apparently were not always able to make this inference in just these four items since in twenty of the errors recorded; Present Simple was substituted for Past Simple tense. Also, neither of these items includes a time adverbial.

39)He keeps forgetting that he ..... (borrow) my umbrella.

40)He regrets that he .....(steal) her mother's necklace.

The item (41) is also interesting to analyze because although it requires the usage of Past Simple tense, seven students used Future Simple tense. Again, the similarity between this item and the items given in (39)and (40) is the lack of a time adverbial which would specifically show the students which tense to use.

41)He keeps denying that he ..... (crash) that car.

Differently from the items examined above, in item (42), seven errors were recorded and although the sentence contains a time adverbial referring to the Past Tense *last night*, students preferred Present Simple.

42) He is sure that last night his daughter ..... (take) the car without his permission.

From the analysis of the sentences, it can be concluded that students mainly substitute Present Simple for Past Simple when they cannot retrieve the correct tense.

4.3.1.3.The analysis of errors made in the usage of Future Simple tense

When we compare the number of errors made in the usage of Future Simple with many-to-one correspondence tenses, it can be observed that fewer errors were recorded with the former than with the latter (See Table 13). Although the number of errors made in the usage of Future tense is low (n: 24) when compared with the errors made in Past Simple and Present Simple tenses (n: 69), it is interesting to examine which tenses were preferred instead of it. Table 13 illustrates that for 21 of the errors made (87,5%), Present Simple tense was substituted for the Future tense, whereas only 8,34% of the time Past Simple was used. In one of the errors, a student used a modal *can* instead of future tense marker *will* although it was not an option stated in the fill-in-the-blanks-task instruction.

Table 13: *Tenses substituted for Future Simple tense (will) in the errors made*

For Future Simple T.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Present simple	21	87,5%
Past simple	2	8,34
Modals (can)	1	4,16%
Total N. Errors	24	100

The most problematic items are listed below. The items given in (43) and (44) are the ones which do not include any time adverbials referring to future, but they have a clear reference to future in terms of meaning. Six errors were recorded in the usage of item (43) and four errors were made in the usage of item (44).

Students used Present Simple tense instead of Future tense marker *will* in these sentences.

43) Have you seen the weather forecast? They say it ..... (snow)! Can you believe it?

44) This box is too heavy for you! I ..... (help) you.

4.3.1.4. The analysis of the time adverbial usage in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence errors

Although time adverbial usage is not a controlled variable in this study, the number of errors made in the usage of sentences with and without time adverbial usage is examined in this part of the study for completeness purposes, since the absence of an adverbial was seen as a recurring problem in most of the errors collected. From Section 4.3.1, (Table 9), it can be observed that the manner in which an exponent of a particular tense in a particular context in L2 corresponds to the relevant exponent in L1 (one-to-one/many-to-one) is an important factor in the number of errors made in the usage of different tenses. But, I also compared the number of errors made in the usage of sentences with and without time adverbials both in the one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence sentences since time adverbial usage is also an important aspect to examine. As it can be observed from the t-test results, students made significantly more errors in sentences without a time adverbial than they did in sentences with a time adverbial. This is true both for sentences that required a one-to-one correspondence tense (Future Simple) (t (19) = -3,249; p=, 004) and for sentences that required many-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Simple and Past Simple) (t (19) = -6,525; p = .000).

The results are in line with Taylan's (1988) hypothesis according to which the usage of *–dIk* has ambiguity in itself and the usage of time adverbials disambiguate the tense confusion. Therefore, we expect the time adverbials to help students in English as well. It could be that when a student sees a time

adverbial, it is more likely that s/he will draw on the consciously learned knowledge of the English tense system. S/he is likely to draw on the knowledge which involves cognitive systems other than the purely linguistic one. Assuming that L1 transfer involves precisely the misuse of the linguistic faculty of the mind, we are not surprised that the usage of time adverbials both in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence tenses decreases the interference of *–dIk* and facilitates the retrieval of the correct tense.

4.3.1.5.The analysis of the sentences excluded from the study in the fill-in-the-blanks-task

As it was stated at the very beginning of the results section, eight sentences were excluded from the analysis of the fill-in-the-blanks-task as those sentences allow the usage of at least two different tenses. However, students' preferences in these sentences also give us insight into the processes that students go through when choosing an appropriate tense. This is why I decided to analyse these results as well.

For the items (45) to (52), since both Past Simple and Present Simple tenses are possible, the items were analyzed according to the usage of time adverbials.

The items (45) to (48) include a time adverbial usually associated with Present Simple such as *every day*, *every weekend*, *very often* and *once a year*. Therefore, we expect Present Simple to be used in these items and this expectation came true. For the 80 sentences recorded for the usage of these items, Present Simple (76,75%) was preferred over Past Simple (23,25%). These results are compatible with the results of fill-in-the-blanks task in terms of the impact of time adverbials usage in finding the correct tense.

Contrary to items above, the item (50) includes a factive verb which shows the proposition used must be completed; therefore we can expect it to be used with Past Simple and the item (49) involves a reference to generality; thus we can expect it to be used with Present Simple tense. However, for the item (50), Present

Simple (60%) was substituted for Past Simple (40%). For the item (49), 45% of the time Present Simple was preferred. Still, we can conclude that lack of specific time adverbial usage showing which tense to use results in errors and L1 interference comes through in a clearer way.

45) Betty is such a good student. She understands that she..... (need) to study every day to pass her exams.

46) John seems to be such a cultured person. I think that he..... (go) abroad very often.

47) We know that Bob ..... (go) running every weekend. That's why he is such a good runner.

48) Apparently, Helen knows Antalya very well. She says that she ..... (drive) there once a year.

49) It is generally known that people ..... (prefer) colourful furniture.

50) He has to confess that he..... (lose) his key.

The item (51) was excluded from the study as it allows both Past Simple and Future Simple tenses for the blank provided. 80% of the time, Past Simple was preferred by twenty students.

51) They want him to admit that he ..... (kill) his neighbour.

Different from the items explained above, the item (52) was excluded from the study as the matrix verb is used in Past Simple. As the matrix verb is used in Past Simple, then tense sequence comes into consideration which affects the choice of the tense.

52) They announced that the storm ..... (cause) a lot of damage to the crops last night.

4.3.2. The results of the think-aloud protocols[10]

In this part of the study I present the results of think-aloud protocols in order to see whether and to what extent the subordinating suffix *-dIk* interferes with the acquisition of Past Simple and Present simple usage in embedded clauses in English. In order to investigate this, six sentences in Turkish were prepared and ten randomly chosen students from the group who participated in the fill-in-the-blanks study were asked to translate these sentences into English in the presence of the researcher. The students were asked to think aloud as they are translating Turkish sentences and report the processes through which they are going in the course of translation.

Of the six sentences, two sentences required the usage of Present Simple, two required the usage of Past Simple and the remaining two required the usage of Future tense in embedded clauses. Of each two, one sentence includes a time adverbial which refers to a specific tense namely, Present Simple, Past Simple and Future Simple and one does not include any time adverbial.

Table 14: *The analysis of think-aloud protocols for embedded clauses*

	Many-to-one Correspondence S.		**One-to-one Correspondence S.**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	14	35%	0	0%
Total Correct Answers	26	65%	20	100%
In Total	40	100%	20	100

[10] Before we turn to the discussion of the actual sentences, it has to be stated that there were many errors made in terms of other aspects of language, such as word choice, usage of pronouns, sentence structure, and spelling. However, these errors are ignored here because they are not in the scope of this study.

Table 14 above summarizes that, just like in the fill-in-the-blanks task, students made more mistakes in the many-to-one correspondence tenses than in one-to-one correspondence tense. However, this table does not illustrate in which tense more errors were collected; thus, Table 15 is provided below. It was observed that most of the errors occurred in the usage of Present Simple (85,7%) whereas fewer errors were recorded for the usage of Past Simple (17,3%). As we cannot conclude the reason of the number of errors from this table, further analysis of the context in which the errors occurred and the processes the students went through in the translation were examined.

Table 15: *Errors made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses*

	Present Simple		**Past Simple**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	12	60%	2	10%
Total Correct Answers	8	40%	18	90%
In Total	20	100%	20	100

The sentences which require the usage of Past Simple in embedded clauses are given in the items (53) and (54).

For the translation of the item (53), no errors were recorded in terms of tense preference of the embedded clause. All students translated the embedded clause using the Past Simple tense. Similarly, the explanation of their translation was also in accordance with the structure used. Some participants' responses about their thoughts in the process of translation are given below.

53) Dün kimi ziyaret et**tiğ**i beni ilgilendirmez.
Yesterday whom visit.Past.GEN. me concern.Neg.Present.
'Whom he visited yesterday does not concern me.' /
'It does not concern me whom he visited yestearday.'

- (…) *The noun clause 'dün kimi ziyaret ettiği' must be used with Past Tense because of the time adverbial 'dün' and the suffix '–dIk'.*

- *(...)Dün is a time adverbial used for the Past Simple tense; therefore, the tense of the embedded clause must be past simple as well.*

- *(...)The embedded clause includes Past Tense suffix –dI and –k sound is the suffix which combines the main and noun clause. Therefore, we need to use Past Simple with the embedded clause (...)*

Just two errors were made in the translation of the sentence (54) in terms of the tense used. The remaining eight participants used the Past Simple tense in the translation of the embedded clause. Some students' responses were given below for the usage of Past Simple in embedded clause.

54) Kapıyı kimin kilitle**diğ**ini bilmiyorum.
Door.GEN. who.Possessive lock.Past.GEN. know.Neg.Progressive
'I do not know who locked the door.'

- (…) *The event of 'door locking' happened in the past; therefore, we need to use it with Past Simple.*

- *The event happened in the past which is shown with the usage of –dIk Past tense suffix. Thus, we need to translate it into English with Past Simple tense.*

However, the two students who translated the sentence incorrectly (using Present Simple) provided the response below for their usage of Present Simple in their translated sentences.

- *The sentence provided in the embedded clause is general information so I can use with Present Simple tense.*

- *The main verb is used with Present Continuous tense; therefore, in order to have tense sequence we need to use it with Present Simple tense.*

The translation of the embedded clause given in the items (55) and (56) requires the usage of the Present Simple tense. Five errors were recorded in the usage of the item (55) and Past Simple tense was substituted for Present Simple tense in these errors. The responses students gave in the process of translation were grouped into two: the responses of the students who used correct tense namely Present Simple and the responses given by the students who preferred Past Simple.

55) Herkes suyun 100C derecede kayna**dığı**nı
Everbody Water.GEN.100C. Degree.LOC. boil.Present.GEN.
bilir.
Know.Present3rd Sing.
'Everbody knows that water boils at 100C degree.'

Some examples of student responses for the correct usage of Present Simple are provided below.

- *The information given in the embedded clause includes a general truth so it must be used with Present Simple.*
- *The verb of the matrix clause is used in Present Simple. Therefore, the sentence must be translated with Present Simple tense.*
- *The sentence includes a general truth which must be expressed through Present Simple in English translation.*

Examples for the incorrect usage of Past Simple in the translation of the embedded clause are given below.

- *The embedded clause is used with pastness suffix –dI which shows the action happened in the past.*
- *Boiling event must happen in the past which is shown with the usage of Pastness suffix –dI.*

The responses provided in the process of the translation of the item (56) include interesting points. Three translations included the Present Simple tense and were accompanied by the comments given below.

56) Heray nereden alışveriş yap**tığ**ını
Everymonth where.ABL. shopping do.Present.GEN.
biliyorum.
Know.Progr.1 Sing.
'I know where s/he does shopping every month.'

- *The embedded clause includes a time adverbial which is 'her ay' referring to present simple tense; therefore, the embedded clause must be translated using Present Simple tense.*

- *The matrix verb is used with Present Simple tense; therefore, the embedded clause must be used with it as well to have the tense sequence between the two sentences.*

However, seven students used the Past Simple tense in their translations. As the number of errors is quite high, some responses were provided below.

- *The action happened in the past which is shown with the usage of Pastness suffix –dI.*
- *Though the events continued for some time, the usage of Pastness suffix –dI shows it was completed; therefore, we can translate the embedded clause with Past Simple.*
- *The action given in the embedded clause is a completed action and the usage of pastness suffix –dI illustrates it. Therefore, the noun clause must be translated using past tense.*

The analysis of many-to-one correspondence tenses in this part contradicts the results provided in the fill-in-the-blanks-task. While the number of errors recorded for the usage of Past Simple and Present Simple in the fill-in-the-blanks-task were

quite similar, fewer errors in the usage of Past Simple and more errors in the usage of Present Simple were collected in the think-aloud protocols. However, still we can conclude that more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses and fewer errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tense were recorded. Yet, the difference in the number of errors in the usage of Past Simple and Present Simple needs further investigation. The subordinating suffix *–dIk* is ambiguous in terms of its tense. However, given its similarity to the pastness suffix *–dI*, students relate it to Past Simple. It can be said that these results are compatible with what Kural suggests in his 1993 article. Similar to what students proposed in think-aloud-protocols, Kural claims that *–dIk* is in fact a combination of the pastness expressing suffix *–dI* and *–k* as the subordinator. Therefore, although *–dIk* corresponds to both Present Simple and Past Simple tenses, students prefer to use Past Simple since the subordinating suffix *–dIk* resembles the past tense suffix *–dI*. Thus, Past Simple is dominant in the errors made in the usage of Present Simple.

The items (57) and (58) provide the sentences which require the usage of one-to-one correspondence tense (future) in the translation of the embedded clauses as they include *–AcAk* future tense marker. No errors were made in the translation of embedded clauses in terms of tense used. All translations included a future tense (either will or going to) but both were considered to be correct.

57)	Ona	ne	alacağıma	karar veremiyorum
	He.DAT.	what	buy.Future.DAT.	decide can.Neg.Prog.1Sing.

‘I cannot decide what I will buy him.’

Some student responses were provided in order to understand which strategies were applied in the process of translation.

- *The embedded clause includes the future tense marker –Acak which shows that the English version of the sentence should also be used with future tense.*

- *The event will happen in the future, I can understand it from the usage of –AcAk future tense marker so the noun clause must be used with Future tense.*

Similar to the item (57), all translations given for the item (58) were provided with future tense. Some examples of student responses were provided below.

58) Yarın nerede buluşacağımızı bilmiyorum.
Tomorrow where.LOC. Meet.Future.3rdPlural. Know.Neg.1stSing.
'I do not where we will meet tomorrow.'

- *The presence of time adverbial 'yarın' meaning 'tomorrow' and the tense suffix –AcAk show that the noun clause must be translated with future tense.*
- *The matrix verb is used in Present and the noun clause includes a Future tense marker. So we can use the noun clause with Future tense in its English translation.*

Through these results it can be claimed that L1 interference of subordinating suffix *–dIk* is observable in the translation of Turkish embedded clauses. However, recall that the sentences were also grouped in terms of time adverbial usage. In order to see whether the reason of errors can be the lack of time adverbial usage Table 16 is provided.

Table 16: *Errors made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses with and without time adverbials*

	With Time Adverbial		**Without Time Adverbial**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	7	35%	7	35%
Total Correct Answers	13	65%	13	65%
In Total	20	100%	20	100

Contrary to the results of the-fill-in-the-blanks task, the insertion of time adverbials into the sentences does not help students disambiguate the usage of *–dIk* suffix. Although the number of errors with and without time adverbials in the fill-in-the-blanks task are quite different, the number of errors with and without time adverbials in the think-aloud protocols is equal.

4.4. Discussion

This study investigated Turkish learners' use of two sets of English tenses: Present Simple and Past Simple tenses on the one hand and Future Simple on the other. The tenses were chosen based on their equivalences in Turkish: while both Present Simple and Past Simple map onto the same structure in Turkish *–dIk*, Future simple has a separate exponent in L1, *–AcAk*. The aim was to determine whether students make more errors in the former group than in the latter and whether the errors could be reduced to the interference of the Turkish subordinating suffix *–dIk* on English.

So far, we have seen that students made similar number of errors in the usage of Present Simple and Past Simple tenses compared to the errors in the Future Simple tense in embedded clauses. Given this result, it can be stated that the results lend support to the hypothesis which expects students to make more errors in the usage of Present Simple and Past Simple tenses as they correspond to a single element in Turkish and fewer errors in the Future Simple tense as it corresponds to a Turkish structure in a one-to-one manner.

Another aspect which confirms the hypothesis is the examination of the substitution of the correct tenses with the incorrect ones and the criteria behind this choice. When we examine Present Simple tense errors, it can be clearly stated that Past Simple is the main tense which is substituted for the usage of Present Simple. A similar situation can also be observed with the substitution of Past Simple with Present Simple tense in many occasions. This situation can be

explained with the overlap of the Past Simple and Present Simple tenses onto one single argument subordinating suffix *–dIk.* Whatever *–dIk* indicates in Turkish, it is a single suffix that Turkish uses to express both presentness and pastness of the event in the embedded clause. As this is the case, L1 interference may be the source of errors of the confusion for Turkish students.

When we examine Future Simple errors, there were fewer errors recorded when compared to Past Simple and Present Simple tense items. The number of errors is not considerable, which suggests that when the structures have one-to one correspondence in the native and the target language, it become easier to acquire those structures.

Another important observation is that when a time adverbial is present in the sentences, students did better and the percentage of grammatical sentences increased as a result. This finding is also supported by Taylan's hypothesis about the present-past ambiguity in Turkish and that the usage of a time indicator clarifies the tense of the sentence (1988). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that when time adverbials are present, students activate the conscious knowledge of L2, but when it is not, then they access their interlanguage grammar, which seems to be influenced by L1 to a great extent. When they see the time adverbial, they sort of bypass the L1 grammar and access their knowledge of L2 grammar directly. However, in the absence of specific time adverbials, L1 grammar is the major source on which students base their assumptions about which tense to use.

In short, it can be concluded that in Turkish, subordinating suffix *–dIk* is ambiguous if there is no overt time indication. As it may refer to a time which is either earlier than or simultaneous with the time referred to by the superordinate predicate, sentences with Past Simple and Present Simple tenses are only ambiguous in terms of time but not ungrammatical in Turkish. As a result, participants carry their native language rule (present/past reading of embedded verb) into English. When they are unsure about the time of the verb in embedded clauses, they think that they can use Present or Past tense interchangeably for the

tense of the embedded verb. They disregard tense discrimination namely Present Simple and Past simple in English and they come up with tense errors in English. The results also suggest that the participants know that the verbs in embedded clauses in Turkish may contain either Present or Past reading of embedded verb, because Turkish does not have a specific explanation for the tense rule in embedded clauses. Therefore, it can be concluded that as students are at the beginning of the English acquisition: the initial state, they transfer the grammar of L1 onto L2.

CHAPTER 5

Phenomenon 3: "Interference of Past-denoting suffix *–dI* with the use of Present Perfect and Past Simple in Matrix Clauses

5.1. Introduction

This chapter investigates whether the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple in matrix clauses is problematic for Turkish intermediate level learners since they both map onto one single exponent in Turkish which is past-denoting suffix *–dI*.

Perfective verb phrases constitute an area of substantial difficulty in English language students' acquisition of grammar. Among the perfective verb forms, Present Perfect frequently stands out as an interesting part of English grammar that deserves considerable attention in the second language learning of English. Present Perfect is repeatedly confused with other verb forms as it semantically comprises certain features of both the present and the past tenses (Lim, 2007). The acquisition of Present Perfect tense in English is an area in which Turkish students produce errors and which creates problems for both elementary and advanced learners (Richards, 1979). Lim (2007) claims that learners who are at different levels of language acquisition may have different perceptions of a linguistic form in a situation where Present Perfect should be used. He explains five stages of Towell et al.'s (1993) model illustrating the stages of development of a grammatical sub-system (See Table 17). He exemplifies that while learners who are at the acquisition stage may overgeneralize Past Perfect or Past Simple, learners who have proceeded to the replacement stage may use both Present Perfect and Past Perfect in free variation (Lim, 2007).

Table 17: *The five-stage model for the development of a grammatical sub-system postulated by Towell et al. (1993) and modified by Ellis (1997)*

No:	Stage:	Learner Characteristics
1	Non-Linguistic	Showing no form-meaning mapping
2	Acquisition	Overgeneralizing (using one form in different situations)
3	Replacement	Using alternate forms with free variation
4	Interlanguage	Using different forms categorically with systematic variation (following interlanguage rules)
5	Completion	Using different forms systematically (following target language rules)

Aksu-Koç (1998) emphasizes that verb-tense relation in traditional grammar refers to the relating of the time of the referent situation to either the time of the utterance or to the time of the some other situation. Tense is the grammaticalized concept of location in time and it marks past, present and future time. Closely linked to tense is the concept of aspect, which adds a further time perspective. Aspect reflects the way in which the action of a verb is viewed with respect to time, answering questions such as: 'Is the event or state completed or still in progress? It is concerned with the relation of an event or state to a particular reference point, whether focused before, after, around or simply at a particular point in time (Aksu-Koç, 1998).

We recognize two aspects in English, the *progressive aspect*, sometimes referred to as the *continuous aspect*, and the *perfect aspect*. The progressive aspect describes events or states which are in progress or continuing, whereas the perfect aspect usually describes events or states which occur or begin during a previous period of time.

Grammarians typically identify four perspectives associated with the use of the perfect in English (Göksel and Kerslake, 2005):

a) We regard an event as a state leading up to the present.

59) I have lived here for six years.

This view of events is common with verbs that are often used statively, such as *live, exist, own, be*.

b) We regard an event as occurring at an unspecified time within a time period extending up to the present.

60) Have you ever eaten frogs' legs?

This is the so called "indefinite past."

c) We regard events as repeated within a time period leading up to the present.

61) We have always taken lunch together on Fridays.[11]

d) We regard an event as having results which extend to the present.

62) I have broken my watch.

The item (62) is an example for the "resultative perfect" (Leech 1971).

Furthermore, Simpson (2003: 38) states that Present Perfect is used “to talk about [completed] past actions and events when the events have some present importance”.

Both the Simple Past and the Present Perfect tenses are expressed in *Di’li Geçmiş Zaman* in Turkish (Göknel, 2012). In other words, the Turkish *Di’li Geçmiş Zaman* covers these two English tenses (tense-aspect combinations). The time morpheme of this tense is *[-dI]*, which has eight allomorphs: [*di, dı, dü, du, ti, tı, tü, tu*] (Göknel, 2012). Which allomorph is required on any particular verb stem or verb frame depends on the Turkish vowel and consonant harmony rules.

[11] Examples (63) – (68) are taken from Göksel and Kerslake (2005).

As can be understood from the examples given below in items (63) – (68), in Turkish, there is no explicit distinction between the expressions denoting Present Perfect[12] and those denoting Past Simple; both are expressed by the single suffix –*dI*. This constitutes a many-to-one correspondence situation.

63) Ben iki saat önce iş-im-i bitir-di-im.

I two hours before my work finish-Past-1stP.Sing.)

'I finished my work two hours ago.'

64) Ben iş-im-i bitir-di-im.

I my work finish-Past-1stP.Sing.

'I have finished my work.' (My work is done now.)

65) Onlar geçen hafta sinema-/y/a git-ti.

They last week cinema-DAT. Go-Past.3rd P. Sing

'They went to the cinema last week.'

66) Onlar sinema-/y/a git-ti.

They cinema-DAT. Go-Past.3rd P. Sing.

They have gone to the cinema.

(They are at the cinema or on the way to the cinema.)

67) Geçen hafta futbol oyna-ma-dı-ık.

Last week football play-Neg.- Past-1st P. Plu.

'We didn't play football last week.'

68) Kayıp çocuk daha bul-un-ma-dı.[13]

Lost kid still find-Passive-Neg-Past-3rd P. Sing.

'The lost child hasn't been found yet.' (Passive)

On the other hand, tenses such as Present Continuous and Present Simple have a single correspondent in Turkish each: *Şimdiki Zaman* and *Geniş Zaman* respectively. As it can be observed from the examples (69) and (70), those

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[12] In Turkish, the meaning of Present Perfect is denoted by using specific time adverbials such as *still, yet, already, just* (Göknel, 2012).

[13] Examples from (63)-(68) are taken from Göknel (2012).

sentences could only be translated into English with Present Continuous and Present Simple respectively.

69) Kitap oku - yor -um.
Book Read-CON.1st. P.Sing.
'I am reading a book.'

70) Her sabah koşar.
Every morning run-3rdP.Sing.
'He runs every morning.'

Considering the difficulty stemming from the Present Perfect tense concept for Turkish learners of English, this study tries to determine whether the fact that both Present Perfect and Past Simple in Turkish map onto a single suffix *-dI* interferes with the acquisition of the two tenses, especially with the acquisition of the Present Perfect tense in English. This is done by analyzing students' errors in the tense and aspect usages of one-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Simple and Present Continuous tenses) and many-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses) in three different tasks: fill-in-the-blanks task, translation task, and think-aloud protocols. The study tests the following hypothesis:

71) **Hypothesis 3 (Phenomenon 3: Matrix clauses):**

As both Present Perfect and Past Simple tense in English are expressed by the Past Simple suffix *-dI* in Turkish, intermediate level Turkish learners of English will make errors in the usage of Past Simple and Present Perfect tenses in English matrix clauses, whereas they will make fewer errors in the usage of Present Continuous and Present Simple tenses as these tenses correspond to Turkish *Şimdiki Zaman* and *Geniş Zaman* respectively in a one-to-one manner.

I found that L1 interference is a significant factor in the errors that students make in the usage of English Present Perfect and Past Simple tense due to their correspondence to one single element in the native language of the participants.

5.2. Previous Research

In his article, Srinon (1999) made an error analysis of the free compositions written by the first-year students in Thailand. He found out a total of forty seven types of errors ranging from tense errors to errors in the usage of determiners and prepositions. However, tenses errors were claimed to have the highest number of errors among those 47 types of errors. Similar to the present study, he suggested mother tongue interference as the most influential reason for the errors recorded for the usage of English tenses.

In order to sketch a general picture of interference problems, in her article about native language interference, Skoog (2006) asked students with L1 Swedish to write free compositions. She categorized all types of errors recorded in these essays and she found that of all errors made, interference errors made up 20% and most of these interference errors occurred in the usages of English tenses. She claimed that interference did occur in Swedish students' English writings and the students were influenced by their native language in their use of tenses.

Hong Wai Mun's (2007) doctoral dissertation investigates the role of lexical semantics and Cantonese (L1) influence on the acquisition of Simple Past by Hong Kong secondary school learners. Since "Cantonese is a language which has rich aspectual markers but no tense markers" (p: 2), this affected students English production as they preferred tenseless marking in English in the fill-in-the blanks task and the narrative task. Mun also examined the usage of Cantonese aspect marker *–zo* which corresponds to both Present Perfect and Past Simple in English which can also be regarded as an example of the 'split' situation. The results indicated that the secondary school students' acquisition of English Past Simple

was affected by both their L1 and lexical aspect since students used more perfect when the aspectual marker *–zo* was used in sentences with either telic or atelic predicates. However, they used Past Simple in sentences without the aspectual marker *–zo.* This study provides results that can be related to the present study. In both pieces of research, Present Perfect and Past Simple in L2 (English) correspond to one single exponent in Turkish and Cantonese (L1s). Though each L1 structure, *–zo* in Cantonese and *–dI* Turkish, maps onto two distinct concepts in English namely, Present Perfect and Past Simple the learners seemed to have settled on a single of the two options that are available in L2. However, students who had Cantonese as L1 preferred Present Perfect as the correspondent of the aspectual marker *–zo* whereas Turkish students in this study preferred Past Simple. This may result from the fact that Cantonese has no tense but it has rich aspectual markers whereas Turkish does not have Present Perfect. As a result, students who had Cantonese as L1 preferred to use Present Perfect as the correspondent of the aspectual marker *–zo* while Turkish learners prefer Past Simple as the correspondent of the pastness expressing suffix *–dI*.

Lim (2007) concluded that a significant portion of the errors in the SLA of Present Perfect could be ascribed to cross-linguistic influence given that they have occurred as a result of differences between the subjects' L1 and the target language. In his paper, he also investigates the usage of a 'split' (many-to-one correspondence) between English and Malay. He claims that since Malay verbs do not show any tense distinction, each verb phrase in the subjects' L1 can have different equivalents in the target language; thus, the errors committed can be attributed to differences between the subjects' L1 and the target language in terms of the temporal references of verbs. He states that these differences are noticeable because finite verbs in the TL show tense distinction but no verbs in the subjects' L1 do. Perfective auxiliaries *has*, *have* and *had* do not have one-to-one equivalents in the subjects' L1, even though they are often represented by the auxiliary *sudah* or *telah.* This means that the subjects did not have separate frames of reference for the perfective verb forms. The results of this study can be related

to the results of this thesis as they both suggest that having equivalent structures between the target and the native language facilitates the acquisition of the structure in the target language.

Çakır (2011) compared the usages of Past Simple and Present Perfect by Turkish learners of English. He collected students' writings through the exams for three years. In line with the results of this study, he concluded that the reason for most of the errors recorded for the usage of Present Perfect (88,2%) was its substitution with Past Simple; that is, students substituted Past Simple in items where Present Perfect was required.

Finally, in her article about the usage of Present Perfect by Turkish learners, Bulut (2011) found that students generally prefer Past Simple instead of Present Perfect in a fill-in-the-blanks and a translation task. She concluded that as Turkish does not have a distinct concept to express Present Perfect tense; students generally substitute Present Perfect with the Past Simple tense. In this thesis, I present similar results and argue that Present Perfect is replaced by Past Simple and not by some other tense because of the fact that the semantics of both Past Simple and Present Perfect tenses share a single exponent in Turkish. Bulut's article also validates the conclusion made by the thesis that the usages of time adverbials specific to the Present Perfect tense helped students use the correct tense in the fill-in-the-blanks task.

5.3. Methodology

5.3.1 Participants:

The participants were the same twenty students who participated in the second experiment. Students were 12th grade foreign language class learners and they had been learning English for seven years. As they studied in an Anatolian high school, the curriculum included six hours of English per week. In order to exclude the confounding factor of a possible lack of tense and aspect knowledge, students'

proficiency level was tested through Oxford Placement Test (Appendix C) before the administration of the data collection tasks.

5.3.2. Data collection tools:

In order to gather data which would provide an explanation of the underlying reasons of the errors that students produce in the process of language acquisition, a translation task, a fill in the blanks task, and a think-aloud protocol were used. The tasks were prepared by consulting the textbooks and grammar books designed for teaching purposes.

5.3.2.1.Fill-in-the-blanks Task

This task had a form of a letter that included thirty six blanks (Appendix D). Of the thirty six blanks, nine blanks required the usage of Present Perfect, nine required the usage of Past Simple, and nine require the usage of Present Continuous and the remaining nine required the usage of Present Simple tense. The Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses in English were used because they correspond to a single past tense suffix *-dI* in Turkish, while Present Continuous and Present Simple were used because they correspond in a one-to-one manner to Turkish *Geniş Zaman* and *Şimdiki Zaman* respectively. Based on the context, students were required to choose the correct tense. The expected tenses were given in the instruction of the task in order to eliminate the possibility of all other tenses, such as Past Perfect or Future. The data gathered through the fill-in-the-blank-task enabled the researcher to decide how well the participants grasped the difference between the Present Perfect and Past Simple tense.

Though the impact of time adverbial usage is not a controlled variable in this study, some of the blanks requiring the usage Present Perfect, Past Simple, Present Continuous, and Present Simple were accompanied by time adverbials in order to guide the participants towards the correct tense and some were not. To evaluate the appropriateness of the sentences and to ascertain that each blank requires only one tense, an expert view in English Language Education reviewed

the instrument. Moreover, a piloting of the tool was also administered as is explained below.

5.3.2.2.Translation Task

This task included twenty sentences; each ten required the translation of the sentences by using a particular tense: Present Perfect and Past Simple (Appendix E). Together with the fill-in-the-blanks task, the aim of utilizing a translation task was to find out whether the participants directly translate the past denoting suffix *–dI* into English using Past Simple or notice the perfective sense of the events.

The Turkish sentences to be translated were given in dialogues in order to give the sentences to the students in a context which would indicate more clearly which tense they are supposed to use.

As stated above, ten sentences required the usage of the Present Perfect tense. Of these ten sentences, five included time adverbials used specifically with Present Perfect and the remaining five did not include any time adverbials. The other ten sentences required the usage of the Past Simple tense. Of these ten, five included a time adverbial associated with Past Simple, whereas the remaining five did not include any time adverbials.

5.3.2.3.Think-Aloud Protocols

After the translation and fill-in-the-blanks tasks, ten randomly chosen participants were asked to translate four Turkish sentences into English and to voice their thoughts as they were doing so. The purpose was to see which procedure the students follow while translating the sentences and whether the many-to-one correspondence between the required structures in L2 and L1 played a role in their thought processes (Appendix F). It has to be stated that the four sentences used in the think aloud protocols were taken from the translation task. This can be thought of as a limitation of the study since the students were familiar with the sentences they were asked to translate. However, in order to eliminate the factor of the

remembering of the sentences, I waited for two weeks after the translation task was administered before I administered this task.

The protocols were recorded with each student individually. They were taken in Turkish in order to make students express their thoughts and feelings more comfortably and to make them less anxious. All the protocols were transcribed, and translated into English by the researcher. Similar answers were collected under the same categories. This enabled the researcher to arrive at the conclusion that errors occurred because of the interference of Turkish on English acquisition.

5.3.3. The Piloting and Data Collection Tool Administration Procedures

Oxford Placement Test results revealed that students were at the intermediate proficiency level of English. They were therefore expected to have acquired, at least to some extent, Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses. Thus, no pre-teaching of the tenses was made.

Three English language learners were asked to evaluate the clarity of the fill-in-the-blanks task and translate the sentences in the translation task and state if there were any misunderstandings in these instruments. The required changes were done for the sentences which were thought ambiguous by the people who participated in the piloting. Besides this piloting, two English teachers, and an expert in English language teaching were asked to check all three tasks in order to state if there were any problems.

Students were asked to address all the sentences; therefore, they were given as much time as they needed.

5.3.4. Data analysis

5.3.4.1.Fill-in-the-blanks task

In the fill-in-the-blanks task, it was examined whether students made errors in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple and the errors were counted. The errors

in the usage of Present Continuous and Present Simple tenses were also examined; these errors were also counted separately from the first group. Then the number of errors made in the usage of the Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses (many-to-one correspondence tenses) was compared to the number of errors made in the usage of the Present Continuous and Present Simple tenses (one-to-one correspondence tenses). The number of errors was examined through Microsoft Excel 2007. Paired Sample t-test in SPSS 20 was used to calculate whether there was a significant difference between the number of errors done in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses and many-to-one correspondence tenses. Moreover, which tenses were replaced by which tenses in the errors was also examined to investigate whether Past Simple tense was preferred to Present Perfect tense or the reverse was observed.

5.3.4.2.Translation Task

The number of errors made in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses was counted. To see if there is a significant difference in the number of errors made between these tenses, a paired sample t-test was calculated through SPSS 20. Recall that of ten sentences requiring the usages of Present Perfect, five included time adverbials and five did not. The number of errors made in the two sets was counted separately and a t-test was calculated between them to see if there is a significant difference between the numbers of errors. The same process was also applied for the Past Simple errors.

5.3.4.3.Think-Aloud-Protocols

Students were interviewed in order to translate Turkish sentences into English in the think-aloud protocols after the analysis of the two data collection tasks. Each student's responses and transcription of the interviews were all analyzed in order to see which tense was preferred in the translation of the sentences and which procedures the participants followed during the translation period. Similar results

were gathered under the same themes and examined to see whether and to what extent students made use of their L1 grammar in the translation process.

In order to confirm the hypothesis, students' errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence errors (Present Perfect and Past Simple) were required to outnumber the errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Simple and Present Continuous). Moreover, the tenses substituted in the errors made in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses would also give further information about whether the acquisition of these many-to-one correspondence tenses interfere with each other. All other results would disconfirm the hypothesis.

5.4. Results

This part provides the results of the use of English tenses that stand in a one-to-one correspondence with Turkish tenses: Present Simple and Present Continuous and compares them with the results of the use of the English tenses that stand in many-to-one correspondence with Turkish tenses: Present Perfect and Past Simple. In matrix clauses, the two latter tenses correspond to a single exponent in Turkish: the past-denoting suffix *–dI*. The data were collected via three tasks: fill-in-the-blanks task, translation task, and think-aloud protocols. In what follows, the results are presented by task. In each part, I first present the quantitative analyses. These analyses were done to reveal the percentage correct of each tense usage and in SPSS 20 (paired sample t-test) to compare the correct usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses with one-to-one correspondence tenses. Next, I present an analysis of the contexts in which the tenses were used erroneously in order to see whether students confused Present Perfect with Past Simple, as I hypothesized they would, since both correspond to a single suffix*–dI* in Turkish.

5.4.1. Fill in the blanks task

The data from the fill in the blanks task was collected from twenty intermediate level Turkish learners of English. The learners provided answers for all the sentences in this task; therefore, there was no missing data. As it was stated in section (5.3.4.1), the fill-in-the-blanks-task included 36 items, out of which each nine required the usage of a specific tense namely Present Perfect, Past Simple (many-to-one correspondence), Present Continuous, or Present Simple (one-to-one correspondence). However, after the analysis of the data, five items were excluded from the study since they turned out to allow more than one correct tense. Thus, the results are provided for 31 items given in the fill in the blanks task; seven items requiring Present Perfect, nine items requiring Past Simple, eight items requiring Present Simple and seven items requiring Present Continuous.

Table 18 compares the students' performance in English matrix clauses on one-to-one correspondence tenses, namely Present Simple and Present Continuous, with their performance on many-to-one correspondence tenses: Present Perfect and Past Simple. Out of a total of 620 answers, a total of 122 errors were recorded. The table illustrates that the number of errors made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses is almost exactly twice as big compared to the number of errors made in one-to-one correspondence tenses.

Table 18: *Number of errors in one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence tenses in the fill-in-the-blanks task*

	One-to one-correspondence (Present Simple and Continuous)		**Many-to-one correspondence (Present Perfect and Past simple)**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	39	**13%**	83	**25,94%**
Total Correct Answers	261	87%	237	74,06%
In Total	300	100%	320	100%

It was observed from the results of the paired samples t-test, which indicate that the difference between the number of errors made in the usage of one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence tenses is statistically significant (t (19)= -7,936, p = .000).

Although we observed that one-to-one correspondence structures were used more correctly compared to many-to-one correspondence tenses, we also need to see whether a particular tense caused the majority of problems or whether Present Perfect and Past Simple were equally problematic. This will help us conclude that the errors in each of the two groups is not due to a particular tense which is problematic for the students because of some tense specific difficulty; rather it is because of the nature of the correspondence between the structure in L1 and L2. The results are provided in Table 19. Most of the errors were made equally in the usage of each Present Perfect (n: 41) and Past Simple tense (n: 42), followed by the Present Simple (n: 26), whereas fewest errors were recorded in the usage of Present Continuous (n: 13). So, students have the most difficulties in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses, and neither of the two is more problematic than the other. This is consistent with what is suggested in Table 18.

Table 19: *Number of errors in the usage of each tense investigated in the fill-in-the-blanks task*

	Past simple	**Present Perfect**	**Present Simple**	**Present Continuous**
Number of errors made in the usage of each tense	42/180	41/140	26/160	13/140
Percentage of the errors	23,33%	22,77%	16,25%	9,28%
STD. of the errors made for each tense	0,7880	0,8870	0,5712	0,6708

It seems then that one-to-one correspondence tenses were used more correctly compared to many-to-one correspondence structures. This could be attributed to

the fact that the difficulties stem from the fact that both Present Perfect and Past Simple both map onto a single suffix *–dI* in Turkish. However, we need further investigation to find out which tenses were actually provided when errors were made. In particular, this would provide us with the information about whether Past Simple was substituted for Present Perfect or *vice versa*. If so, it could be concluded that students confuse the usages of Present Perfect and Past Simple because they both correspond to a single suffix *–dI.* Thus, the investigation of each tense was done separately and provided in the parts below.

5.4.1.1.Errors made in the usage of Past Simple

As it can be observed from the Table 24, students made a nearly equal number of errors in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple. The question is whether Present Perfect and Past Simple were substituted for each other. If so, this would give support to our hypothesis, since it would show that students actually confuse the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses. The results for Past Simple tense are provided in Table 20.

Table 20 shows the tenses which were used instead of Past Simple in the errors made. Out of 180 sentences in which Past Simple was required, there were 42 errors recorded in total. Three different tenses were substituted for Past Simple: Present Perfect, Present Simple, and Future Simple. Of these, Present Simple was substituted for Past Simple tense most often (66,6%) while 28,6% of the errors contain Present Simple and 4,8% of the errors contain Future Simple instead of Past Simple.

Table 20: *Tenses substituted for Past Simple*

Tenses Substituted For Past Simple T.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Present Perfect T.	12	**28,6%**
Present Simple T.	28	**66,6%**
Future (will)	2	**4,8%**
Total	**42**	100

Errors were made in all nine items requiring Past Simple in the fill-in-the-blanks-task. The most problematic sentences are provided below.

Students used Present Simple tense in items (72) and (73) although Past Simple was the required tense. Nine errors were recorded in the item (72). In the item (73), ten errors were made in the first blank and nine errors in second blank. These two items are responsible for all 66,6% of the errors in which Present Simple was substituted for Past Simple. Both sentences lack a specific time adverbial which would clearly indicate the need for the Past Simple tense. An informal interview with the participants indicates that they believe verbs expressing general attitudes, such as *think* and *like,* can only be used in Present Simple if no time adverbial requiring a different tense is present.

72) The Mona Lisa is much smaller than I……. (think).

73) I ……. (like) Space Wars best, but Max ……. (like) the River Mountain Ride.

Although time adverbial usage is not a controlled variable in this study, since time adverbial usage is an important factor in explaining the errors in the usage of Present Simple instead of Past Simple, I calculated a paired sample t-test to compare how well the students did in providing the correct tense in sentences that contained a time adverbial compared to sentences that did not contain one. The result showed that the students did significantly better when a time adverbial was present then when it was not ($t(19) = -5{,}984$, $p = .000$).

Recall from the Table 20, students substituted Present Perfect for Past Simple as well. Therefore, the items (74), (75) and (76) illustrate those errors. Although these sentences include specific time adverbials referring to Past Simple such as *last Saturday*, *last Monday* and *on Tuesday*, students preferred Present Perfect in these items. In total, eight errors were made for the usage of these sentences.

74) I ……. (arrive) last Saturday, and I am going to stay for another week.

75) We ……. (go) there last Monday actually and the queues ……. (be) terrible.

76) We ……. (go) there on Tuesday.

The reason of the errors recorded for the usage of the items (74), (75) and (76) can be interference of pastness expressing suffix *–dI* with the acquisition of Present Perfect and Past Simple.

5.4.1.2. Errors made in the usage of the Present Perfect tense

There were 41 errors recorded in the usage of the Present Perfect tense. As it can be observed from Table 21, in most of the errors (82,92%), Past Simple was substituted for the Present Perfect tense. In very few of the errors (17,08%), students provided Present Simple tense instead of the required Present Perfect. The most problematic sentences are provided below from the item (77) to the item (80).

Table 21: *Tenses substituted for Present Perfect*

Tenses Substituted For present perfect t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Past Simple T.	34	**82,92%**
Present Simple T.	7	**17,08%**
Total	**41**	100

All seven errors where Present Simple tense was used instead of the Present Perfect occurred in the item (77). These errors may have occurred because of the Present Simple verbs used in the sentence before the blank and because of the time adverbial *now*. It is possible that here the time adverbial made students choose a wrong tense.

77) Here I am in Paris and it's wonderful. I ……. (be) here for a week now.

However, in the items (78), (79), and (80) given below, the blanks were accompanied by a time adverbial specifically referring to the usage of the Present Perfect, but the students still substituted Past Simple for Present Perfect. A total of 25 errors were recorded in these three items alone.

78) So, what …… we ……. (do) so far?

79) We ……. (climb) the Eiffel Tower yet.

80) Oh, and of course I ……. (already do) lots of shopping. Actually, I ……. (just, buy) some very stylish clothes and some paintings from the street artists in Montmartre.

5.4.1.3. Errors made in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses

Although the number of errors recorded in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses was rather small, they are analyzed in same manner as many-to-one correspondence tenses to gain insight into what might be responsible for them. As may be recalled from the Table 19, out of 140 items, 13 errors were recorded in the usage of Present Continuous. When the required Present Continuous tense was not provided, students substituted it by Present Perfect and Present Simple. The distribution of the substituted tenses is given in Table 22.

Table 22: *Tenses substituted for the Present Continuous*

Tenses Substituted For Present continous t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Present Perfect T.	10	**76,92%**
Present Simple T.	3	**23,08%**
Total	**13**	100

As to the Present Simple tense, there were 26 errors recorded in 160 sentences (See Table 23). Table 29 shows which tenses were substituted for Present Simple tense in the errors made. In most of the errors, Past Simple tense was used instead of the required Present Simple. The items where most of the errors were observed are given in items (81) to (85).

Table 23: *Tenses substituted for Present Simple*

Tenses Substituted For Present Simple t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Past Simple T.	15	**57,69%**
Present Con. T.	9	**34,6%**
Present Perfect T.	2	**7,69%**
Total	**26**	100

The errors were made for 5 items in total. For the blanks given in the item (81), 8 errors were recorded and in all cases, students provided Present Perfect tense instead of the Present Continuous tense. The errors may stem from the verb *wear*, which is often mistook to mean *put on*, so students used Present Perfect wanting to mark an event which happened in the past (the putting on of the clothes) but whose consequences are felt now (the clothes are still being worn).

81) Max ……. (wear) only his t-shirt, but I ……. (wear) my coat in case it may be cold at night.

Nine of the errors were recorded in the usage of items (82) and (83). Past Simple was substituted for Present Simple in these items. The lack of a time adverbial may be the reason for the errors made. However, no other similarity could be pointed out for these items.

82) Well, I must finish now because some friends of Max's ……. (wait) for us in the lobby.

83) But I will tell you all about it when I……. (get) home.

On the other hand, for the items (84) and (85), Present Continuous was preferred over the Present Simple tense.

84) Max ……. (think) he is going to climb to the top and he ……. (make) plans about it now.

85) In Paris, artists ……. (sell) interesting paintings everywhere.

One explanation for the usage of Present Continuous in these examples may be transfer from L1. In Turkish *Şimdiki Zaman* is sometimes used to referto habitual actions as in the example (86). Alternatively, it may be that the context of the blanks led students to use Present Continuous. This is because the blank given in the item (84), which in fact requires the usage of Present Continuous, is coordinated with a clause which includes the time adverbial *now*.

86) Sigara içiyor musun?
Cigaret smoke.Cont.Question.2nd P.Sing.
'Do you smoke?'

Besides these possible reasons, another common denominator in these errors is the lack of a time adverbial. As the lack of a time adverbial is another trait that seemed to play a role in the way students chose the answers in the items that required the usage of the Present Continuous and Present Simple tenses, I compared the number of errors made in the sentences with and without a time adverbial, which required the usage of Present Continous and Present Simple. The comparison was made via a paired sample t-test. The results showed that for both Present Simple and Present Continuous tense, this difference is statistically significant [Present Simple: (t (19) = -2,101; p= ,049)] [Present Continous: (t (19) = -7,678; p=,000)].

The errors made in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple showed a clear pattern: for most of the errors recorded, Past Simple was substituted for Present

Perfect. Present Perfect was also substituted for Past Simple tense, although not to the same degree. Therefore, it can be concluded that students confuse the usages of Present Perfect and Past Simple in matrix clauses.

5.4.2. The analysis of the errors made in the translation task

This part of the study gives the results of the translation task. The task was designed to see whether students can differentiate between the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses in translating Turkish sentences into English. The task included twenty sentences; ten sentences required the translation with the Present Perfect tense whereas the remaining ten required the translation with Past Simple. In this task, the usage of a specific time adverbial was used as a controlled variable. Five sentences which required the usage of Present Perfect included a time adverbial indicating the need for the Present Perfect such as *daha* 'yet', *çoktan* 'already', *yeni* 'just', while five did not. Similarly, five of the sentences which required the usage of Past Simple included a relevant time adverbial, such as *dün* 'yesterday', *geçen hafta* 'last week', etc. and five did not.

Table 24 provides the number of errors and the number of correct answers made in the usage of each tense. In total, 400 sentences were collected. Out of 400, 172 errors were recorded. It can be observed from the table that the number of errors made in the usage of Present Perfect (64%) is nearly three times greater than the number of errors made in the usage of the Past Simple tense (22%). The numbers of errors made in the usage of the two tenses were compared with paired sample t-test. The results suggests that the difference in the number of errors made in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple is statistically significant (t(19) =-11,442; p= ,000).

Table 24: *Number of the errors in Past Simple and Present Perfect tenses in the translation task*

	Past Simple T.		Present Perfect T.	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	44	**22%**	128	**64%**
Total Correct Answers	156	78%	72	36%
In Total	200	100%	200	100

Below I present the effect of time adverbial usage in each tense. I also examine the tenses that students used when they translated a sentence with an incorrect tense.

Table 25 provides the number of errors made in the usage of Past Simple tense used with and without time adverbials. The results show that the number of errors made in the usage of Past Simple without time adverbials (32%) is twice as great as the number of errors made in the usage of Past Simple with time adverbials (12%). The errors in the two kinds of sentences were also compared with a paired samples t-test, which shows that the difference between the two is statistically significant (t (19) = -3,008; p =, 007).

Table 25: *The number of errors in Past Simple sentences with and without time adverbials in the translation task*

For Past simple S.	**Sentences with time adverbials (Out of five items)**		**Sentences without time adverbials (Out of five items)**		**Total**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Number of Errors	12	12%	32	32%	44	22%
Number of Correct Answers	88	88%	68	68%	156	78%
Total	100	100	100	100	200	100

Table 25 shows tenses substituted for the usage of Past Simple in the errors made. Two different tenses were substituted for Past Simple: Present Perfect and Past Perfect. These two tenses were substituted for the Past Simple tense to an almost equal extent.

Table 26: *Tenses substituted for Past Simple*

Tenses Substituted For Past Simple t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Present Perfect T.	24	**45,5%**
Past Perfect T.	20	**54,5%**
Total	**44**	100

The items in which students made errors are given below. For the items (87), (88) and (89), Past Perfect tense was substituted and 16 of the errors were recorded in these sentences.

87) **A:** Alışveriş merkezi eğlenceli miydi?
Shopping mall enjoyable Question.Past?
Devlet Kadın'ı izledinmi?
DevletKadın.ACC. watch.Past.Question?
' Was the shopping mall enjoyable? Did you watch Devlet Kadın?'
B: Dün sinemaya gitmedim ki!
Yesterday cinema.DAT. go.Neg.Past.1st P.Sing.
'I did not go to the cinema yesterday.'

88) **A:** Ne yaptın, işlerini
What. Do.Past.2ndP.Sing. Work.Plu.2ndP.Sing.ACC.
bitirebildin mi?
Finish.Ability.Past.2nd P.Sing.Question
'What did you do, could you finish your works?

B: Evet, saçlarımı kestirdim, alışveriş
Yes, hair.1st P.ACC. Cut.Causative.Past.1stP. Sing. Shopping
yaptım, sonra eve geldim.
Do.Past.1st P.Sing. After. Home.DAT. Come.Past.1st Sing.
'Yes, I had my hair cut, I did shopping then I came home.'

89) **Ayşe:** Düğün nasıldı? Yemek yedin mi?
Wedding How.Past. Meal Eat.Past.Question.
'How was the wedding? Did you eat your meal?'

Filiz: Yemek korkunçtu. Hiçbirşey yemedim.
Meal Awful.Past.3rd Sing. Nothing Eat.Neg.Past.1stSing.
'The meal was awful. I did not eat anything.

For the items (90), (91), (92) and (93), 21 errors were recorded and in all errors the Present Perfect tense was substituted for the Past Simple tense.

90) **Anne:** Kahvaltı yaptın, değil mi?
Mum: Breakfast Do.Past.2ndP. Sing. Tag.Que.
Aç çıkmasaydın?
Hungry Go.Neg.Condition.Past.2ndP.Sing.
'Did you have breakfast, did not you? You should not go hungry.'

Alev: Duş aldıktan sonra bir bardak süt
Shower Have.Sub.ABL. After One Glass Milk
içtim, yumurta ve tost yedim.
Drink.Past.1stP. Sing. Egg And Toast Eat.Past.1st.P. Sing.
'After I had shower, I drank a glass of milk, I ate an egg and toast.

91) **Sevda:** Sen seminere katıldın mı?

You Seminar.DAT. Attend.Past.2nd P. Sing. Question?

'Did you attend the seminar?'

Hande: Evet, çok bilgivericiydi.

Yes Very Informative.Past.3rd P. Sing.

'Yes, it was very informative.'

92) **A:** Ne yaptın, işlerini

What. Do.Past.2ndP.Sing. Work.Plu.2ndP.Sing.ACC.

bitirebildin mi?

Finish.Ability.Past.2nd P.Sing.Question

'What did you do, could you finish your works?

B: Evet, saçlarımı kestirdim, alışveriş

Yes, hair.1st P.ACC. Cut.Causative.Past.1stP. Sing. Shopping

yaptım, sonra eve geldim.

Do.Past.1st P.Sing. After. Home.DAT. Come.Past.1stSing.

'Yes, I had my hair cut, I did shopping then I came home.'

93) **A:** Toplantı nasıldı, tanıdık kimler

Meeting.DAT. How.Past.3rd P. Sing. Familiar Who.Plu.

geldi?

Come.Past.3rdP. Sing.

'How was the meeting, who came?'

B: Ahmet geldi. Başka da tanıdık

Ahmet Come.Past.3rd P.Sing. Other Except Familiar

yoktu.

Absent.Past.

'Ahmet came. There was nobody familiar.'

When it comes to the Present Perfect tense, out of 200 sentences, 128 errors were recorded. Again, the number of errors made in the sentences without time adverbials (83%) is almost double as in the sentences with adverbials (45%) (See Table 26). This difference is statistically significant (t (19) = -6,371; p =, 000).

Table 27: *The number of errors the in Present Perfect sentences with and without time adverbials in the translation task*

For Present perfect S.	**Sentences with time adverbials (Out of five items)**		**Sentences without time adverbials (Out of five items)**		**Total**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Number of Errors	45	**45%**	83	**83%**	128	**64%**
Number of Correct Answers	55	55%	17	17%	72	36%
Total	100	100	100	100	200	100

Table 27 provides the tenses which were substituted in the errors recorded for the sentences which required the Present Perfect tense. From this table, it can be observed that again two different tenses were substituted for the Present Perfect: Past Simple and Past Perfect. For most of the errors recorded, Past Simple tense was chosen over the Present Perfect tense. The items in which the students made such errors are (94) to (97). 54 errors were recorded in these items.

Table 28: *Tenses substituted for Present Perfect*

Tenses Substituted For Present Prefect t.	**Number of Errors**	**Percentage of (%)**
Past Simple T.	79	**61,8%**
Past Perfect T.	49	**38,2%**
Total	**128**	100

94) **A :** Parti çok sıkıcı değil mi? Tanıdık kimse yok!
Party very boring Tag.Question. Familiar Anybody Absent.
'Party is very boring, isn't it? There is nobody that we know.'
B: Aaa, bak, Ali geldi.

Exclamation. Look Ali Come.Past.

'Look, Ali has come.'

95) **A:** Çok solgun görünüyorsun?

Very Pale Appear.Cont.2nd P.Sing.

İyi misin?

Good Question.2nd P.Sing.

'You look very pale. Are you ok?'

B: Kaç zamandır hastaydım,

HowMuch Time Ill.Past.1st P. Sing.

bilmiyor musun?

Know.Neg.Cont.Question.2nd P.Sing.

'For a long time I was ill, do not you know?'

A: Hasta mıydın? Çok geçmiş olsun.

Ill.Question.Past.2nd P.Sing. Very Passed Become

'Have you been ill? Get well soon.'

96) **A:** Birşey içmek ister misin?

Anything Drink Want.Question.2nd P.Sing.

'Do you want to drink anything?'

B: Yok, çok susadım. Yeni bir şişe su içtim.

No Very Thursty. Just One Bottle Water Drink.Past.1st P.Sing.

Can-ım hiçbirşey istemiyor.

Soul-my nothing want.Neg.Cont.3rd P. Sing.

'No, I was very thursty. I have just drunk a bottle of water. I do not want anything.'

97) **Anne:** Yemek yedin mi? Yemek

Meal Eat.Past.Question. Meal

hazırlayayım mı?

Prepare. Shall.1st P.Sing.Question

'Did you eat your meal? Shall I prepare your meal?

Ahmet: Evet, çok açım. Hiçbirşey yemedim.

Yes, very hungry. Nothing Eat.Neg.Past.1st P. Sing.

Yes, I am very hungry. I have not eaten anything.'

5.4.3. The analysis of the errors in the think aloud protocols

The analysis includes the results of the four sentences collected by the think-aloud protocol (TAP) task. The TAP was designed to find out what kind of strategies students use in the process of translation of sentences involving Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses. Four Turkish sentences were chosen from the translation task which was administered before. Since the same sentences were used in both tasks, I waited for two weeks to pass after the first administration to eliminate the impact of recall. Of four, two sentences were given in Present Perfect whereas two were given in Past Simple. Ten randomly chosen students were asked to think aloud while they were translating the sentences. The protocols were taken in Turkish and it was translated into English by the researcher.

In total, forty sentences were collected. A total of 21 errors were recorded. Table 28 shows that students made exactly twice as many errors in the translation of the Present Perfect tense (70%) as they did in the translation of the Past Simple tense (35%).

Table 29: *The analysis of think aloud protocols*

	Past Simple T.		**Present Perfect T.**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Total Errors	7	**35%**	14	**70%**
Total Correct Answers	13	65%	6	30%
In Total	20	100%	20	100

Tables 29 and 30 show the tenses substituted for Present Perfect and Past Simple in the errors. In most of the errors, Present Perfect and Past Simple were substituted for each other.

Table 30: *Tenses substituted for Past Simple*

Tenses Substituted For Past Simple t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Past Perfect T.	2	**28,5%**
Present Perfect T.	5	**71,5%**
Total	**7**	100

Students were asked to think aloud as they were translating the sentences. Their responses were grouped into those that accompanied incorrect translations and those that accompanied correct translations. The former are illustrated in items (98) – (101), and the latter in items (102) and (103).

98) *This sentence includes two different verbs, both of which were inflected with past tense. To have tense sequence, we need to use Past Perfect in the embedded clause.*

99) *The event in the embedded clause happened before the action in the main clause, so we need to use Past Perfect tense.*

100) *There is a reference to the present; however, the event happened in the past. To give the meaning of present and past, we need to use Present Perfect in the noun clause.*

101) *The person is asking whether that person finished the project until the time of speech; therefore, we need to define the process with Present Perfect tense.*

102) *The sentence is given in past tense which can be understood from the presence of pastness suffix –dI.*

103) *The sentence must be translated into English with Past Simple because the event happened in the past which can be understood from the pastness suffix –dI.*

When a sentence required translation with Present Perfect, but it was not provided, most of the time it was substituted by Past Simple. The rest of the time, students used Past Perfect (See Table 30).

Table 31: *Tenses substituted for Present Perfect*

Tenses Substituted For Present Prefect t.	Number of Errors	Percentage of (%)
Past Simple T.	11	**78,5%**
Past Perfect T.	3	**21,5%**
Total	**14**	100

Again, the students' responses were grouped into two: the responses that accompanied correctly translated sentences in Present Perfect, provided in the items (104) to (106) and the responses that accompanied incorrectly translated sentences, given in the items (107) to (110).

104) *Although the sentences were expressed in the past, they have a current relevance.*

105) *People who were said the sentences have newly learned the situation. In order to express this, we need to combine both pastness and current relevance situation. We can do it using Present Perfect tense.*

106) *Although the event happened in the past, it has reference to the present, so we need to define it with Present Perfect tense.*

107) *The sentences were expressed in the past which can be understood from the usage of pastness suffix –dI. We can express this using Past Simple in the translation of the sentences.*

108) *The event finished in the past, we can understand it from the pastness suffix –dI. Thus, we must translate it with Past Simple.*

109) *The sentences were expressed in the past and there are two different sentences given. In order to show the tense sequence, we need to express the action happened before in Past Perfect.*

110) *The action happened in the past and we need to give the meaning of "şimdiye kadar". We can do both of them with the usage of Past Perfect tense.*

5.5. Discussion

The results presented above partially validate the hypothesis on which errors are expected in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Perfect and Past Simple) due to the fact that they map onto one single exponent in Turkish: the suffix *–dI*, with fewer errors expected in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses (Present Continuous and Present Simple). While indeed more errors were made in many-to-one correspondence tenses, the reasons for the errors indicate that they were not a consequence of the 'split'. Rather, students seem to have problems with Present Perfect *per se*. Students were expected to make fewer errors in the usage of Present Simple and Present Continuous tenses since they correspond to Turkish *Geniş Zaman* and *Şimdiki Zaman* in a one-to-one manner respectively. This situation is confirmed because the number of errors made in the usage of these tenses is relatively smaller compared to the number of errors made in the usage of Present Perfect and Past simple. It is, however, not clear whether the number of errors or the tenses substituted for the required tenses in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tenses stem from L1 interference or some other factors influence the acquisition process of the learners.

Though the statistical examination of the results illustrate that there were nearly equal number of errors recorded for the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses in the fill-in-the-blanks-task, detailed examination of errors in terms of tenses substituted provides us with a different perspective. When we examine the errors made in the usage of Present Perfect tense, it can be observed that Past Simple is the tense which is mostly preferred. However, the same cannot be observed when the errors made in the usage of Past Simple are examined. When Past Simple was not provided although the context required it, generally Present Simple was preferred. However, as it was stated in the results pertaining to the usage of Past Simple in section (5.4.1.1), the preference of Present Simple instead Past Simple likely stems from the context and the verbs *think* and *like* which generally denote a meaning of general reference for the participants. When we exlude those errors containing the usage of Present Simple, then the major tense which was substituted for Past Simple is Present Perfect, as expected. But, when we compare the percentage of errors in which Past Simple was used instead of Present Perfect with the percentage of errors in which Present Perfect is used instead of Past Simple, we observe a remarkable difference. Out of 180 blanks which require Past Simple, only 6,66% of the time is Present Perfect erroneously used. On the other hand, out of 140 blanks requiring the usage of Present Perfect, 24,28% of the time, the students used Past Simple. This difference indicates that the two tenses are not used interchangably. Instead, it seems that the grammar of the participants simply does not allow for the correct usage of Present Perfect.

The analysis of the translation task and TAPs provide clearer results. In these two tasks, the number of errors made in the usage of Present Perfect is relatively higher compared to the number of errors made in the usage of Past Simple. Besides, Past Simple is again the tense which is substituted for Present Perfect to a great extent. This again indicates that Present Perfect is the problematic concept for the students. This can be observed more clearly in the examination of the translation task and the TAPs. In a great many number of cases where students made errors, students referred to the presence of the pastness suffix *-dI* as the

explanation of the usage of Past tense. Therefore, it can be concluded that in the students' grammars, Past Simple suffix *-dI* in Turkish corresponds to Past Simple in a one-to-one manner. Consequently, the one-to-many correspondence is likely not the reason for students' difficulty in Present Perfect. This is not to say that situations that instantiate the 'split' are not problematic. However, the results in this chapter seem to indicate that there is no 'split' in the acquisition of the usage of English Past Simple and Present Perfect by Turkish students. Thus, "not all errors made by second language learners can be explained in terms of direct interference of first language on second language acquisition." (Bhela, 1999: 186). This conclusion also relies on the results regarding the difference in error rates between tasks that involved specific time expressions and those that did not. Although L1 interference seems to be the main reason behind the errors, still when a time adverb was introduced into the sentences, students did better and the percentage of grammatical sentences increased as a result. If the learners are given an overt time indication with verbs, this considerably reduces the number of tense errors in English. This aspect is true for the usage of both many-to-one and one-to-one correspondence tenses. In particular, the usage of specific time expressions decreases the amount of L1 interference by activating the learned rather than the acquired part of the students' knowledge, so the subconscious use of the linguistic competence is somehow "controlled" by the conscious mechanisms that monitor the performance.

CHAPTER 6

GENERAL DISCUSSION

L1 interference is still a hot topic when we consider second language acquisition. How exactly this type of difficulty arises remains unclear. The thesis hypothesized that when an exponent of a linguistic concept in the native language maps onto several different exponents in the target language, learners have difficulty when acquiring those structures in the target language. By contrast, when an exponent of a linguistic concept in the native language and its counterpart in the target language stand in a one-to-one correspondence, the possibility of making errors decreases to a considerable extent. In order to test this hypothesis, I examined three different phenomena which allow both the usage of one-to-one and many-to-one structures: prepositions *on, at, in*; the usage of Present and Past Simple tense in embedded clauses; and the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple in matrix clauses. Turkish learners of English were administered several data collection tools: translation task, fill-in-the-blanks-tasks and think aloud protocols to determine if their errors might be caused by the interference of Turkish on acquisition of English as a second language. The results of the three phenomena provide a lot of evidence that is consistent with L1 interference, although the erroneous usage of tense in matrix clauses seems to have independent sources. Before moving onto the discussion of results, let us recall the three phenomena examined in more detail:

Turkish has one locative case marker which expresses location in time and place: the *–dA* suffix, and this marker has three different corresponding prepositions in English: *at, in, on.* On the other hand, some case markers and postpositions in Turkish correspond to prepositions in English in a one-to-one manner. In order to examine whether students acquire one-to-one correspondence prepositions more easily than many-to-one prepositions, a translation task including thirty Turkish sentences to be translated into English was prepared by the researcher. The results

confirmed the hypothesis which expects errors in the usage of prepositions *at, in, on,* which correspond to a single locative case marker *-dA* in Turkish, whereas fewer errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence postpositions (*sonra* 'after', *ile* 'with', *arkasında* 'behind', *önünde* 'in front of', *altında* 'under', *-den beri* 'since', *hakkında* 'about', *için* 'for', *arasında* 'between', *tarafından* 'by') and case markers (*–dAn* 'from' and *–a* 'to'). It was found out that since locative case marker *–dA* corresponds to three different prepositions in English, students omit the required preposition or substitute it with the other two from the group when they cannot decide on the correct one.

The second phenomenon involves the usage of subordination suffixes in Turkish. The suffix *–dIk* is used to express the nominalization of Turkish embedded clauses and it gives the expression of both Present Simple and Past Simple tenses when translated into English. On the contrary, the future tense marker *–AcAk* also expresses nominalization; however, it only refers to Simple Future tense in English in a one-to-one manner. In order to test whether students acquire the usage of Present Simple and Past Simple in embedded clauses harder since they both correspond to *–dIk* subordinating suffix in Turkish (i.e., instantiate the 'split') than the usage of Future tense as it corresponds to the subordinating suffix *–AcAk* in a one-to-one manner in embedded clauses, a fill-in-the-blanks-task was prepared. It included thirty blanks and each ten required the usage of Future Simple, Present Simple or Past Simple. Moreover, a think-aloud protocol involving six Turkish sentences to be translated into English was also administered. It was concluded that since *–dIk* subordinating suffix maps onto two different exponents in English namely, Present Simple and Past Simple in embedded clauses, students cannot decide on the correct tense to use and they substitute the two tenses with each other. This validated the hypothesis since students made more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses in embedded clauses while they made relatively fewer errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence tense.

The third phenomenon investigated the possible interference of the pastness expressing suffix *–dI* with the correct usage of tense and aspect in matrix clauses in English. I hypothesized that *–dI* corresponds to both Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses in English, whereas Present Simple and Present Continuous tenses each have a single correspondent in Turkish: *Geniş Zaman* and *Şimdiki Zaman* respectively. It was also hypothesized that students will make more errors in the usage of Present Perfect and Past Simple tenses contrary to fewer errors in Present Continuous and Present Simple tenses. In order to test it, a translation task, a fill-in-the-blanks-task and a think-aloud protocol were prepared. It was observed that pastness expressing suffix *–dI* maps onto Past Simple in a one-to-one manner and Turkish learners of English do not have Present Perfect firmly established in their grammars. Therefore, overgeneralization of Past Simple was observed but never of Present Perfect. On the other hand, students make relatively fewer errors in the usage of Present Simple and Present Continuous tense since they have one-to-one correspondence in Turkish.

From the results, it can be stated that all three hypotheses which expect more errors in the usages of three many-to-one correspondence structures and fewer errors in the usages of three one-to-one correspondence structures are validated. However, the last chapter, investigating the interference of pastness expressing suffix with Present Perfect and Past Simple, did not provide evidence that the 'split' is responsible for these errors. All the other resuılts confirm that despite the fact that we are dealing with very different areas of grammar, we find the same pattern and this pattern fits the description from CA which claims that the acquisition is the hardest when there is a many-to-one correspondence of structures defined as a "split". In all three phenomena, much more errors were recorded in the usage of many-to-one correspondence structures in contrast to fewer errors in the usage of one-to-one correspondence structures. In total, 241 errors were collected for the usage of English prepositions and 92,5% of them were made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence prepositions: *at, in, on*. Similarly, students made more errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence

tenses in embedded clauses in English namely, *Present Simple* and *Past Simple*, which accounted for the 74% of the total 93 errors recorded for the usage of embedded clauses in English. The investigation of the tense usage in matrix clauses also revealed similar results. Of 122 errors collected for all types of tenses (*Present Perfect, Past Simple, Present Continuous and Present Simple*), 68% were made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses: *Present Perfect and Past Simple.*

In conclusion, the results from all three areas indicate that the situation of a many-to-one correspondence creates more difficulty in L2 acquisition than the one-to-one correspondence. Therefore, it can be concluded that "the L1 (morpho) syntactic system affected L2 comprehension and production through the transfer" (Tolentino and Tokowicz, 2011: 94) and structurally different areas of the two languages involved resulted in interference.

As it was hypothesized, one-to-one correspondence structures were less problematic since grammatical features which were similarly instantiated in the L1 and L2 were compared and as a result, this allowed the L2 learner to easily and effectively apply the L1 system to the processing of the L2. In contrast, more errors occurred in the usage of many-to-one correspondence structures as linguistic features which were present in both the L1 and L2 but were instantiated differently in L2 were compared: this affected L2 processing and gave rise to ungrammatical utterances. This also gave support to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis which expects a relatively high frequency of errors to occur in L2 if the structures of the two languages are different, which in the end indicates an interference of L1 with L2 (Lado, 1957; Dechert, 1983; Ellis, 1997; Lightbown & Spada 1997). As Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis claims, the paper assumed the interference of the first language system with the second language system as a "principle barrier to second language acquisition". As a result, a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages (Turkish and English) is required to have "a taxonomy of linguistic contrasts" (one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence

structures) between those languages to see the difficulties a learner would encounter while acquiring L2 (Brown, 2000: 207-208).

Giving support to the main conclusion of the paper, that many-to-one correspondence structures present difficulties for the learner, another important result of the paper is the conclusion that L1 interference seems to be contextualized. In other words, the many-to-one structures are not problematic *per se*. Rather they become problematic when they are required in a context where more than one L2 possibilitiy exisits for a single structure. For instance, Present Simple tense is a one-to-one correspondence tense when used in matrix clauses, whereas it is a many-to-one correspondence tense when used in embedded clauses in English (in embedded clauses, Present Simple forms the 'split' situation with the Past Simple). When we compare the percentage of errors made in the usage of Present Simple in matrix clauses (16%) and embedded clauses (28%), the difference explains that Present Simple becomes problematic when Present Simple and Past Simple tenses correspond to Turkish subordination suffix *–dIk* in a many-to-one manner. Therefore, L1 grammar seems to determine how the learner initially approaches the L2 data (White, 2003).

Moreover, it was observed that the effect L1 interference can be decreased to some extent through the usage of various linguistic clues. For instance, the difference in the number of errors made in the usage of many-to-one correspondence tenses with and without time adverbials (t (19) = -6,525; p= .000) and one-to-one correspondence tenses with and without time adverbials (t (19) = -3,249; p=, 004) in embedded clauses turned out to be statistically significant. That is, usage of time adverbials decreases the number of errors made in the usage of both one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence structures. The same results were also observed in the usage of tenses in matrix clause analysis. The presence of time adverbials in both matrix and embedded clauses lowered the rate of errors. The reason for this is probably that the presence of clues such as time adverbials "activated" in a sense the learner's conscious knowledge of the L2 grammar and

s/he arrived at a correct usage through using learning resources that are not purely Language Acquisition Device. Thus, it can be inferred that the outcome which is the correct usage in this point is determined not only by cross-language similarity but also by the strength of linguistic cues, which provide “surface information about the underlying function of particular linguistic items” (Tolentino and Tokowicz, 2011: 95).

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

Literature provides us with a lot of evidence suggesting that in the process of second or foreign language acquisition, identifying the differences between L1and L2 would lead to a better understanding of the potential problems that a learner of the particular L2 would face (Lado, 1957; Dechert, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Ellis, 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 1997; Tolentino and Tokowich, 2011). Based on this idea, the study investigates interference of Turkish as L1 on acquisition of English as L2 from the point of view of the Hierarchy of Difficulty suggested by Prator (1967). Before the examination, two main concepts were defined: one-to-one correspondence and many-to-one correspondence. One-to-one correspondence is used for structures which are instantiated similarly in L1 and L2 whereas many-to-one correspondence is used when a single object-language element in native language is changed into the target language, several metalanguage elements are the correspondent of the element in that language (Bloomfield, 2005). In order to examine these concepts with cross linguistic analysis, three areas which involve both one-to-one and many-to-one correspondence are defined. The usages of Prepositions *at, in, on*, Present Simple and Past Simple in Embedded Clauses, Present Perfect and Past Simple in Matrix Clauses are investigated. The three prepositions all correspond to Turkish locative case marker *–dA*; Both Present Simple and Past Simple are denoted by the subordinating suffix *–dIk* in Turkish embedded clauses; and finally both Present Perfect and Past Simple are expressed by the pastness denoting suffix *–dI in* matrix clauses. These structures were compared to those that have similar usage in L2, but correspond in a one-to-one manner to their L1 counterparts:

- Prepositions *sonra* 'after', *ile* 'with', *arkasında* 'behind', *önünde* 'in front of', *altında* 'under', *-den beri* 'since', *hakkında* 'about', *için* 'for',

arasında ‘between’, *tarafından* ‘by’ and case markers–*dAn* ‘from’ and –*a* ‘to’,

- The usage of Future Simple in embedded clauses (which corresponds to Turkish subordinating suffix –*AcAk*),
- Present Continuous and Present Simple in matrix clauses (which correspond to Turkish tenses *Şimdiki zaman* and *Geniş Zaman* respectively).

It was hypothesized that the acquisition of those many-to-one correspondence structures would be more difficult than one-to-one correspondence structures.

Students’ proficiency level was recorded as pre-intermediate and intermediate because this, in turn, leads us to argue that students know the required structures and the errors they make stem from other factors. The L2 data presented in this thesis confirmed that L1 is at least partly responsible for students’ errors in the usage of many-to-one correspondence structures. It was concluded that students have difficulty in the acquisition of many-to-one correspondence structures as those map onto one single argument in Turkish.

L1 interference may be suggested as the reason of huge number of errors made by Turkish learners in the acquisition of many-to-one correspondence structures; however, it also must be noted that there are many other factors which affect L2 acquisition. The results suggest that although L1 is an important source that students consult in the acquisition of L2, as their advance in language proficiency, the effect of L1 decreases so that it can be concluded that both UG and L1 grammar influence the status of interlanguage grammars. Therefore, the main emphasis in interlanguage research needs to shift from a rather static error-oriented view of language learning to a dynamic view of learners' language as a constantly evolving system.

Although the study focuses on a small set of errors by a small number of learners, it can be claimed that the study will raise the awareness of the EFL instructors about their learners' acquisition process in many ways. Analyzing the L1 syntactical structure and the type of errors made in L2 as well as the extent of learners' knowledge of L1 and L2 syntactic structures will assist the teaching and the learning process by allowing an individualized learning program for each learner (Bhela, 1999).

In short, the thesis contributes to the growing body of literature investigating the role of the L1 on L2 acquisition by providing evidence for L1 interference and positive and negative transfer. Therefore, as a pedagogical implication of this study, the learners could be made aware of transfer strategies and its outcome. Positive and negative transfer could be discussed with them and they know to what extent the transfer strategy works.

Throughout the research process some limitations concerning method and subjects of the study have arisen. The number of participants is one of those limitations that may have an effect on the results. For all three experiments, a small number of participants were administered the data collection tools. This might lead to restrictions in generalizing conclusions to other learner profiles and environments.

Another limitation of the study concerns the data collection tools administered. As it was stated in Chapters 4 and 5, the fill-in-the blanks tasks used for matrix and embedded clauses required reworking in the middle of the data analysis. The items which were thought to have a negative impact on the anaylsis of the data were excluded from both of the data collection tools.

Taking the results and implication of this study, we still need research which will investigate how L1 interference can be handled in classroom environment. Therefore, further research examining Turkish and English in terms of cross lingustic analysis is required. Moreover, detailed cross linguistic analysis of Turkish and English may provide clearer examples for 'Split' situation. It would

be interesting to compare students' performance on a single structure, used in one-to-one context and many-to-one context such as Present Simple or Past Simple. Moreover, observing the effect of L1 intereference in different proficiency levels may suggest interesting results.

In sum, this study has shown that the interference of L1 has a great part in determining the source of errors in order not to face with fossilized errors at the later stages. Moreover, if the sources of errors are identified and analyzed, a remedial teaching can become more effective in the process of foreign language learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:

TRANSLATION TASK FOR PREPOSITIONS

TASK: Translate these Turkish sentences below into English. Try to be faithful to the sentences while translating them into English.

1. Antalya Türkiye'nin güney kıyısındadır.

2. Okuldan sonra görüşebiliriz.

3. Mektup masamda.

4. Oyuncak dükkanı solda.

5. Ağaçların arasında küçük bir kopek var.

6. 29 Ekim'de Cumhuriyet Bayramını kutlarız.

7. Toplantıya tam zamanında gelmelisin.

8. Çoçukların önünde tartışmayalım.

9. Annem doğum günümde güzel bir pasta yapacak.

10. Yarın konserde buluşacağız.

11. O bugün evde kalacak.

12. Mr. John bir hastanede çalışıyor

13. 65 yaşında emekli oldu.

14. Bu eser Tolstoy tarafından yazıldı.

15. Noel’de eve gidiyormusun?

16. Her yaz Antalya’ya gider.

17. Saat 7’ de görüşebiliriz.

18. Hakan Afyon’da yaşıyor.

19. Fotoğraftaki küçük kız kim?

20. Bizim için öğle yemeği hazırladı.

21. Ali ayağını kırdı ve şimdi hastanede.

22. Ali birkaç dakikada hazır olacak.

23. İstasyondan eve yürüdü.

24. Öğrenciler İngilizce dersinlerinde edatları öğreniyor.

25. Benimle gel.

26. Annem Nisan’da doğmuş.

27. 1990’dan beri burada yaşıyoruz

28. Senin hakkında konuşuyoruz.

29. Masanın altında bıçak var.

30. Dolabın arkasında bir kağıt var.

APPENDIX B:

FILL-IN-THE-BLANKS TASK FOR EMBEDDED CLAUSES

TASK: Fill in the blanks with verbs in parenthesis using "Future Simple (will)", "Present Simple" or "Past Simple" tenses.

1. She wonders what she ..... (do) when her family moves to a small town next month.
2. Betty is such a good student. She understands that she..... (need) to study every day to pass her exams.
3. He has to confess that he..... (lose) his key.
4. It is not certain when exactly they..... (visit) us next week.
5. We all know that the earth..... (go) around the sun.
6. She is glad that you .....(pass) the test yesterday.
7. I do not know whether he ..... (come) to the meeting tomorrow.
8. They announced that the storm ..... (cause) a lot of damage to the crops last night.
9. I am glad to know that you ..... (work) for us next year.
10. It is generally known that people ..... (prefer) colourful furniture.
11. Her mother doesn't know when she ..... (arrive) last night.
12. It seems that Mary and John ..... (get) a divorce soon.
13. He keeps forgetting that he ..... (borrow) my umbrella.
14. This box is too heavy for you! I ..... (help) you.
15. He is sure that last night his daughter ..... (take) the car without his permission."

16. Oh! Mary must be so lonely at home. Where is my phone? I ..... (call) her.

17. They want him to admit that he ..... (kill) his neighbour.

18. John seems to be such a cultured person. I think that he..... (go) abroad very often.

19. The teacher believes that no one ..... (help) Peter in his last homework.

20. Have you seen the weather forecast? They say it ..... (snow)! Can you believe it?

21. Ali's mother complains that he always ..... (get up) very late on Sundays.

22. He regrets that he .....(steal) her mother's necklace.

23. It is common knowledge that oil .....(float) on water.

24. I guess I heard knocking on the door. Wait, I ..... (check) it.

25. We know that Bob ..... (go) running every weekend. That's why he is such a good runner.

26. Apparently, Helen knows Antalya very well. She says that she ..... (drive) there once a year

27. Everybody knows that water ..... (boil) at 100 C.

28. He keeps denying that he ..... (crash) that car.

29. It is raining outside and my laundry is out. I ..... (take) it in.

30. She does not believe that all people ..... (have) a cruel side to their character.

APPENDIX C:

THINK ALOUD PROTOCOL FOR EMBEDDED CLAUSES

TASK: Translate the sentences. Try to justify your reasons for using the structures you choose while translating.

1. Ona ne alacağıma karar veremiyorum

2. Yarın nerede buluşacağımızı bilmiyorum.

3. Herkes suyun 100C derecede kaynadığını bilir.

4. Her ay nereden alışveriş yaptığını biliyorum.

5. Kapıyı kimin kilitlediğini bilmiyorum.

6. Dün kimi ziyaret ettiği beni ilgilendirmez.

APPENDIX D:

FILL-IN-THE-BLANKS TASK FOR MATRIX CLAUSES

TASK: Use "Present perfect simple", "Past simple tense", "Present continuous tense" or "Present simple tense" to fill in the blanks with verbs given in parentheses.

Dear Molly,

Hello, how are you? Here I am in Paris and it's wonderful. I (1) ……. (be) here for a week now. I (2) ……. (arrive) last Saturday, and I am going to stay for another week. Now, I am with my cousin, Max, and we (3) ……. (stay) in the Hotel du Nord, opposite Paris Nord Station.

We (7) ……. (go) there last Monday actually and the queues (8) ……. (be) terrible. The Mona Lisa is much smaller than I (9) ……. (think). I (10) ……. (not know) why it is so famous, but people generally (11) ……. (like) it very much. And what else? Oh yes, we (12) ……. (go) to EuroDisney. We (13) ……. (go) there on Tuesday. We (14) ……. (take) the train from Paris Nord. We (15) ……. (have) a great time. I (16) ……. (like) Space Wars best, but Max (17) ……. (like) the River Mountain Ride. Right now, he (18) ……. (still talk) about his feelings.

We (19) ……. (climb) the Eiffel Tower yet. We are going to do that tomorrow. Max (20) ……. (think) he is going to climb to the top and he (21) ……. (make) plans about it now. But now, we (24) ……. (prepare) to go out because we (25) ……. (take) an evening cruise along the Seine. Max (26) ……. (wear) only his t-shirt, but I (27) ……. (wear) my coat in case it may be cold at night. Here, people usually (28) ……. (take) cruises at nights. Then tomorrow, we are going to listen to the jazz musicians in the Latin Quarter.

Oh, and of course I (29) ……. (already do) lots of shopping. Actually, I (30) ……. (just, buy) some very stylish clothes and some paintings from the street artists in Montmartre. In Paris, artists (31) ……. (sell) interesting paintings everywhere. Yes, I (32) ……. (buy) a present for you, too. But you will have to wait to see what it (33) ……. (be). Well, I must finish now because some friends of Max's (34) ……. (wait) for us in the lobby. They (35) ……. (make) plans to show us around. Hopefully, they are going to take us to the Champs Elysees and The L'Arch de Tromphe.

It is a pity you can't be here with me, but I will tell you all about it when I (36) ……. (get) home.

Take care and see you soon.

Love Jill.

APPENDIX E:

TRANSLATION TASK FOR MATRIX CLAUSES

TASK: There is a story given in each dialogue. Taking the context into consideration, please translate the underlined sentences given in these dialogues. Write the translated sentences in the blanks given in each dialogue.

1. **A:** Benim tatilim çok eğlenceliydi. Sen ne yaptın? Tatil'de <u>İzmir'e gittin mi?</u>

   B: Evet, benimki de çok zevkliydi. Hep denize girdik.

   .....

2. **A :** Parti çok sıkıcı değil mi? Tanıdık kimse yok!

   B: Aaa, bak, <u>Ali geldi</u>.

   .....

3. **A:** Sürekli odanı dağınık bırakıyorsun! Biraz yardımcı olmaya çalışsan diyorum!

   B: Gel sana bir süprizim var. Bak! Daha yeni <u>odamı topladım.</u>

   .....

4. **A:** Seni dün markette gördüm. Arkandan seslendim ama beni duymadın.

   B: Hastaydım ya, ondan hiçbirşeyin farkında değildim.

   A: <u>Hasta mıydın?</u> Halbuki gayet iyi görünüyordun!

   .....

5. **A:** Sınavlara hazırlık nasıl gidiyor? Çalışıyor musun?

   B: Son zamanlarda hiçbirşey yapmadım, ama programlı çalışmaya başlamayı düşünüyorum.

   .....

6. **A:** Birşey içmek ister misin?

   B: Yok, çok susadım. Yeni bir şişe su içtim. Canım hiçbirşey istemiyor.

   .....

7. **A:** Toplantı nasıldı, tanıdık kimler geldi?

   B: Ahmet geldi. Başka da tanıdık yoktu.

   .....

8. **Öğretmen:** Tiyatro insanların eğlenceli vakit geçirmesi için güzel bir etkinlik öyle değil mi, Ayşe?

   Ayşe: Ben hiç tiyatroya gitmedim ki!

   .....

9. **A:** Sende bir değişiklik var! Dur bir bakayım sana!

   B: Eveet! Saçlarımı kestirdim!

   .....

10. **Ali:** Projeyi bitirebildin mi?

    Aslı: Dün gece hiçbirşey yapmadım, öyle televizyonun karşısında vakit geçirdim.

    .....

11. **Ahmet:** Alışveriş merkezi eğlenceli miydi? Devlet Kadın'ı izledin mi?

Hakan: Dün sinemaya gitmedim ki!

.....

12. Anne: Yemek yedin mi? Yemek hazırlayayım mı?

Ahmet: Evet, çok açım. Hiçbirşey yemedim.

.....

13. Anne: Kahvaltı yaptın, değil mi? Aç çıkmasaydın?

Alev: Duş aldıktan sonra bir bardak süt içtim, yumurta ve tost yedim.

.....

14. A: Ne yaptın, işlerini bitirebildin mi?

B: Evet, saçlarımı kestirdim, alışveriş yaptım, sonra eve geldim.

.....

15. Ayşe: Düğün nasıldı? Yemek yedin mi?

Filiz: Yemek korkunçtu. Hiçbirşey yemedim.

.....

16. Sevda: Sen seminere katıldın mı?

Hande: Evet, çok bilgivericiydi.

.....

17. A: Dün ne yaptın?

B: Önce temizlik yaptım. Sonra da ütü yaptım ve odamı topladım.

.....

18. A: Çok solgun görünüyorsun? İyi misin?

B: Kaç zamandır hastaydım, bilmiyor musun?

A: Hasta mıydın? Çok geçmiş olsun.

.....

19. A: Antalya yazları çok sıcak ve nemli oluyor. Bu arada, sen hiç Antalya'ya gittin mi?

B: Evet, daha önce bir kez gitmiştim.

.....

20. Orhan: Yüksek lisans, doktora gibi akademik çalışmalarda konferansa katılmanı bekliyorlar.

Yılmaz: Sende yüksek lisans yaptın. Sen konferansa katıldın mı?

.....

APPENDIX F:

THINK ALOUD PROTOCOL FOR MATRIX CLAUSES

TASK: Please translate the sentences. Try to justify your reasons for using the structures you choose while translating.

1. Daha yeni odamı topladım.

2. **A:** Sende bir değişiklik var! Dur bir bakayım sana!

   B: Eveet! Saçlarımı kestirdim.

3. **Ali:** Projeyi bitirebildin mi?

   Aslı: Dün gece hiçbirşey yapmadım, öyle televizyonun karşısında vakit geçirdim.

4. **Ayşe:** Düğün nasıldı? Yemek yedin mi?

   Filiz: Yemek korkunçtu. Hiçbirşey yemedim.

APPENDIX H

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	x
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	
Enformatik Enstitüsü	
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Kurumlu
Adı : Zehra
Bölümü : İngiliz Dili Öğretimi

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : The 'split': Single exponent in L1, multiple exponents in L2: consequences for L2

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans [x] Doktora [ ]

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [x]
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [x]
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. [x]

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: