T.C. ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ·

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF CONDITIONALS

IN TURKISH AND ENGLISH WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON PROBLEMS

FOR TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN THE LIGHT OF ERROR ANALYSIS

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Zehra Karacaer

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ABSTRACT

This thesis aims at investigating the problems of
Turkish learners of English in the recognition and production
of conditional sentences. In order to elicit the diagnosis
and explanation of learning difficulties, Contrastive Analysis
and Error Analysis are employed as techniques. In Chapter I,
the purpose and the scope of the study is explained. Chapter
II includes a review of literature on Contrastive Analysis
and Error Analysis. In Chapter III, conditional sentences in
Turkish and in English are analyzed on the basis of semantic
universals and a contrast of significant features of condition-
als in the two languages is made. The last part of this chapter
consists of the predictions of possible error types on the
basis of contrastive study. In Chapter IV, Error Analysis
is done and possible error types are extracted from the
language data obtained from the translation test, administered
to the three different groups of students studying at Anadolu
University. Also the performance of these students is compared
to each other in order to find out the importance of time
factor in learning conditionals. In Chapter V, conclusions
are given with the implications for teaching conditionals
and suggestions for further research are made with the limit-
ations of this study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

English language teaching (ELT) always had a great impor-
tance,therefore, linguists and English language experts have
continually studied this issue and brought some new ideas about
improving teaching methods and overcoming the problems related
to English. Because in English (first or second) language learn-
ing and teaching, many constructions in English may pose problems
for the learner of English.

This thesis studies the conditional sentences as problem-
atic constructions. In this study, the concept conditional is
limited to if-clauses which can be studied in the three main cat-
egories: probable, improbable and impossible types, on the basis
of semantically universal features about the conditional.

Observations indicate that when learning main types of if-
clauses, Turkish learners of English make some errors, such as
they use probable conditional (Type I) instead of improbable con-
ditional (Type II), improbable conditional instead of impossible
conditional (Type III):
e.g. If I have a lot of money, I will buy a car.

                                                    instead of
    If I had a lot of money, I would buy a car.

If I knew him, I would say hello.

<div align="center">instead of</div>

If I had known him, I would have said hello.

In other words, they have a conflict in choosing the right type of English conditionals. At first sight, this is an indication of mother tongue interference- an old habit related to one's first language hinders or facilitates the formation of a new habit - since in Turkish, there is no clear-cut distinction especially between improbable and impossible conditionals:

e.g. the sentence:

Bilsem, sana söylerdim.

can be translated into English as either:

If I knew, I would tell you.

<div align="center">or</div>

If I had known, I would have told you.

At the same time, it is possible to interfere improbable with probable conditionals:

e.g. the sentence:

Senin yerinde olsam, bu evi alırım.

can be translated into English as follows:

If I am you, I will buy this house.

<div align="center">instead of</div>

If I were you, I would buy this house.

This is only one side of the case. Turkish learners can make syntactical errors in the production of conditional sen-

tences as well.

In Probable Conditionals:

i. If it isn't rain, they go to the zoo tomorrow.

instead of

If it doesn't rain, they will go to the zoo tomorrow.

ii. If I will go, I will give your regards to my family.

instead of

If I go, I will give your regards to my family.

iii. If Peter remember, he can telephone this evening.

instead of

If Peter remembers, he will telephone this evening.

iv. If it good, we'll go out.

instead of

If it is good, we'll go out.

In Improbable Conditionals:

i. If I was know, I were go there.

instead of

If I knew, I would go there.

ii. If I were rich, I could buy a fine house.

instead of

If I were rich, I would buy a fine house.

iii. If I were you, I never read it.

instead of

If I were you, I would never read it.

iv. If he were here, he assisted us.

instead of

If he were here, he could assist us.

In Impossible Conditionals:

i. If I listened to you, I didn't go to New York.

instead of

If I had listened to you, I wouldn't have gone to New York.

ii. If you studied before, you can pass the exam.

instead of

If you had studied before, you could have passed the exam.

iii. If I had know, I wouldn't have do it.

instead of

If I had known, I wouldn't have done it.

iv. If Helen wouldn't have gone to class, she hadn't learned.

instead of

If Helen hadn't gone to class, she wouldn't have learned.

1.1. PURPOSE AND SCOPE

The thesis attempts to establish some criteria on the sources of the problems Turkish learners face in learning and using conditional sentences and to do a case analysis on this issue.

In the scope of this study, the aims of the overall study can be enumerated as follows:

i. to identify the problem areas in the production of conditionals for Turkish learners of English;

ii. to classify the errors according to their possible sources;

iii. to find out whether the time of receiving language instruc-
   tion in English is an important factor in learning condition-
   al sentences or not;

iv. to reach a conclusion which states the implications for teach-
   ing conditionals.

The identification of the most problematic conditional
type will be the diagnosis of the problem while the classification
of the error types will be the explanation of the possible sources
which lay on this problem. Finding out the importance of time of
receiving English instruction in learning conditionals will
provide ideas about teaching these constructions and preparing
the curriculum.

In order to accomplish the aims mentioned above, as tech-
niques, Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA) are
employed.

In predicting the problem areas, that is, the most problem-
atic type of the conditional, a contrastive analysis of condition-
als in Turkish and in English is done on the basis of semantic
universals.

For verifying the predictions on the basis of a contrast-
ive analysis, EA is applied to three groups of students at the
Anadolu University, Eskişehir. The EA data is obtained from a
translation test administered to these seventy-five students from
Faculty of Education, Open Faculty and Faculty of Engineering.
Translation is employed as an evaluative tool rather than pedagog-

ical since observations made by Turkish teachers of English indicate that Turkish learners can easily show their competence on conditionals only with this kind of technique. The importance of time in learning conditionals is attempted to find out with the above three groups from different language backgrounds.

In the light of the results of the overall study, some practical suggestions about how Turkish learners' problems with conditionals can be remedied are given. Finally, limitations and suggestions for further research are mentioned.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Contrastive Analysis (CA) as a systematic branch of linguistic science is of fairly recent date - though it is not really a new idea (Nickel,1971:2). CA can be defined generally as a method which shows differences and similarities among languages. It has been developing on a large scale since the late sixties within the field of Applied Linguistics. But until the forties and the fifties of the present century CA was considered a useful tool for translation and language typology; in other words, this was the theoretical side of CA. The major issues of theoretical CA were the choice of model for contrastive analysis, the notions of equivalence and contrast, the form of contrastive descriptions, the scope and status of CA (Fisiak,1980:4).

The second world war aroused great interest in foreign language teaching in the United States, so contrastive studies were recognized as an important part of foreign language teaching methodology and, as a result, more applied relevance was assigned to CA (Fries,1945). With intensive study of the native and the target languages, linguists have provided teachers with CA studies.Recog-

nition of the importance of the students' native language in
foreign language learning has led to the development of the field
of research known as CA (Rivers&Temperley,1978:151).

2.1.1. THE RELEVANCE OF CA TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

The language teaching profession began to pay a great deal
of attention to the very widely accepted CA hypothesis with the
existence of behavioristic psychology and of structural linguis-
tics. This hypothesis claims that 'the deviant' behavior of the
learner is the direct result of the transfer of L1 habits into
L2, and that the linguistic contrasts between the two languages
in question will enable the linguist to predict the difficulties
a learner will encounter.

It was considered feasible that the tools of structural
linguistics would enable a linguist to describe accurately the
two languages in question, and to match those two descriptions
against each other to determine valid contrasts, or differences,
between them. Behaviorism contributed to the notion that human
behavior is the sum of its smallest parts and components, and
therefore that language learning could be described as the acqui-
sition of all of these discrete units. Moreover, human learning
theories highlighted interfering elements of learning (1),con-
cluding that where no interference could be predicted, no diffi-
culty would be experienced since one could transfer (2) positively
all other items in a language. The logical conclusion from these
various psychological and linguistic assumptions was that second

or foreign language learning basically involved the overcoming of the _differences_ between the native and target languages (Brown , 1980:148).

Some claims were made of the CA hypothesis among language teaching experts and linguists. It is possible to mention these claims in the following titles: Strong Version, Weak Version, and Moderate Version.

For the strong claim, the 'deviant' behavior of the learner is the direct result of the transfer of the 'habits' of the L1 into the L2. Those who make the strong claim (Lado,1957;Banathy,Trager &Waddle, 1966;Dulay&Burt, 1972) are clearly committed to CA not only as a means of explaining error but also a technique for predicting error. Once the areas of contrast have been isolated, the teacher can devise drills which will be problematic before they ever have a chance to emerge and become established as habits. Then, the strong claim is highly predictive in having a clear picture of the problem areas even before the learner has started to learn.

According to Wardhaugh (1970), the strong claim was quite unrealistic and unapplicable. The most convincing critism of the strong version of the CA hypothesis was offered by Whitman & Jackson (1972). They pointed out that CA is inadequate to predict the interference problems of a language learner.

For the weak claim, the structure of the L1 provides only

a partial explanation of the phenomena involved in L2 learning. The weak version does not imply the a priori prediction of certain fine degrees of difficulty. It recognizes the significance of interference across languages, the fact that such interference does exist and can explain difficulties. But it also recognizes that linguistic difficulties can be more profitably explained a posteriori -after the fact. In other words, post facto analysis of the errors currently being made by learners is likely to be of far greater value in designing the syllabus than any a priori comparison of the languages involved.

Oller&Ziahosseiny (1970) (3) proposed a moderate form of the CA on the basis of a rather interesting study of spelling errors. They noted that the strong version was too strong and the weak version too weak, but that a moderate version that centers on the nature of human learning, and just on the contrast between two languages, has more explanatory power.

2.1.2. METHODOLOGY IN CA

In this section, the old and the new approaches to the methodology of CA studies will be surveyed and an attempt to provide an adequate - at least an eclectic - method for CA will be made.

A contrastive linguist chooses a model and considers problems with the theory irrelevant to the task (Selinker, 1971:122).

There are two fundamental principles of CA drawn by Lado:

one is 'describe before comparing', the other is 'compare patterns,

not whole languages' (Lado, 1957:67-69). Each pattern-comparison

(4) must be made independently and in its own right (Halliday et

al., 1964:113).

Every contrastive statement presupposes three steps:first,

the separate description of the relevant features of each language;

second, the establishment of comparability; third, the comparison

itself. Since the comparison depends on description, the better

the underlying description the more successful the comparison is

likely to be (Halliday et al., 1964:117).

For Whitman (1970), CA involves the fourth procedure called

'prediction'. One formulates a prediction of error or difficulty

on the basis of the first three procedures (description,selection

and contrast). That prediction can be arrived at through the

formulation of a hierarchy of difficulty or through more subjec-

tive applications of psychological and linguistic theory.

Stockwell, Bowen & Martin (1965) proposed a hierarchy of

difficulty as a theoretical basis for error prediction dependent

on a much more sophisticated analysis of types of differences

between the two languages. However, this hierarchy was much more

complex than a simple interference model, so it has never been

rigorously tested against case study data or in experimental

research.

The approach (described above) to contrasting languages

can be illustrated by the following diagram:

a. GRAMMAR OF L1   GRAMMAR OF L2

| TENSE SYSTEM |
| DECLENSION SYSTEM |
| FORMATION OF QUEST |
| —— |
| —— |
| —— |

TRANSFER RULES

| TENSE SYSTEM |
| DECLENSION SYSTEM |
| FORMATION OF QUEST. |
| —— |
| —— |
| —— |

or b.

| STRUCTURE 1 |
| STRUCTURE 2 |
| STRUCTURE 3 |
| . |
| . |
| . |

TRANS-
FER
RULES

| STRUCTURE 1 |
| STRUCTURE 2 |
| STRUCTURE 3 |
| . |
| . |
| . |
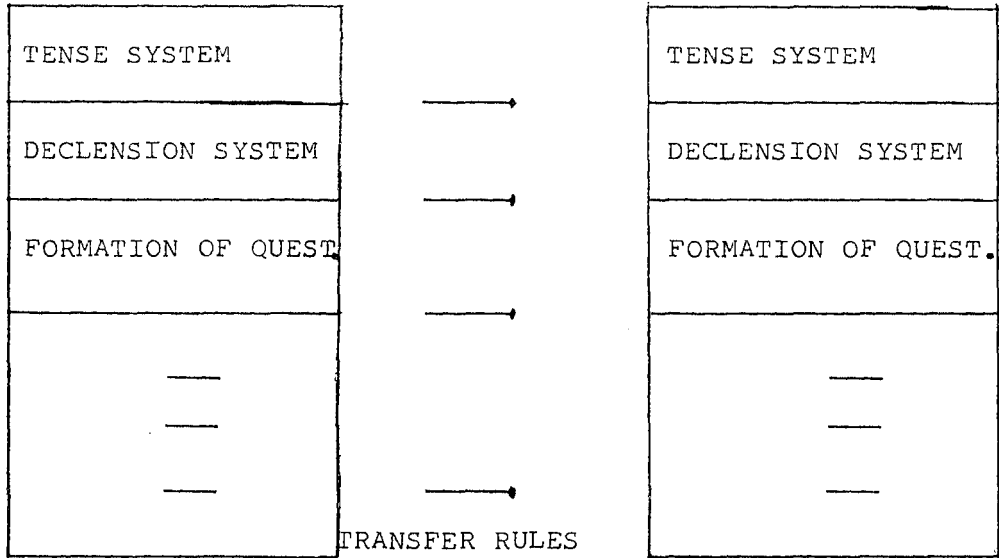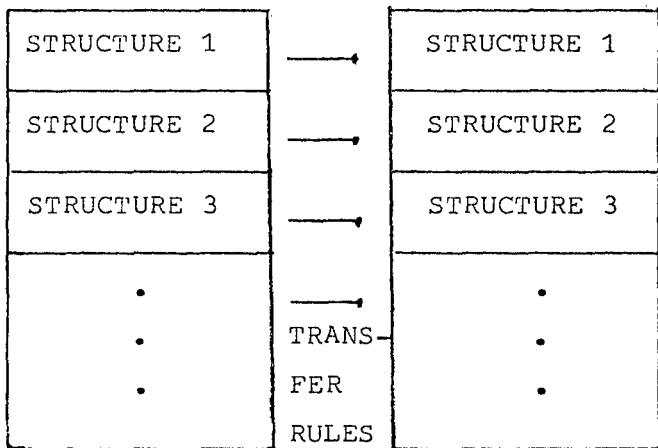
(Lipiṅska, 1980:173)

Against this approach, Lipiṅska (1980) proposes another
approach based upon 'Generative Semantics' (5) by critizing the
structuralist point of view (See further Van Buren, 1974):

Structuralists analyzed language as a phenomenon
per se and described its units and patterns with-
out any reference to anything outside language.
The units of the system were justified within the
system itself. Transformational theory not only
stresses the connection between language and
thought, and deterministic relationship between
human cognition and human language, but also
seeks as its goal to state this relationship
explicitly. The assumption of TG is that basic-
ally the cognitive and perceptional processes
of humans are the same, they are reflected in
a consistent and systematic way in all lan-
guages (1980:169).

And she also proposes a meaning-based CA since she claims
that the syntax-based model cannot cope with a number of grammat-
ical phenomena and she goes on, "meaning and structure of language
cannot be treated separately; there is no natural boundary between
syntax and semantics. Any such boundary is artificial". We can do
the CA by the help of realization and transfer grammars. In other
words, CA must be based on the systematic distinction between
what is common and what is different and how it is different.

This approach can be illustrated by the following diagram:

```
         ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
         │   UNIVERSAL SEMANTIC PRIMES         │
         └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                    │   │   │              Formation rules
                    ▼   ▼   ▼
         ┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
         │   SEMANTIC REPRESENTATIONS          │
         └─────────────────────────────────────┘
                  │   │   │   │           Common realization rules
             A.   │   │   │   │           for all languages
                  ▼   ▼   ▼   ▼
         ──────────────────────────────
                                             Common realization rules
             B.  │   │   │   │               for L1 and L2
                 ▼   ▼   ▼   ▼
         ──────────────────────────────
```

Realization   ─────────────►   Realization rules
rules of L1   ─────────────►   of L2
(and not L2)   ─────────────►   (and not L1)
─────────────   TRANSFER   RULES   ─────────────
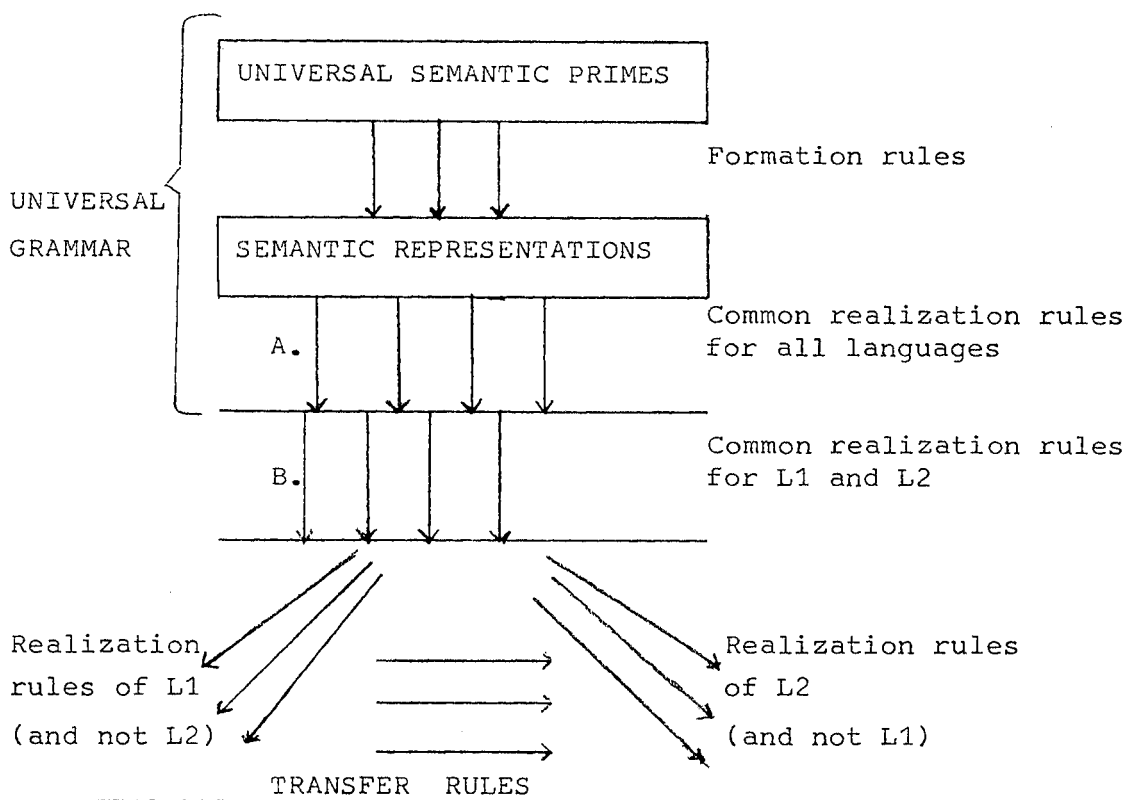
(Lipińska, 1980:173)

However, 'transfer grammar' (6) has been under attack:

> Comparison in the normal way brings together two
> languages which have been separately and indepen-
> dently described, with the categories appropriate
> to each; such comparison is therefore neutral,as
> it were, and gives equal weight to the languages
> concerned. In transfer comparison,on the other hand,
> one starts from the description of one language and
> then describes the second language in terms of the
> categories set up for the first. The traditional
> descriptions of English are in a sense transfer
> comparisons based on Latin; they might have been
> very useful for ancient Romans studying modern
> English (Halliday et al., 1964:120).

As seen above, both the old and the new approaches have inadequate parts in themselves. The old one studies the surface grammatical patterns from the structuralist point of view and the new, the deep structure from the generativist point of view. In other words, the former advocates the assumption that languages are different, the latter assumes that languages resemble each other in certain ways. As Lipińska points out,one cannot make a distinction between syntax and semantics, so the adequate model will be a combination of 'generative semantics' and 'structuralism' and consist of the following procedures:

1- making semantically inductive generalizations about the select-
   ed certain linguistic item(s);
2- describing this or these linguistic item(s) in L1 and L2
   separately;
3- contrasting the concerned structures in L1 and L2;
4- prediction of the problematic areas for the learners of second
   language.

2.1.3. CONTRAST AND TRANSLATION

Since translation can be regarded as a special type of the comparison, CA includes the theory of translation (Halliday et al., 1964:112).

According to Corder (1973:233), one must assume three concepts while doing syntactic comparison:(1)an equivalence of meaning between the languages,(2)formal equivalence between the

languages,(3)equivalence of <u>nomenclature</u> -similarity of the

terminology used for describing each language.

In contrasting two languages, one is to find a criterion

for 'being comparable'. This is related to the problem of equiva-

lence. To establish that these are comparable, one needs to show

their contextual equivalence; this can be done most simply by

reference to translation. If the items are not at least sometimes

equivalent in translation, they are not worth comparing. Having

decided that the sets of items are comparable, one asks to what

extent they are formally equivalent (Halliday et al., 1964:115).

Halliday et al. regard translation as the relation between

two or more texts playing an identical part in an identical situa-

tion. But this is a 'more or less' not a 'yes or no' relation,

since 'identical part' and 'identical situation' are not absolute

concepts. In the first place, two situations in which the language

activity is in different languages are <u>ipso facto</u>, not identical.

More important is the second point:that situations vary across

cultures.

Bańczrowski (1974:325) points out that 'one of the suffi-

cient criteria of 'being comparable' is <u>semantic</u> equivalence',

without excluding other equivalence criteria (phonetic,phonolo-

gical,morphological,formal,lexical).Whereas formal equivalence

can be established relatively easily, it is a most difficult

problem to set up any kind of functional - semantic equivalence.

Since individual languages possess systems and subsystems peculiar

to themselves, every function and construction within the language must be regarded as a part of the whole. One cannot go into this problem either, since it is in principle incapable of solution. Probably the best one can do is to take a pragmatic view and approach it by way of a notion of 'quasi-equivalence' with approximate values, as is done in the field of translation (Nickel, 1971 :5).

As Nida put it:'there can be no exact translations'(1964: 156)(See further Keenan, 1978). Such as assertion is completely understandable, and it results from the impossibility of achieving absolute correspondences between two languages. Sometimes, however, it is also hard to find expressions which are relatively equivalent. This difficulty originates from the differences both in the structure of the extralinguistic reality and in the specific ways in which a language reflects this reality (c.f.Lado, 1966:78).

2.1.4. TRANSLATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Translation has had a part as a technique in foreign language teaching for a long time. It became the single dominant feature of language learning exercises with the grammar-translation methodology. It was the keystone of the learning and testing process in this approach. Direct-method theorists deemphasized it as a learning device, excluding it from early instruction as much as possible, while admitting it as an art at advanced stages. Audio-lingual textbooks in the foreign language situation often printed native language translations opposite the early dialogues,

or on the reverse of the page,and included translation drills for practice (Rivers & Temperley, 1978:325).

The main objection to translation as a teaching device has been that it interposes an immediate process between the concept and the way it is expressed in the foreign language;thus hindering the development of the ability to think directly in the new language (Rivers & Temperley, 1978:326).Those who are against the use of translation in foreign language learning (i.e.Söll,Friedrich, Göller) maintain that translation should be banned from the syllabus in particular in the beginning stages of foreign language learning.

Those who advocate the use of translation in foreign language class (i.e. Dobson,Sepp,Stern) point out that translation saves time and 'makes learning more exact' and it can be efficiently used to test comprehension.

Then,what should be one's standpoint? According to Kocaman (1985),"the best standpoint seems to take 'a balanced view'":

> The total exclusion of translation from FL class should be out of the question.... At secondary school level,some complicated lexis can be translated,grammatical ambiguities (such as infinitive vs gerund) can be clarified and perhaps instructions to the exams can be employed to develop communicative competence in particular ......in many ways. Concentrating on text rather than sentence level at this stage,students can be made familiar with functions (predicting,apologizing,stating,etc)and notions (time,space,distance,etc).

He proposes a comparison of SL (source language) and TL
(target language) which will be useful in terms of sensitizing
different uses of both languages (formal,informal,colloquial,etc)
and points out that 'translation is not harmful if used wisely'
but it is not a sole device in foreign language teaching.

For Crystal (1981:113),there is a gap between translation
theory and practice and in order to bridge this gap, a new
educational emphasis should develop by spending many years in
educating teachers to see the point of changing their techniques.
Such a field of 'applied translation studies' would integrate
psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic principles and techniques
in order to evaluate the assumptions and attitudes of the transla-
tion consumer.

This is the role of translation as a teaching device,but
the standpoint is,here,to use translation as an evaluative device
for supplying the error analysis data.

2.1.5. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF CA

Contrastive Analysis does not aim at drawing the students'
attention constantly and systematically to language contrasts.
Its objective is to aid the textbook writer in collecting and
arranging his material and to help the teacher in presenting his
subject-matter.Both the writer and the teacher require a knowledge
of contrastive grammar in order to be able to predict, explain,
correct and eliminate errors due to interference between native

and target language (Nickel, 1971:15).

It is generally admitted that the various branches of linguistics have had a promoting influence on foreign language pedagogy; but contrastive study appears to be more closely associated with the planning of textbook and curriculum content in order to prevent and remedy interference from native language habits. However, the predicting power of CA is now seriously questioned; it is being confronted with approaches that are more directly concerned with student performance (Buteau, 1974:20).

In the preparation of teaching materials, contrastive methods can be applied both in finding out which features of the foreign language are the most likely sources of errors due to interference,and also in describing these features in such a way as to minimize their undesirable effect. This is the preventive use of comparison. Contrastive methods can be used in the explanation of errors which the student has committed and in the preparation of remedial exercises and drills designed to eliminate errors already observed. This is the stage of treatment and cure.

But the diagnosis of errors has nothing to do with comparison. Here, the concern is with the analysis of an error,not with the study of its causes; and such analysis is a purely descriptive matter (Halliday et al., 1964:119). It is extremely useful to construct a purely descriptive framework for the analysis and notation of errors,taking into account the level of language and the various categories involved.There are two ways of choosing between

different analyses:this can be done either descriptively or comparatively.Descriptively, the analysis which yields a simpler correction will be preferred. It might be decided that if an error can be shown to be explicable as native language interference,this explanation is to be preferred and exploited remedially.In this case, the choice is made comparatively, that analysis being adopted which can best be regarded as due to interference.The teacher may regard this as the most effective way of treating an error even if he is not covinced that interference was the cause of it. Conversely,the teacher faced with a class of students having different native languages may prefer the analysis which is most easily accounted for descriptively,since even if he thinks the error was due to interference he cannot exploit this in the classroom (Halliday et al., 1964:119).

CA also has a part to play in the evaluation of errors. However,the problems of foreign language teaching will certainly not be solved by CA alone.The psychology of learning will also have to contribute to the investigation of interference phenomena since the latter may well be highly idiosyncratic in many cases (Nickel, 1971:15).

CA serves to remind both the teacher and the textbook writer that in foreign language learning,two languages are to be taken into consideration:the target language and the native; that specific and carefully programmed material designed to overcome the particular linguistic hurdles blocking the way of the learner should be utilized (Saint-Pierre, 1968:40).

There are many factors that a teacher must take into consideration when deciding the order of presentation for language teaching materials,and CA does not constitute the sole criterion (Van Buren, 1974:311).

The effect of CA in teaching practice will vary accordingly to teaching objectives and age of the learners. Not all the results of contrastive analyses will be utilized for practical work(Nickel, 1971:15). Finally, one can say that CA is not merely relevant for foreign language teaching.It can make useful contributions to machine translation and linguistic typology (Nickel, 1971:2).

2.2. ERROR ANALYSIS

As explained in the previous section, CA stresses the inter-fering effects of the first language on second language learning. This view ignores the intralingual effects of learning and not all sources of difficulty and error can be explained as native language 'interference' (Brown,1980:162;Rivers & Temperley,1978: 151).Arising from the failure of CA to adequately account for student errors, references began appearing in the literature to a new technique:error analysis (EA). It has been proposed in several places as an alternative or supplement to CA (Schumann & Stenson, 1974:3).

EA grew out of transformational linguistic theory and the notion of language as a rule-governed system.Its relevance to Chomsky's (1965) duality theory of competence and performance

and more particularly,its relatedness to the objectives of CA make it a worthwhile area of investigation (Buteau,1974:20).

With the emergence of transformational linguistic theory, applied linguists changed their attitude to errors.They assumed:

a)learning a language implies making assumptions about the struc-
   ture of language,
b)on the basis of these assumptions the learner formulates hypo-
   theses about the structure of the TL which he tests out on
   native speakers,
c)his incorrect hypotheses - his errors - give them direct access
   to the assumption he is making about the new language (Bell,
   1981:180).

EA as first systematized by S.P. Corder (1967;1971) has grown through the invention of the 'interlanguage' to an accommo-dation of mother tongue and TL analysis - seen in terms of 'lan-guage transfer' - with studies in universal syntax (Taylor,1986: 144).

Interlanguage(See Selinker,1972) refers to the separateness of a second language learner's system, a system that has a struc-turally immediate status between the native and target languages. Nemser (1971) refers to the same general phenomenon in second lan-guage learning but stresses the successive approximation to the TL in his term approximative system.Corder (1971:151) uses the term idiosyncratic dialect to connote the idea that the learner's

language is unique to a particular individual.While each of these designations emphasizes a particular notion, they share the concept that second language learner is forming his own self-contained linguistic system.This is neither the system of the NL nor the system of the TL,but instead falls between the two.The interlanguage hypothesis led to a whole new era of second language research and teaching in the early 1970s and represented a significant breakthrough from the shackles of the CA hypothesis (Brown, 1980:163).

The interlanguage hypothesis regards the speech of a second language learner as a real language with a systematic grammar.This interlanguage is thought to develop in successive acquisitional stages during the learning process. Selinker (1972) has suggested that the process might be examined by studying fossilizations.Corder believes that the process would be revealed by making longitudinal studies of a second language learning(Schumann, 1974:146-147).

In order to confirm the interlanguage hypothesis as developed by Corder (1967),Selinker (1972)and Nemser (1971),longitudinal studies of second language acquisition will have to be made.

2.2.1. ISSUES IN EA

2.2.1.1. Fossilization

Interlanguages contain a certain amount of what Selinker has called 'fossilizable structures'.By these he understands

'linguistic items,rules,and subsystems which speakers of a parti-
cular NL will tend to keep in their IL (=interlanguage)relative
to a particular TL,no matter what the age of the learner or
amount of instruction he receives in the TL'(Selinker,1972:215).
He also points out that fossilizable structures tend to remain as
potential performance and reappear in the level of performance
when the learner is forced to deal with very difficult material,
when he is in a state of anxiety,or when he is extremely relaxed.

Turkish learners of English usually use "past simple"
instead of "present perfect",since Turkish has -dI/-mIş as a
counterpart of present perfect or they interfere "between" with
"among" or they have a tendency to use "to" as the correspondence
of -yE in Turkish in every situation,e.g. * (7) I'm going to home;
* The kitchen looks to a garden (Demircan, 1978:48).These struc-
tures Turkish learners use incorrectly in the level of perform-
ance can be examples of fossilization.

How do items become fossilized? Until recently there was
little attempt to grapple with the cognitive or affective dimen-
sions of fossilization.But now fossilization can be seen as
consistent with the laws of human learning.Vigil & Oller (1976)
provide a formal account of fossilization as a factor of positive
and negative affective and cognitive feedback.They note that
there are two kinds of information transmitted between sources
(learners) and audiences (native speakers):information about the
affective relationship between source and audience,and cognitive
information - facts,suppositions,beliefs.Affective information

is primarily encoded in terms of gestures,tone of voice,facial

expressions while cognitive information is usually conveyed by

means of sounds,phrases,structures,discourse.The feedback a

learner gets from his audience can be either positive,negative,

or neutral.

Fossilized items,then,are those ungrammatical or incorrect

items in the speech of a learner which gain first positive affect-

ive feedback,then positive cognitive feedback,reinforcing an in-

correct form of language (Brown, 1980:182-183).

Lauerbach (1977:211) stresses the fact that we still lack

discovery procedures for fossilizable (or fossilized)structures,

or reliable criteria which could allow us to distinguish them

from errors committed on the basis of 'transitional competence'

(See Corder, 1967).

2.2.1.2. EA And The Monitor

Krashen (1976,1977a,1977b,1982) claims in the "Monitor

Model" that the adult second language learner has two means for

internalizing rules of the TL.The first is acquisition, a sub-

conscious and intuitive process of constructing the system of a

language.The other means is learning, a conscious representation

of rules usually in a deductive or pedagogically oriented context.

The Monitor is part of learning:it is the act of checking one's

output with his conscious knowledge of the second language to

make corrections of errors.When people have time or when they

focus on form or when they know the rule,the error pattern chan-
ges,reflecting the contribution of the conscious grammar.

Some of the individual variation in adult second language
acquisition and performance can be accounted for in terms of dif-
ferential use of the conscious Monitor.Studies of case histories
suggest that there may be three basic types of performer(Krashen,
1978;Stafford & Covitt,1978;Kounin & Krashen,1978).

1- Monitor Over-Users:those who attempt to monitor all the time;
2- Monitor Under-Users:those who prefer not to use their conscious
   knowledge;
3- The Optimal Monitor Users:those who use the Monitor when it is
   appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication.
   Producing optimal users is suggested by Krashen(1982:19).

Fossilization may occur when the Monitor breaks down-that
is,when the learner receives positive affective and cognitive
feedback,he may be inclined not to monitor his speech."Correction
of errors can result from both acquisition and learning though
in pedagogical settings it is often the Monitor which accounts
for error correction" (Brown, 1980:183).

2.2.1.3. Developmental Sequences And Stages of Acquisition

Are there uniform patterns of acquisition that apply to
all second language learners? Are there identifiable stages ;
developmental sequences of learning?

Hatch (1974) found that there seemed to be a universal sequence in the development of English as a second language.Ravem (1968,1970),Huang (1971),and Adams (1974),studying Norwegian, Chinese, and Spanish speaking children learning English as a second language found the stages in the second language development of English to parallel those of native English children.Both Dato (1970),studying children learning Spanish as a second language, and Ervin-Tripp (1974),studying children learning French as a second language concluded that second language learning is similar to first language learning.In addition,evidence indicates that the strategies of second language learning may be fundamentally the same as those of first language acquisition since the systematic errors made by all language learners are similar (Corder 1967; Selinker 1972;Dulay & Burt 1972;Richards 1973;Taylor 1974;Boyd 1975).

A series of studies conducted by Dulay & Burt (1972,1974a, 1974b) supported the notion of an <u>invariant sequence</u> of acquisition of eleven morphemes among English learners from varying language backgrounds.This sequence was found to be strikingly similar to the sequence of acquisition for the same morphemes for children acquiring English as their first language.Dulay & Burt claimed that their findings provided evidence of the negligible effect of interference on second language learning.Since then, however,a number of studies (Larsen-Freeman 1976;Rosansky 1976; Andersen 1978) have challenged this notion.The interference of the first language is an important factor in second language learning for both adults and children.Moreover,eleven morphemes

form a very small and almost insignificant proportion of total language upon which to base global judgements.But Dulay & Burt's research suggests that it may be possible to identify stages and sequences of acquisition.

At present,however,the tremendous variability of language acquisition patterns seems to preclude the dim hope of finding such universals (Brown, 1980:184).

2.2.1.4. Pidginization And Creolization

Research supports the notion that second language learning has much in common with the pidginization and the creolization of languages. A pidgin is a mixed language or jargon usually arising out of two languages coming into contact for commercial,political or even social purposes.The vocabulary of at least two languages is incorporated into the pidgin,and simplified grammatical forms are used. A creole is a similarly derived language spoken as a mother tongue.

Smith (1971) analyzes language into three functions:communicative,interative (affirmation of social identity) and expressive (expression of psychological need).Pidgins are functionally restricted to the communication.As a result,pidginization produces interlanguage which is simplified and reduced.So, one can expect a learner's interlanguage to reflect some of the simplifications and reductions that are found in pidgins.

When a pidgin creolized,it must serve all three language functions.It becomes a vehicle for marking one's social identity and expressing psychological needs and states.When the second language learner attempts to use his interlanguage for integrative and expressive purposes it will complicate and expand in ways similar to creolization.Redundancy will increase,obligatory tense markers will tend to develop,speed in speech will increase as a result of morphophonemic reductions in primary stress and finally the lexicon will usually undergo extensive development (Schumann, 1974:150).

In early second language learning,rejection of redundancy leads to a pidgin-like simplification in morphology that all language teachers have observed:

a.verb inflections:He play baseball every day.

He play baseball yesterday.

b. plural inflection:We have many pretty dress.

He bought five book.

c. possessive inflection:He has John book.

We drive he father car.

(Schumann, 1974:151)

Language learners also tend to delete certain grammatical transformations which appear redundant and thus they produce question forms similar to pidgins:

He open the door?

Where he put the book?

What she say?   (Schumann, 1974:151)

One would conclude that the learner instinctively attempts to bring two languages - TL and NL - together to form a unique language,an interlanguage.It is perhaps only with great persistence that the learner overcomes his pidginization tendency,weeds out interlanguage forms,and adopts the second language exclusively.

2.2.2. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EA

It is crucial to discuss the relevance of EA and the interlanguage to language teaching.These days, a learner-based approach is common in modern language teaching.With this respect,the major focus of activity in the classroom should be on communication,so there will be occasions when teachers should tolerate goofs (Burt & Kiparsky,1972:11 in Tucker,1974:191).Recent linguistic data support the thesis that overt correction is unnecessary and, indeed, inadvisable (Holley & King, 1974:81).

But some correction is beneficial.According to Harmer (1983:62-64),correction procedure can consist of two basic stages: a)showing incorrectness by repeating,echoing,denying,questioning, expression and b)using correction techniques,such as student correction and teacher correction.

The teacher must face a twofold problem:what to correct and how to correct.It depends on how much an error interferes with comprehension. A knowledge of possible sources of error,of the methods of EA,and of the linguistic properties of the second language can help the foreign language teacher to provide a

grammatical explanation or correction (Brown, 1980:185).

For McDonough (1981:123-124), there are two problems in language teaching in terms of EA status (See also Jain, 1974). The first problem is the absence of a theory of learning processes to systematise the labelling of errors and to relate them to the evolution of correct performance.The second one is the teacher's treatment of error.It is clear that avoidance of error is im-possible;tolerance of error may be unproductive,but prediction and diagnosis of error may be all-important.Prediction of error can be the basis for a systematic 'guided discovery' method of teaching; the most instructive errors can be prepared and profit-ably utilised.

But with regard to materials and curricula,it has been shown that errors cannot be predicted,precisely,for each student of a foreign language.Foreign language materials therefore cannot be grammatically sequenced to meet the needs of all learners.

Rather than engaging in overt correction of individual students,teacher assistance should be geared toward enabling the class to discover what it can do correctly within specified limits.Student errors should be dealt with as a necessary feature of experimentation in the language.Such experimentation may be as important as repetition practice,if not more so (Holley & King, 1974:88).

2.3. <u>CONCLUSION</u>

Present-day thinking still accepts that the NL will have
an influence on the way the learner comes to terms with the TL
but today few would argue that it is the only or even the chief
influence and would place CA and EA together as techniques which
can provide the teacher with insights into the learning process
(Bell, 1981:182).

Learners need to see both the implications of their errors
and the implications of the correct forms in their relationships
to the other elements of the TL.If they do not,they will not
become conscious of the need to restructure their view of the
language in a specific area.Often a quick comparison of an error
in the TL with what learners know about their NL will become the
catalyst in helping them organize grammatical relationships cor-
rectly in their minds.

CA,then,is one of the tools which the teacher has avail-
able for gaining language contrasts and is a further tool which
can be used for sharpening the student's language competence.EA
can reveal the systematic problems of one or a group of learners
- problems which CA may never predict but which can be solved by
an analysis of their occurrences and attention to their causes
(Di Pietro, 1971:16).

If one compares the weak form of CA to EA, he finds that
in fact they both make their departure from the same point: the

TL as the student speaks it.Both attempt to account for observed facts.Differences arise at the next step - how to account for the data observed.CA looks for points of <u>interference</u> from the student's native language,while EA considers errors only in terms of <u>the student's formulation</u> of the TL system.These two approaches are not inconsistent,but,rather,focus on different problems within the same approach.Therefore,Schumann & Stenson (1974:3-4) suggest that CA in its weak form should be considered just one aspect of the larger area of EA.Moreover,both are specific forms of linguistic analysis.

NOTES

(1) Previously learned material interferes with subsequent material.In other words, a previous item is incorrectly transferred or incorrectly associated with an item to be learned.

(2) Transfer is a general term describing the carryover of previous performance or knowledge to subsequent learning.Positive transfer occurs when the prior knowledge benefits the learning task.Negative transfer occurs when the previous performance disrupts the performance on a second task.

(3) Oller,John W. & Seid M. Ziahosseiny (1970)"The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Spelling Errors",Language Learning,20.

(4) Pattern comparison means comparing the pattern(s) in the NL to the one(s) in the TL,e.g. comparing conditional sentences in Turkish to the ones in English,not the whole grammar system in Turkish to the one in English.

(5) Generative Semantics is an outgrowth of transformational grammar as developed by Harris,Chomsky,Lees,Klima,Postal and others.The generative semantics position is that syntax and semantics cannot be separated and that the role of transformations, and of derivational constraints in general,is to relate semantic representations and surface structures.As in the case of generative grammar,the term 'generative' should be taken to mean 'complete and precise'.

(6) By transfer grammar,one means an approach to the comparison of two languages which results in the rules of the following form:

In conditions γ rule α of the realization grammar of the NL is replaced by the rule β of the realization grammar of the TL,where γ refers to formal conditions represented by specific

configurations of the trees.

For instance, the contrastive parts of the grammatical struc-
tures of English and Spanish (Stockwell 1965 in Lipińska,1980:171)
consist of statements of the following type:

a.Element A in English is element B in Spanish,
b.Element A in English is either B or C in Spanish,
c.Element A in English does not exist in Spanish,
where A and B mean surface elements.Such a grammar meets the requi-
rements of observational adequacy only.

(7)An asterisk before an expression is used to indicate its un-
grammaticality.

CHAPTER III

A CONTRASTIVE STUDY

OF CONDITIONALS IN TURKISH AND IN ENGLISH

3.1. SEMANTIC UNIVERSALS ABOUT CONDITIONALS

3.1.1. The Nature of Semantic Universals

One of the recurring speculations of linguistics is: how far is it possible to apply the same semantic analysis to all natural languages? How far are the rules and categories of meaning,characteristics of the human faculty of language? It is commonly felt that the 'deeper' one gets into the substructure of language the nearer one gets to a common core of linguistic universals (Leech, 1981:231).

Linguists have always been interested in making generalizations about language.Bloomfield (1933:20) believed that it was possible to make useful inductive generalizatins about language.If linguists worked with enough languages,they would find certain kinds of phenomena occurring time and time again and they

might expect the same phenomena to occur in still other languages to which they gave their attention.They might also expect their investigative procedures to keep on working.This study on languages would lead them to the claim that languages resemble each other in certain ways.In other words,they have phonemes,morphemes, and grammatical structures (Wardhaugh, 1976:204).

The assumption that all languages are alike in many diffirent respects is basic to work in linguistics.Structuralists believe that all languages exhibit the kinds of structures they regard as essential to language.So do generativists.

The emphasis on looking exclusively at language itself for generalizations has led to a search for what are called 'language universals'.These properties are more specific than such general characteristics as system,duality,contrast,and so on.

Greenberg (1963) has long been interested in language universals largely of a statistical variety.He has listed numerous ways in which all languages resemble each other.One kind of universal is the if-then vriety:if a language has one characteristic, then it must also have another,e.g. if a language has inflections, then it also has derivations,and so forth.

Chomsky (1965:27-30) made the first distinction between formal and substantive universals.Formal universals are general characteristics or rules of language construction such as must be postulated by anyone who aims to construct a general linguistic

theory; substantive universals,on the other hand,are universal
characteristics of human language in terms of what units or ele-
ments or components of a language contains.On the semantic level,
one may associate formal universals with 'universal categories
of conceptual content:examples of statements postulating each
type are:

(a) 'All lexical defnitions in all languages are analysable as a
    set of components' (formal)

(b) 'All languages have the contrast between "animate" and "in-
    animate"' (substantive)

    A second distinction,within the category of substantive
universals,should be made between a strong and weak interpretation
of what 'universal' means (See further McNeill,1971:530-535).The
strong version of a universal hypothesis would say 'all languages
have a category X (antecedent).But common observation of variation
between languages convinces us that in many cases at least,a claim
of this strength is false.So with semantic features as with phono-
logical features,it is natural for a weaker version of a universal
hypothesis to be proposed.This claims that 'There exists a univers-
al set of semantic features,of which every language possesses a
subset'.This hypothesis is so weak as to be vacuous:it could be
satisfied by the limiting case of a purely 'Whorfian' world in
which every language possessed its own set of unique features,and
in which there was no degree of conceptual identity between lan-
guages at all.In practice, such a hypothesis becomes less weak to
the extents that one is able to discover that the same semantic
categories are operating in different languages.But the decision

to espouse the weak universal hypothesis for semantic features

and oppositions is a matter of principle rather than substance

at the present stage of one's knowledge:it means that categories

of meaning can be regarded as 'language-neutral',i.e.as belonging

to the common human faculty of language rather than to the abil-

ity to speak this or that language (Leech, 1981:233).

3.1.2. Semantically Universal Features of Conditionals

Every language has structures for conditions which are

open (1),probable,improbable or impossible.But the structure and

the conditional sense can change from one language to another.

For example,in the Tagalog dialect in the Philippines there is

no subjunctive mood (2). As a result,it becomes impossible to

find literal equivalents and difficult to find conceptual equiva-

lents for e.g. English conditional subjunctive expressions. The

English sentence,"If I had had the money, I would have bought

the dress",can be translated in Tagalog to "Kung mayroon sana

akong pera, na bili ko sana ang baro".The literal translation

of this Tagalog sentence into English would be "If I have the

money (understood I have not),I bought the dress (understood I

did not)". Needless to say,the tense and the conditional sense

seem not to be the same as the original English (Sechrest et al,

1985:222).

To find semantically universal features of conditionals,

first of all,one must begin the issue with identifying the con-

cept of 'factuality'. A fact is something which is assumed act-

ually to take place or to have taken place.This can be seen in the following example:

'They'll send us postcards of the interesting places they visit' presupposes 'They will visit (some) interesting places' and this sentence is factual and truth-committed.But 'If you enjoy history,Rome is the European city for you to visit' does not presuppose 'You will visit/have visited some European city' (Leech, 1981:301).

When one says 'If I go to Paris, I will visit the Eiffel Tower',it carries the probability of factuality but does not show truth-committed state; on the contrary,it has truth-neutral state,that is, we leave the question of truth and falsehood open. Let us see truth-neutral condition in the following examples:

I. S'il pleut,jé resterai dans la maison. (French)

Wenn es regnet,bleibe Ich zu Haus. (German)

Se piove, resto a casa. (Italian)

Yağmur yağarsa, evde kalacağım. (Turkish)

If it rains, I will stay at home. (English)

(=It <u>may</u> rain,then I will stay at home.)

II. Naega almyon, tangsin-ege maal-hakessó. (Korean)

Bilsem, sana söylerim. (Turkish)

If I know it, I shall tell you. (English)

(=I <u>may</u> know it, then I will tell you.)

III. Moshimo kono ho-ga omoshirokereba,yomi-mashoo. (Japanese)

Bu kitap ilginçse,onu okurum. (Turkish)

If this book is interesting,I will read it. (English)

(=This book may be interesting,then I will read it.)

IV. Moshimo anata-ga kore-wo yomu naraba,yoi koto-wo oboe-mashoo.
                                                    (Japanese)

   Bunu okursan, iyi şey öğrenirsin. (Turkish)

   If you read this,you will learn something good. (English)

   (=You may read this,you will learn something good.)

V. S'il fait beau,nous nous promenons. (French)

   Hava güzel olursa, gezeriz. (Turkish)

   If it is beautiful,we will walk around. (English)

   (=It may be beautiful, then we will walk around.)

VI. Cho-i ka kugossul hoji-anumyon,naega hakessó. (Korean)

    O yapmazsa,ben yapacağım. (Turkish)

    If he doesn't do it, I will do it. (English)

    (=Maybe he will not do it,then I will do it.)

VII. U zult kou vatten als u op de tocht zit. (Dutch)

     Ceryanda oturursanız,soğuk alacaksınız. (Turkish)

     If you sit in cold air movement,you will get cold.(English)

     (=You may sit in cold air movement,then you will get cold.)

     Examples from different languages indicate that the con-
ditional form can express a real possibility,open or a truth-
neutral condition (theoretical meaning).Therefore, we reach our
first semantic universal:

1. All languages have the conditional form(s) denoting real pos-

   sibilities or open or truth-neutral conditions.

For the second category of meaning, one must mention 'hypothetical meaning'. It implies an assumption, by the speaker, that the happening described did not, does not or will not take place.

The distinguishing mark of hypothetical meaning is its implication of <u>negative truth-commitment</u>. The exact interpretation, however, varies in accordance with past, present, and future time.

In referring to imaginary past events, the hypothetical forms normally have the categorical sense of 'contrary to fact':

I. If your father had caught us, he would have been furious.
(English)(....but in fact he didn't)

Baban bizi yakalasaydı, çok kızmış olacaktı. (Turkish)

II. S'il avait fait beau, nous nous serions promenès. (French)

Hava güzel olsaydı, gezmiş olurduk. (Turkish)

If it had been beautiful, we would have walked around.

(English)(....but in fact we didn't)

III. Se io fossi stato te, non lo avrei fatto. (Italian)

Senin yerinde olmuş olsaydım, onu yapmazdım. (Turkish)

If I had been you, I wouldn't have done it. (English)

(.....but in fact I wasn't)

IV. S'il avait plu, je serais restè dans la maison. (French)

Yağmur yağsaydı, evde kalacaktım. (Turkish)

If it had rained, I would have stayed at home. (English)

(....but in fact I didn't)

V. Wenn Ich Sie besuhte,brächte Ich das Buch mit. (German)

   Sizi ziyaret etseydim,kitabı beraberimde getirirdim.(Turkish)

   If I had visited you,I would have brought the book with me.

                    (English)(....but in fact I didn't)

   The examples above lead to the second universal about con-
ditionals:

2. **All languages have the conditional form(s) denoting unreal,im-
   possible or contrary-to-fact states in the past.**

      In the semantically present imaginary happenings,the sense
is not so much 'contrary-to-fact' as 'contrary-to-assumption';in
the future (in meaning),it is weakened further to 'contrary-to-
expectation':

I. If you really loved me,you'd buy me everything I want.

   (..but I assume that you do not love me)

II. Se piovesse, resterei a casa. (Italian)

    S'il pleuvait, jè restarais dans la maison. (French)

    If it rained,I would stay at home. (English)

    (....but I assume that it isn't raining)

III. Moshimo watakushi-ga tori-de atta naraba.... (Japanese)

     If I were a bird........ (English)

     (.....but I assume that I am not a bird)

IV. Se io fossi te, non lo farei. (Italian)

    If I were you, I wouldn't do that.(English)

    (....but I assume that I am not you.)

V. S'il faisait beau, nous nous promenerions. (French)

   If it were beautiful,we would walk around. (English)

   (....but I don't expect it will be beautiful)

VI. If it snowed tomorrow,the match would have to be cancelled.

   (....but I don't expect it will snow)

But these meanings are lost in some languages (i.e.Turkish, German, Tagalog,etc).That's why,the third generalization will not include all languages:

3. Some languages have the conditional form(s) denoting exactly contrary-to-assumption state in the present and contrary-to-expectation state in the future.

As a conclusion,some languages have the first and the second semantic universal about conditionals;some have three of them.

3.2. CONDITIONALS IN TURKISH

3.2.1. General Features

There are some forms called 'conditions' which can be real, unreal, open or remote in Turkish.These forms are in the form of the subordinate clause and limit the meaning of the main clause. The subordinate clause usually precedes the main clause in Turkish.However,the position of the clauses can be reversable and this makes the result in the main clause more emphatic.

In the first place,two categorizations should be handled:

a)the type of suffixation employed,

b)the nature of the sentence,i.e. either verbal or nonverbal

   (Tolungüç, 1984:39)

A. Suffixation:

   In Turkish,one should consider two moods:indicative and

subjunctive (3) when one handles the conditional.It is in the

form of desiderative-conditional mood 'Dilek-şart kipi' in sub-

junctive mood.This can be called the 'primary conditional'(Adalı,

1979:60).

I) The desiderative-conditional suffix is -sE. This suffix:

   i. comes directly after the verb stems which finish with a

      consonant or a vowel,e,g. gir-se,söyle-se,kal-sa,acı-sa,

      and so forth;

   ii. becomes either -se or -sa according to the vowel harmony

       in Turkish,e.g. bil-se,yaz-sa,and so forth (Dizdaroğlu,

       1963:16).

   Primary conditional suffix carries two concepts from sub-

junctive mood: desire and condition. That's why,it is called

desiderative-conditional.The clause which contains -sE with the

concept desire is not bound.When it carries the concept condition,

the clause which contains -sE denotes the condition of the other

clause.

Let us look at some usages of desiderative-conditional:

1.It plays a part as the complement of condition:

e.g.Çocuk söz dinlese azarlanmaz.

Çocuklar yaramaz olmasa anneler rahat eder.

2.The elliptical sentences are constructed on the base of -sE:

e.g. Ahmet söz dinlese ....

Polise haber vermezsem ....

3-Both affirmative and negative conditional sentences come together

with dE :

e.g. Siz isteseniz de istemeseniz de o kız beğenmediği kocaya

varmaz.

4- The places of expressions can change:

e.g. Onu daha çok seveceğim bu derece gevezelik etmese.

(Emre,1945:533-535).

If a clause which is constructed with the verb in deside-
rative-conditional mood indicates a condition for another clause,
the verb in desiderative mood is found in the first clause; the
verb of the second predicate is one of the indicative moods.(Diz-
daroglu, 1963:16) and is commonly restricted to -Er (aorist) and
-EcEk (future):

e.g. gel-sem seni gör-ür-üm.

gör-eceğ-im.

I) The other types of desiderative-conditional are obtained by
attaching suffixes -dI or -mIş to -sE.With this suffixation,buffer
consonant y occurs between -sE and -dI or mIş:

e.g. gel-se-y-di-m.

gel-se-y-miş-im.

Here, -mIş gives the conditional clause a dubitative meaning.The
verbs of the predicate of the main clause are restricted to the
combination of -Er or -EcEk and -dI or-mIş (before the personal
suffix) or of -mIş and ol-acak-mIş (and personal suffix).

e.g. gel-se-y-di-m seni gör-ür-dü-m.

gör-ecek-ti-m.

gel-se-y-miş-im seni gör-ür-müş-üm.

gör-ecek-miş-im.

gör-müş ol-acak-mış-ım.

II)The secondary conditional suffix is -IsE and it usually becomes
-sE. This suffix:

a) comes after the tense suffixes in the indicative mood added to
the verb stem and before the personal suffixes:

e.g. gid-er-se-m

gid-iyor-sa-m

gid-ecek-se-m

git-ti-y-se-m

git-miş-se-m

b) does not come after the desiderative-conditional (-sE), the
optative (-E)and the imperative,

e.g.*git-se-se-y-miş-im.

*gel-e-y-se-y-miş-im.

c) is used after the necessative -mElI and the abilitative-possibilitative -EbIl :

e.g. git-meli-y-se-m

    gid-ebil-se-m

The verb of the predicate of the main clause consists of the following suffixes:

-Er with or without -dI or -mIş

-EcEk

e.g. gid-er-se-m gör-ür-üm (ti-m)

          gör-eceğ-im (miş-im)

B. Verbal vs Nonverbal Constructions

Verbal constructions are the forms of which predicates are verbs. These constructions are obtained by adding the tense suffixes to the verb stems as in the following examples:

e.g. gel-ir-im

    gel-iyor-um

    gel-di-m

    gel-eceğ-im

    gel-miş-im

They are also obtained by some combination of tenses:

e.g. gel-ecek-ti-m

    gel-ebil-ir-di-m

    gel-meli-y-di-m

gel-miş ol-malı-y-dı-m

gel-miş ol-acak-tı-m,etc.

In order to examine nonverbal constructions (4) one should

look at forms based on i-. The finite forms based on i-, namely

the present,the past,the inferential,the conditional, all exist

both as independent words and as suffixes.When suffixed, the i-

of the stem is lost after consonants and changes to y after vowels,

while the remainder of the form is subject both to the fourfold

vowel harmony and the alternation d/t (Lewis, 1967:99).

The tense forms of i- are obtained as in the following

groupings of suffixation:

i.By adding personal suffixes to i-, the present form of i- is

achieved;sometimes suffix -dIr is used after personal suffix to

make the meaning more emphatic.

e.g. İyiyim   'I am well'

     Hastadır 'He is ill'

ii. By adding suffix -dI to i-, the past form of i- is obtained:

e.g. idim   'I was'

      idi   'He was'

iii. The inferential or dubitative form of i- is formed by adding

to the base -ImIş,or the suffixed -ymIş or -mIş,etc. the present

suffixes of i-,with the exception of -dIr (Lewis, 1967:101).

e.g.   imiş   'He is/was said to be'

       imişim   'I am/was said to be'

The predicate categories used in the nonverbal constructions as follows:

(1) as a noun:

e.g. Ben Ayşeyim   'I am Ayşe'

    Ahmet öğretmendi   'Ahmet was a teacher'

    O bir kasapmış   'He is/was said to be a butcher'

(2) as an adjective:

e.g. Ali iyidir   'Ali is good'

    Ben kötüydüm   'I was bad'

    Ayşe güzelmiş   'Ayşe is/was said to be beautiful'

(3) as an adverb or adverbial phrase:

e.g.   Evdedir   'He is at home'

    Saat ondaydı   'It was at 10 o'clock'

    Hastanedeymişler 'They are/were said to be in the hospital'

                     (See further Zülfikar,1980:28-29).

The second form based on ol- after the categories above (noun,adjective and adverb) is used to denote the present, the past and the inferential tenses:

e.g.   Hasta olurum   'I become sick'

    Hasta oldum   'I became sick'

    Hasta olmuşum   'I am/was said to become sick'

By adding the suffix -sE or -IsE to verbal or nonverbal

bases,it is possible to get the conditional.But the primary suffix -sE seems to be added directly to the verb stem,i.e. git-se-m, kal-sa-m,etc. while the secondary suffix -IsE comes after the tense marker,i.e. (verbal) gel-ir-ise-m or gel-ir-se-m, gel-iyor-ise-m or gel-iyor-sa-m; (nonverbal) doktor-ise-m or doktor-sa-m,güzel-ise or güzel-se; okul-da-ise or okul-da-y-sa,etc.

C. Negative

In order to obtain the negative form of the conditional,the suffix -mE is added directly:

i. to the verb stem, e.g. gel-me-se-y-di-k, gel-me-se-y-miş-iz, gel-mi-yor-sa,etc.

ii. to the ol- after the nonverbal predicate,e.g.çirkin ol-ma-sa-y-dı,geveze ol-ma-sa-y-mış,okul-da ol-ma-s$_a$-y-dı-k,mühendis ol-ma-sa-y-dı-n,etc.

Also "değil" can be used for negation of the conditional:

e.g.   Evde değil-se

Güzel değil-se

Postacı değil-se,etc.

As seen in the above examples,this word only comes after the nonverbal constructions.

D. Interrogative

The interrogative form of the conditional is made by the help of -mI,e.g.gel-ir-se mi?, gel-miş-se mi?,etc.Besides asking for confirmation of what you have heard - gel-se mi? ' " If he were to come!" do you say?' - the interrogative of the conditional may express indecision: git-se-m mi? 'Should I go?'.

The interrogative of the conditional inferential has alternation forms:

        singular

1. gel-se mi-y-miş-im   or   gel-se-m mi-y-miş

2. gel-se mi-y-miş-sin   gel-se-n mi-y-miş

        plural

3. gel-se mi-y-miş-ler   gel-se-ler-mi-y-miş

The negative interrogative form of the conditional is possible with the occurrence of -mE before -sE, i.e. gel-me-se mi-y-miş-im or gel-me-se-m mi-y-miş-im (Lewis,1967:132), gel-mi-yor-sa mı?, etc.

E. Eğer or Şayet - 'If'

They are the counterparts of 'if' in English and only used in more formal styles or in longer phrases,e.g. "Eğer (or şayet) onu görseydim,selam verirdim.".Their function is only to conjoin the two clauses and they give emphasis to the subordinate clause, but no difference in meaning (Emre,1945:540;Lewis,1983:119; Tolungüç,1984:39).

F. Bari and Bile

The conditional tense with 'bile' 'even' is used in a "concessive" sense:

Orhan'ı sevmesen bile,onunla kavga etmene lüzum yok.

(Underhill,1980:415)

Şimdi gelmese bile yarın gelecektir.

"Bari" is used to say the lowest level of the condition and to denote that this level was not obtained;the sentence is constructed elliptically:

Bari aldığı kız güzel olsa!

Bari gevezelik etmese!   (Emre,1945:538-539).

G. Common Expressions Containing a Conditional Verb

1- -sE has a part as a complement in the sentence:

  a) ne ise 'well,anyway':e.g. İnanmak güç ya ne ise;onun sözüne önem vermeden işimizi düzenliyebiliriz.It has also another form: "her ne ise".

  b) ne de olsa 'nevertheless':e.g. Onun ne kadar kusurları oldu-ğunu ben de kabul ediyorum;fakat ne de olsa;arkadaşımız.

  c)nedense 'for some reason or other':e.g. Fikrini değiştirsin diye çok söyledik nedense ısrar ediyor.Also "her nedense" form of this formula is used.

  d) hiç olmazsa 'at least':e.g. Onun elinden çok şey gelmiyebi-lir,hiç olmazsa yolda ufak tefek hizmetlerimizi görür (Emre, 1945:536).

e)<u>ise</u> 'as for':e.g. Hikmet ise,pek tembeldir.

f)<u>nerede ise</u> 'soon':e.g. Nerede ise ölüyorduk.

g)<u>öyleyse</u> 'if so,in that case':e.g. Öyleyse eve giderler(Lewis,
1983:119;see further Dizdaroglu,1976:213-214).

2- The conditional tense with <u>dE</u> is used in a concessive sense
'even if':e.g. Cogu zaman toplantılara gelmez gelse de bir şey
söylemez (Underhill,1980:415).

3- 'If only ....!' is often introduced by "keşki" or "keşke",e.g.
Keşke gelseler! Keşke gelseydiler! (Lewis,1983:118).

4- The conditional verb followed by <u>dE</u> gives the sense of 'although',
e.g. Ezberlediyse de şiiri iyi okuyamadı (Sebüktekin,1971:105 ;
Gencan,1979:348;Lewis,1983:118).

5- When <u>-sE</u> is followed by <u>-E</u>, it may express commands or requests,
e.g. gelsene,dinlesenize,otursanıza,etc.This may be impatient or
courteous,according to the speaker's tone (Banguoğlu,1974:468 ;
Dizdaroğlu,1976:355;Gencan,1979:292;Lewis,1983:119).

6- The conditional may have a part as a time adverbial clause
'when ....',e.g. "İğne atsan yere düşmez"(Ediskun & Dürder,
1978:179).

7- When two verbs which contain the desiderative-conditional <u>-sE</u>
come together in a clause,they give the sense of reduplication to
the sentence. e.g. Arasa sorsa bir sonuca varır.

        Bilse bilse o bilir.

        Gelse gelse Ali gelir.

        (Sebüktekin,1971:104;Gencan,1979:292;Lewis,1983:
119).

8- The conditional -sE is constructed as 'no matter what,regardless of what',e.g. Kim olursa olsun,ne alırsa alsın(Sebüktekin,1971:105).

9- ıWhoever,Whenever,Whatever':sentences introduced by such expressions are treated as conditionals in Turkish,e.g. "Her ne isterse yapsın";"Kim çalışırsa kazanır";"Ne olursa olsun",etc. (Németh , 1962:106; Sebüktekin,1971:104; Lewis, 1983:118).

H. Other Types of Conditional Sentence

These types do not have -sE base:

1- -E: e.g. İşimizi bitirmiş olaydık, sizinle gezmeğe giderdik (Emre,1945:538;Demiray,1974:130).

2- dE:e.g. Ahmet değil de kimdir? (Lewis,1983:119).

3- -mEdIkçE:'unless',e.g. Paran olmadıkça zorluk çekersin;onu görmedikçe merak ederim.

4- mI;e.g. Orada bulmadılar mı buraya gelirler (Lewis,1967:267; Lewis,1983:119).

5- The base may have a personal participle with 'takdirde', e.g. Bu işi yaptığın takdirde seni affederim (Lewis,1967:267).

6- The sentence may be cast as a reductio ad absurdum;the protasis concedes what the speaker regards as false the apodosis (introduced by dE) asks for an alternative:e.g. Sen yapmadın da kim yaptı? (Lewis,1967:268).

7- In colloquial Turkish,the base may have an imperative instead of a conditional verb:e.g.Uzatma bırakır giderim (Lewis,1967: 268).

3.2.2. Probable Conditionals

As mentioned in 3.1.2.,probable conditionals are used to denote truth-neutral position in which the question of truth and falsehood is left open.In other words,in this type of conditionals, the condition may cometrue or not in the present or in the future.

In Turkish,probable conditionals are formed in the following circumstances:

A: Both the conditional clause and the main clause are formed from verbal sentences,in which the predicates in both clauses are verbs (except the desiderative-conditional -sE).The occurrence of suffixes in the main clause is restricted to -Er, -EcEk, -mElI,or - ϕ (the imperative).Both clauses have the abilitative-possibilitative -EbIl attached to the verb stem before other auxiliaries:

Ankara'ya gid(ebil)irse		onu gör(ebil)ir
gid(ebil)iyorsa		gör(ebil)ecek
gid(ebil)ecekse	+	gör(ebil)meli
gid(ebil)diyse		görsün
gid(ebil)misse		
gid(ebil)meliyse		

The following tables show exactly how the auxiliaries in both the subordinate clause and the main clause are ordered:

Subordinate Clause			
V(ebil)	aux 1	aux 2	Personal suffix
	aorist -Ir continuative -Iyor Future -EcEk Past -dI Inferential -mIş Dubitative Necessitative-mElI	conditional -sE	

Main Clause		
V(ebil)	aux 1	Personal suffix
	aorist -Ir future -EcEk necessitative -mElI imperative - ∅ -	

B: While the main clause is constructed as verbal, the conditional clause is formed from the nonverbal constructions, in which the predicate does not correspond to a verb; suffix -IsE comes after the nonverbal predicates which can be nouns, adjectives or adverbs:

Durumu kötüyse, çok çalışması gerekecek.

Köylüyse, o bu işten anlar.

Gökteysen, fazla bir şey düşünmezsin.

Let us see this position in the tables:

Subordinate Clause				
complement	Copula	buffer consonant	Aux 1	Personal suffix
noun adjective adverb	-I	-y-	conditional -sE	

Main Clause		
V(ebil)	Aux 1	Personal suffix
	aorist -Ir future -EcEk	
	necessitative -mElI imperative - ∅ -	

Here,the main clause can have the abilitative-possibilitative -EbIl before auxiliary 1 and this makes the condition more truth-neutral.

C: In this position,the conditional clause consists of verbal sentences,in which the desiderative-conditional -sE is directly added to the verb stem and in the main clause,the abilitative-possibilitative -EbIl attached to the verb stem before auxiliary 1 is obligatory:

e.g. Gitsen, seninle gelebilirim.

There occurs an ambiguity when we do not make a restrict-
ion on the occurrence of suffix -EbIl in the main clause:

  (1) Kızkardeşim gelse,yalnızlıktan kurtulabilirim.

                                           eceğim.

  (2) Kızkardeşim gelse,yalnızlıktan kurtulurum.

  (3) Kızkardeşim gelse,yalnızlıktan kurtulacağım.

(1) shows a probable situation which can or cannot take place in

  the future while (2) denotes a supposition in the present; (3)

  in the future.So,in other words,-EbIl must be used before auxili-

  ary 1 in the main clause of this type in order not to face such

  an ambiguous situation. The following tables will show exactly

  how the clauses are constructed:

Subordinate Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal suffix
	desiderative conditional -sE	

Main Clause		
V(ebil)	Aux 1	Personal Suffix
	aorist -Ir future -EcEk	

3.2.3. Improbable Conditionals

This type of conditionals denote the contrary-to-assumption state in the present and the contrary-to-expectation state in the future (See 3.1.2.).But in Turkish,there is no clearcut distinction between improbable and impossible conditionals and this causes ambiguities.This issue will be handled in 3.2.4.

In Turkish,improbable conditionals occur in the following circumstances:

A: The desiderative-conditional -sE is directly added to the verb stem in the conditional clause while in the main clause -Er or -EcEk after the verb stem is obligatory:

e.g. Çok zengin olsam,mavi yolculuḡa çıkarım.
                                    çıkacaḡım.

Subordinate Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal Suffix
	desiderative conditional -sE	

Main Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal Suffix
	aorist -Er future -EcEk	

e.g. Çok kitabın olsa, canın hic sıkılmaz.

                                        sıkılmayacak.

B: By adding the desiderative-conditional -sE directly to the verb stem without the past suffixes -dI or -mIş, we form the conditional clause which expresses the improbable conditions when the predicate of the main clause has a combination of -Er and -dI or -mIş:

e.g. Onun yerinde olsam dinlenirdim.

                              mişim.

Subordinate Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal Suffix
	desiderative conditional -sE	

Main Clause			
V	Aux 1	Aux 2	Personal Suffix
	aorist -Er	past -DI inferential -mIş	

e.g. Şansım olsa, beş milyarı kazanırdım.

                              mışım.

C: In this type, the desiderative conditional <u>-sE</u> is attached to the verb stem with the past tense suffixes <u>-dI</u> or <u>-MIş</u> to express the improbable conditions and the predicate of the main clause is composed of <u>-Er</u> plus <u>-dI</u> or <u>-mIş</u> :

e.g. Gözlerimle görseydim ona inanırdım.

Subordinate Clause			
V	Aux 1	Aux 2	Personal Suffix
	desiderative conditional -sE	past -dI & -mIş	

Main Clause			
V	Aux 1	Aux 2	Personal Suffix
	aorist -Er	past -dI -mIş	

e.g. Istanbul'a gitseydim onu ziyaret ederdim.

3.2.4. Impossible Conditionals

Impossible conditionals are used to denote the contrary to fact states in the past as mentioned in 3.1.2. In Turkish, there is no clearcut distiction between improbable and impossible conditionals (See Introduction); this causes ambiguities and improbable conditionals seem to be lost from the semantic point of view.

Let us see these ambiguous situations:

I) The sentence "Çok param olsaydı,araba alırdım" can be translated into English in two ways:

(i) If I had a lot of money, I would buy a car.

(ii) If I had had a lot of money, I would have bought a car.

II) Çok kitabım olsaydı,okumaya fırsatım olmazdı.

(i) If I had lots of books,I would have no opportunity to read them.

(ii) If I had had lots of books, I would have had no opportunity
     to read them.

One can resolve this ambiguity by time adverbial "simdi" 'now'
(Tolunguc,1984):

i) Şimdi çok param olsaydı, araba alırdım.

   If I had a lot of money, I would buy a car.

ii) Şimdi çok kitabım olsaydı,okumaya fırsatım olmazdi.

   If I had lots of books, I would have no opportunity to read
   them.

   The ambiguity can be resolved by context (5) as in the fol-
lowing example:

A: Hey,burada ne yapıyorsun?Şimdi Paris'te olman gerekmez miydi?

   Hey,what are you doing here? Shouldn't you be in Paris now?

B: Yeteri kadar param olsaydı,orada olurdum.

   If I had enough money,I would be there.

A: Hey, geçen yıl Paris'teydin değil mi?

   Hey, you were in Paris last year, weren't you?

B: ᴴayir. Yeteri kadar param olsaydı, orada olurdum.

No. If I had had enough money,I would have been there.

As for other formulas in the construction of impossible con-
ditionals in Turkish, there is a colloquial formula: while the con-
ditional clause is formed by adding -mIş directly to the verb stem
which consists of copula ol- plus desiderative conditional -sE and
-dI, the main clause is composed of the following combinations:

(i) V + -Er   +   -dI + personal suffix
       -EcEk
or

(ii)V ǂ -mIş   ol- + -Er   + -dI   + personal suffix
                      -EcEk

e.g. Cevabını bilmiş olsaydım, söylerdim.
                               söyleyecektim.
                               söylemiş olurdum.
                                      olacaktım.

This can be seen exactly in Tables:

Subordinate Clause					
V	Aux 1	Copula (ol-)	Aux 2	Aux 3	Personal suffix
	-mIş		desiderative cond. -sE	-dI	

(i)

Main Clause			
V	Aux 1	Aux 2	Personal Suffix
	-Er -EcEk	-dI	

or (ii)

	Main Clause				
V	Aux 1	Copula (ol-)	Aux 2	Aux 3	personal suffix
-mIş			-Er -EcEk	-dI	

Yemeği pişirmiş olsaydın, yerdik.

                               yiyecektik.

                           yemis olurduk.

                                   olacaktık.

3.3. CONDITIONALS IN ENGLISH

3.3.1. General Features

In English,the conditions are usually stated in clauses introduced by if, which may come before or after the main or result clause. If suggests something real,unreal,non-existent,contrary-to-fact or future (Praninskas,1975:326).Like in Turkish , in English the conditional clause introduced by if is in the form of the subordinate clause and two parts of the conditional sentence may be written in reverse order with no change in meaning, though the conditional clause tends to become less emphatic when placed second (Graver,1971:89).

There are two points seen at first sight when handled the conditionals in English:

(1) the use of modals

(2) the construction of tenses

There is a great variety of conditional sentences. The three main semantic divisions (6) are: A, those with clauses that contain a condition that may or may not be fulfilled; B,those with clauses in which the condition is combined with improbability or unreality in either present or future; C,those with clauses in which the condition was not fulfilled and is related to past impossibility (Hornby,1975:228).

Examples;

A: If we buy a new car,we won't have any money left.

B: If he had time,he would come.

C: If I had seen him,I would have told him.

These three types of conditional sentences will be handled in detail in 3.3.2.,3.3.3.,and 3.3.4.

Although Praninskas (1975:326) points out that the verb in an if-clause is never the same form as that in the result clause of the same sentence,in some cases it is possible to achieve parallel tenses in each clause:

i. when if corresponds closely in meaning to when(ever):

1)If you've got a million pounds,you don't have to count the pennies.

2)If they wanted something,they bought it.

These sentences are those which show 'cause-effect' state and they are constructed from parallel tenses either present or past in each clause.As mentioned in 3.2.1., Turkish has also a type of conditional which expresses 'when':e,g. "İğne atsan yere düşmez".

ii. when wanted to denote the statements of universal truth or
   general validity on the basis of scientific or quasi-scientific
   facts:

   If you heat ice, it melts.

   If the water becomes vapour,it rises to the sky.

   If the vapour rises to sky, it forms clouds,etc.

A. Exceptional Combinations

   Hill (1967:31-50) discovered that every combination was pos-
sible in English conditionals and he was able to produce 324 (18 X
18) combinations.The following list is selected from his research:

   If you go,he's going too.

   If it's really Monday today,I'll have been here a week tomorrow.

   If he's staying, I'd like to stay too.

   If you'll pardon me, it doesn't rain here every day,etc.

   The fact that these combinatins exist does not,of course,
mean that one has to teach them all to one's students. For Hill,
as with other aspects of the English language,one should choose
the ones one wishes to teach,grade these,decide which of them
one is going to teach in which year,and then leave the students
to pick the rest up in their reading and listening after one has
finished his course with them.Hill goes on,'the list will enable
the teacher to check whether he has left out any combination that
he thinks worth teaching;and it will save him from the indignity
of giving his students 'rules' and then having them confronting
him with examples that contradict them'.

Also Hornby (1975:229-230) gives exceptional conditional combinations:

e.g. If he has finished his work by six o'clock,we shall be able to take him with us.

If she promised to be here she'll certainly come.

If that was what he told you he was telling lies.

Rinvolucri (1984:56-57),in his book called "Grammar Games" often uses the terms 'first','second' and 'third' conditional in quotation marks.For him,because they are misleading terms,resulting from pedagogically motivated simplification of descriptive grammar. In real-life English native speakers use all kinds of conditional combinations which go beyond the neat,mendacious packaging of the so-called three conditional patterns:

e.g. If I'd've known, I'd've told you.

Sezer (1986:346) also gives other combinations as in the following:

i. If it had rained yesterday,I wouldn't have to water the garden today (See further Murphy,1985:74).

ii. If he didn't drink too much beer,he could have been rich.

These combinations are rather complex and difficult to teach in terms of English language teaching,so they are always simplified into the three types,but as Hill advises, one can choose the ones he wishes to teach in order to reply his students' questions about them and to make them close to real-life English.

He leaves the question open or unanswered.

In the conditional clause,present tenses,either present simple or present continuous are used while the main clause is constructed from present modals (will,shall,must,can,may) or imperative:

If she gets the scholarship,she will go to the USA.
                              may
                              can
                              must

If he is not going, I may not go either.
                         will
                         can
                         must

If you are wearing a jacket, stand up.

Subordinate Clause	Main Clause
Simple Present Present Continuous	Present Modal will/can+infinitive

In clauses of probable condition,<u>will</u> may be used in the following cases:

a) to express volition in the future

I shan't be happy if he won't come.

(Jesperson,1976:273)

b) to indicate or ask about willingness:

If you'll help me we can finish by six.

(Hornby,1975:232)

c) to stress the meaning of 'insist':

If you will bet (if you insist on betting) on horse-races,you

mustn't complain if you lose your money.

(Hornby, 1975:232)

d) to have the meaning of "agree to":

If you will come,I shall be very glad.

(Drummond,1972:3)

e) in polite requests Thomson & Martinet,1969:130):

If you will wait a moment,I'll fetch a chair.

f) won't may mean 'refuse to':

If Jim won't do the job,I'll have to do it myself.

(Drummond,1972:3)

As mentioned in 3.3.1. another exception use in this is

cause-effect type conditional clause,where the tenses are parallel:

If you go, I go too.

If you were right, I was wrong.

Modal auxiliaries can be used in the probable conditional

clause.

If I can help you,I will (I maybe able to help.I am not sure)

A doubtful view of conditional type 1 is emphasized by the

use of should; the inverted forms are the more literary.

Should he refuse you,refer him to me.

If I should die,think only this of me.

(From a poem by Rupert Brooke)

If+only expresses "hope";

If only he comes in time (We hope he will come in time)

3.3.3. Improbable Conditionals

Conditional clauses of this type are used to denote the conditions which are contrary-to-fact in the present or future.While the main clause is formed from the past modals(would,might,could, should),in the conditional clause,past tenses either simple past or past continuous are used:

If I had money,I would buy a car.

If it were raining,I would take an umbrella.

Here, although tenses are in the past,this type of conditional shows a supposition in the present or in the future.

If you stopped smoking,you'd probably feel healtier (in the present)

If we didn't go to their party next week,they would be very angry. (in the future)

Subordinate Clause	Main Clause
Simple past past continuous	past modals (would/could+infinitive)

Sometimes it is possible to say if ......would,especially when you ask someone to do something in a formal way:

I would be very grateful if you would send me your brochure and price list as soon as possible (from a formal letter)

Also it is possible to add the usages for <u>will</u> in 3.3.2. to this.

Technically speaking,if clauses in subjuntive mood, but
WERE is the only place where it still lives as a different form.
The subjunctive form is heard instead of WAS in imaginary supposi-
tions,esp.,in the example 'If I were you':

If I were you, I wouldn't do that.

'If I were you' is used for giving advice.

Greater improbability in conditional type 2 is achieved by
using WERE TO after if, and should,would,could,or might in the
main clause:

If you were to come tomorrow,I might have time to see you.

This construction must not be confused with the other use of IS TO=
obligation,'must'. Compare:

If he was to return at 7 o'clock,why didn't he?

If he were to return at 7 o'clock,he could take me out.

(Allen,1974:153)

If with only is used to express wishes:

If only he didn't drive so fast (=We wish he didn't drive so

fast)

3.3.4. Impossible Conditionals

This type implies an assumption that the happening described
did not take place,so it has past reference.

The conditional clause has past perfect tense while the

main clause is constructed from the perfect modals (would have, should have,could have,might have).

If you had asked me I would have helped you.

Jane could have passed her French exam if she had worked hard.

The verb forms in impossible conditionals can be formulated as follows:

Subordinate Clause	Main Clause
Past Perfect	Perfect Modal (would/could have V-en)

Sometimes condition may be in the past,but the result in the present; then we have a combination:

e.g. Our experiment wasn't successful.

We're discouraged.

If our experiment had been successful,we wouldn't be discouraged.

If plus only is used to express past regrets:

If only I hadn't said that≠ I wish I hadn't said that.
                                    (Sezer,1986:344).

3.4. A COMPARISON OF THE SIGNIFICANT FEATURES OF CONDITIONALS IN TURKISH AND IN ENGLISH ON THE BASIS SEMANTIC UNIVERSALS ABOUT CONDITIONALS

Under the semantic universal category of conditionals,in the

first place,it seems that there are distictive features of both languages about conditional due to their linguistically different origins.

Conditional sentences are intrduced by the suffix -sE in Turkish,by the subordinator if in English.Turkish has the lexical items eger and sayet as the counterparts of if in English and their use is not obligatory.

The conditional clause is in the form of the subordinate clause which can be reversable in both languages.

Probable conditionals seem to be the least problematic when we compare.Both Turkish and English have forms in the present.However,English has modal will or other modals in the main clause while Turkish -Ir or -EcEk.

Onu gorursem merhaba derim.
                         diyecegim.

If I see her, I will say 'hello'.

The desiderative-conditinal -sE is also used in probable conditionals,but in the main clause, Turkish has a restriction on the occurrence of -Ir and -EcEk with -EbIl in order not to interfere probable condition with improbable one.

(1) Okusa bilebilecek.
          bilebilir.

If he reads, he will/can know.

Subordinate Clause			Main Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal Suffix	V(-EbIl)	Aux 1	Per. S.
	desiderat-ive cond. -sE			aorist -Ir future -EcEk	

```
               bilir
(2) Okusa  bilecek
```

If he read, he would know.

Subordinate Clause			Main Clause		
V	Aux 1	Personal suffix	V	Aux 1	Personal s.
	desiderat-ive cond. -sE			aorist -Ir future -EcEk	

When we look at improbable conditionals,we see that English has past forms distict from both probable and impossible conditionals whereas Turkish has both present and past forms which is not distinct from impossible conditionals.Then Turkish has problematic ambiguous structures which have a variety:

If you went away, I would die.

Subordinate Clause	Main Clause
Past simple past continuous	Past modal (would/could+infinitive)

Table 3.1. Contrast of the significant features of conditionals in Turkish and in English

FEATURE		NL RULE		TL RULE	
1.Condition Marker		− S E		if	
2.Clause Marked for Condition		Subordinate		Subordinate	
3.Order of Clauses		Interchangeable		Interchangeable	
4. Verb Forms	IN PROBABLE CONDITIONALS	Subordinate Cl.	Main Cl.	Subordinate Cl.	Main Cl.
		1. V−Ir−SE−PS−ECEK	V−Ir−PS−ECEK	1. Simple Present	Present Modal + (will /can+infinitive)
		2. V−SE−PS	V(−EbIL)−Ir−PS−ECEK	2.Present Cont.	
	IN IMPROBABLE CONDITIONALS	3. V−SE−PS	V−Ir−PS−ECEK	3. Simple Past	Past Modal
		4. V−SE−PS	V−Ir−dI−PS	4. Past Cont.	(would /could + infinitive)
		5. V−SE−dI−PS	V−Ir−dI−PS		
	IN IMPOSSIBLE CONDITIONALS	6. V−SE−PS	V−Ir−dI−PS−ECEK	5. Past Perfect	Perfect Modal + (would / could + have V−en)
		7. V−SE−dI−PS	V−Ir−dI−PS−ECEK		
		8. V−mIş−ol−SE−dI−PS	V−Er−dI−PS−ECEK		
		9. V−mIş−ol−SE−dI−PS	V−mIş−ol−Er−dI−PS−ECEK		

3.5. PREDICTIONS OF POSSIBLE ERROR TYPES IN CONDITIONALS

FOR TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

Translation is both skill and art,of considerable practical and esthetic value in the modern world.It provides access for millions to the scientific and technical knowledge,the great thoughts, the artistic achievements, and the societal needs and values of the speakers of many tongues (Rivers & Temperley,1978:325).

Translation can be handled with the following aspects:

i.Translation may be from the TL into the NL or from the NL into the TL.

ii. Translation may be oral or written.

iii. Translation may be used as a learning or a testing device.

In this study,translation is from the NL into the TL and vice versa and is employed as a testing device in diagnosing errors.

The performance of students learning English can be tested by the help of some tecniques,such as cloze test,strip story,visual aids or free composition.But, to some extent,students' performance is limited,that is, they cannot show exactly what and how much they know about the TL,esp. about conditionals.For instance,in a pictural test about conditionals,they can only write what they see, therefore,they can avoid the use of conditionals.However,in a translation test about conditionals, they can produce what they recognize, thus their performance contains conditionals.For that reason,recognition and production analyses will be achieved by the translation test.

NOTES

(1) Here,<u>open</u> refers to the condition which may or may not be fulfilled.

(2)English has subjunctive in conditional sentences as a fossilized structure,esp.in the use of 'to be' in the improbable conditionals, e.g. If I <u>were</u>,if it <u>were</u> and so on.

(3)The <u>indicative</u> and <u>subjunctive</u> moods are two groups of forms of a verb,The indicative mood is used when stating what is considered to be a fact; the subjunctive mood is used when expressing wishes, possibilities or doubts.

(4) Nonverbal constructions are the forms of which predicates are nouons or adjectives or adverbs.

(5) Context will he handled in 5.2.
(6) These three main semantic divisions are called simply Type 1, Type 2 and Type 3 by some authors.Here,this kind of conception will be taken in order to simplify the case.

CHAPTER IV

AN ANALYSIS OF ERRORS

IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES PRODUCED BY TURKISH LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

4.1. INTRODUCTION

For Bates (1976:217-218), conditionals are problematic,a late development in child speech.She replicated the longstanding parental finding on Italian children and found out that conditionals are late and difficult developments for Italian children but the reasons for this delay in development are not obvious.

Timm (1986) studied on the consistency of German learners' and English students' performance in a pre-test/end-test experiment about if-clauses in English.Results showed that throughout the consistency of correctness indices and general consistency indices go down and accordingly, as their difficulty goes up.The consistency of error indices go up throughout as the means for parts in tests go down.They are also higher for Type III than

for Type I, even higher for Type II. In this case, Type III
seems to be the most problematic for this sample of subjects.

Manuchehri (1974:174) reports that almost all types of con-
ditionals seriously confuse Farsi speakers learning English and
errors resulted from differences in the verb systems of the two
languages:

e.g. If I had money yesterday, I gave it to you;but I didn't.

Here, the problematic type of the conditional is the second and
it reveals the L1 interference,in other words,it reflects the
Farsi structure.

Tolungüç (1984) studied on Turkish learners' problems in
English conditionals and her findings indicated that L1 inter-
ference is clearly an important source of error in the production
of conditional sentences.Errors due to L1 interference seem to
be the ones that are most likely to be fossilized.Ambiguous rel-
ations in English conditionals lend themselves to a variety of
incorrect formulations within the system of the language. Among
the three types of conditional sentences,the improbable condition-
al is the most problematic;the least difficult type is the pro-
bable conditional sentences.

Therefore,L1 interference phenomenon has an important role
in the learning of English conditionals and improbable and im-
possible conditionals seem to be the most problematic types due
to Turkish structure.So,the rationale of this study is three-fold:

i) to identify the problem areas in English conditionals for

 Turkish learners of English;

ii) to classify the errors according to their possible sources;

iii) to find out the differences among the three student groups

in different language levels: lower-intermediate,intermedi-

ate,and upper-intermediate.

4.2. PROCEDURE

4.2.1. Method And Subjects

Seventy-five Turkish speaking subjects studying at the

Faculty of Engineering and Architecture (Lower Intermediate),the

Open Faculty (Intermediate),and the Faculty of Education (Upper-

Intermediate) of the Anadolu University,Eskişehir, were tested.

All subjects received an ESL instruction in English but in dif-

ferent styles (1).

Language data were elicited with a translation test (See

Table 4.1) consisting of two parts: (A)translation from Turkish

into English and (B)translation from English into Turkish and

administered to the subjects mentioned above in a within subject

design.The testing sentences were designed to elicit the problem

areas in conditionals for Turkish learners of English . The

students were asked to translate the conditional sentences from

Turkish into English,from English into Turkish in 90 minutes.

Table 4.1. The design of the elicitation tasks in conditional

sentences

PART A: translation task: 30 conditional sentences in Turkish

(10 in Type I,10 in Type II and 10 in Type III)

e.g. Hava güzel olursa pikniğe gideriz.

Senin yerinde olsam bir doktora giderdim.

Çocuğu yalnız bırakmamış olsaydın suya düşmezdi.

PART B: translation task: 30 conditional sentences in English

(10 in Type I,10 in Type II and 10 in Type III)

e.g. You will spoil it if you are not careful.

If I knew her number,I would telephone her.

It would have broken if you had not caught it.

The students were not informed about the purpose of the

test.They were only told that it was for the teacher to get in-

formation about grammatical problem areas and that no marks would

be given.

A detailed error analysis was performed on the translation

test in order to identify the problem areas;classify the errors

according to their possible sources;and find out the differences

among the three student groups in different language levels.Sen-

tences produced by the students were classified as correct answer,

error,and no answer.A correct answer was either the expected

translation or another acceptable response.An error was an erronous translation both semantically and syntactically. The method used in the present study was based on the calculation of the percentages of correct answer,error and no answer for each group.

4.2.2. Data Analysis

Errors were categorized according to the possible sources of error.Before going into this issue,one should answer the following questions.Why are certain errors made? What cognitive strategies and styles or even personality variables underlie certain errors? To enumerate all possible sources of second language errors would be an impossible task,for there are surely hundreds of such sources.That's why,it would be adequate to outline a number of major sources of learner errors.Some of these sources have been referred to at times as strategies (Brown, 1980:171-172).

1- L1 interference:error resulting from the transfer of grammatical and/or stylistic elements from the NL to the TL,for example Turkish learners of English can say 'thing' as 'think'; 'sing' as 'sink' or 'cab' as 'cap'. Because Turkish has final devoicing, a phonological rule:turning the vioced sound into voiceless one. That is, voiced stops (b,d,g) in word final position are devoiced.

2- Overgeneralization:error caused by extention of TL rules to areas where they do not apply,i.e.,"Does John can sing?"; "He goed"; "I don't know what time is it" (Brown, 1980:174).

3- <u>Performance Errors</u>:unsystematic errors that occur as the re-
sult of such things as memory lapses,fatigue,confusion,or strong
emotion,i.e.,"behind the lens is little screen",omitting the
article (Richards, 1974:41).

4- <u>Teacher-induced Error (transfer of training)</u>:error resulting
from pedagogical procedures contained in the text or employed by
the teacher,i.e.,if a teacher does not present articles in English
satisfactorily,then Turkish learners may omit them,such as in
"I am student",since in Turkish the sense of definiteness and in-
definiteness is different.

5- <u>Strategies of Communication and Assimilation</u>:error resulting
from the attempt to communicate in the TL without having complete-
ly acquired the grammatical forms necessary to do so,i.e.,yester-
day I go to the cinema...

The communication strategies can be categorized as follows:

i)<u>Avoidance</u>:avoiding the use of some syntactic or lexical items
or topics,i.e.Turkish learners use simple past instead of present
perfect ("He went" instead of "He has gone").

ii)<u>Prefabricated Patterns</u>:memorizing certain stock phrases or sen-
tences without internalized knowledge of the components of the
phrase."Tourist survival" language is full of prefabricated patt-
erns,such as "How much does it cost?"; "Where is the toilet?",etc.

6- <u>Developmental</u>:those errors that are similar to L1 acquisition

errors,i.e. "He not eat" (Dulay & Burt, 1974:133).

7- <u>Unique</u>:those errors that neither "developmental" nor "inter-ference" errors,i.e. "He should can play the piano" instead of "He should be able to play the piano".

8- <u>Ambiguous Errors</u>:those errors that can be categorized as either interference-like errors or L1 developmental errors. For example, "Terina not can go" produced by a Spanish child reflects Spanish structure and is also typical of American children learning English as their NL (Dulay & Burt, 1974:115).

4.2.3. Sources of Errors Found in the EA Data

The six of the categories mentioned in 4.2.2. were found in the EA data on the students of Faculty of Education,Open Faculty and Faculty of Engineering: 1-L1 Interference,2-Overgeneralization,3-Ambiguous,4-Performance,5-Teacher-induced,6-Unique.

They can be seen in the following examples:

1. <u>L1 Interference:</u>

A.(i)Turkish sentence in Type I: Erken kalkarsan çay içersin.
   Expected translation: If you get up early,you will drink tea.
   Erroneous translation:If you got up early,you would drink tea.
   (ii)Turkish sentence in Type II:Bir kelime söylese ağlardı.
   Expected translation:If he said one more word,she would cry.
   Erroneous translation:If he says a word more,she will cry.

(iii)Turkish sentence in Type III:Daha önce çalışsaydın bunu
yapabilirdin.

Expected translation:If you had worked before,you could have
done this.

Erroneous translation:If you studied before,you could do this.

B.(i)English sentence in Type I:If you don't shut that window,we
will all die of cold.

Expected translation:Şu pencereyi kapatmazsan soğuktan hepimiz
öleceğiz.

Erroneous translation:O pencereyi kapamasaydın hepimiz soğuktan
ölecektik.

(ii)English sentence in Type II:What would you do if you won a
million pounds?

Expected translation:Ne yapardın bir milyon pound kazansaydın?

Erroneous translation:Eğer bir milyon kazanmış olsaydın ne ya-
pardın?

(iii)English sentence in Type III:If I hadn't told him,he would
never have known.

Expected translation:Ona söylemeseydim,hiç bir zaman bilmeyecekti.

Erroneous translation:O asla bilmeyecek eğer ben ona söylemezsem.

2.Overgeneralization:

A.(i)Turkish sentence in Type I:Hava güzel olursa pikniğe gideriz.

Expected translation:If the weather is nice,we will go for a
picnic.

Erroneous translation:If the air is been nice,we go to the
picnic.

(ii)Turkish sentence in Type II:Bir kelime daha söylese ağlardı.

Expected translation:If he said one more word,she would cry.

Erroneous translation:If she was said one more word,she would
cry.

(iii)Turkish sentence in Type III:Eğer şartları uygun olmasaydı
kabul etmezdik.

Expected translation:If its conditions hadn't been convenient,we
wouldn't have accepted it.

Erroneous translation:If its conditions weren't be favorable,we'd
not have accepted it.

In the second part of the translation test,errors due to
overgeneralization could not be found,instead,errors originated
from inappropriate choice of structure(s) or word(s)were extracted:

B.(i)English sentence in Type I:Don't worry if I'm late tonight.

   Expected translation:Endişelenme bu gece gecikirsem.

   Erroneous translation:Bu gece geçim diye endişelenme.

   (ii)English sentence in Type II:I would be very frightened if
                                  someone pointed a gun at me.

   Expected translation:Çok korkardım eğer birisi bana silah doğ-
                        rultsaydı.

   Erroneous translation:Eğer birisi silahı bana doğrultursaydı,
                         kavga edebilirdim.

   (iii)English sentence in Type III:He would have come if you had
                                    invited him.

   Expected translation:Gelirdi onu davet etmiş olsaydın.

   Erroneous translation:O gelirdi eğer ondan ayrılsaydınız.

3. Ambiguous:

A.(i)Turkish sentence in Type I:Gerçeği söylerse ona inanırız.

   Expected translation:If he tells the truth,we'll believe him.

   Erroneous translation:If she tells the truth,we believe her.

(ii)Turkish sentence in Type II:Zamanım olsa sana mutlaka
gelirdim.

Expected translation:If I had any time,I would certainly come
to you.

Erroneous translation:If I have enough time,believe me,I come
to you.

(iii)Turkish sentence in Type III:Önceden düşünseydim öyle dav-
ranmazdım.

Expected translation:If I had thought before,I wouldn't have
behaved like that.

Erroneous translation:If I thought before,I didn't behave so.

B.(i)English sentence in Type I:I shall be very angry if you
break any more plates.

Expected translation:Çok kötü kızacağım bir tabak daha kırarsan.

Erroneous translation:Eğer daha fazla tabak kırarsan, kızmış
olacağım.

(ii)English sentence in Type II:If I were you,I would go home
immediately.

Expected translation:Senin yerinde olsam,hemen eve giderdim.

Erroneous translation:Senin yerinde olsaydım,acilen eve gider-
dim.

(iii)English sentence in Type III:He would have come if you
had invited him.

Expected translation:Gelirdi onu davet etmiş olsaydın.

Erroneous translation:O gelir şayet davet ettiysen.

4. Performance:

A.(i)Turkish sentence in Type I:Bir kaç kez okusa unutmayacak.

Expected translation:If he reads several times,he won't forget.

Erroneous translation:If he read it twice or more,he will not
forget it.

(ii)Turkish sentence in Type II:Senin yerinde olsam bir doktora
giderdim.

Expected translation:If I were you,I would go to a doctor.

Erroneous translation:If I were you,I go to a doctor.

(iii)Turkish sentence in Type III:Fırsatım olmuş olsaydı onu
görürdüm.

Expected translation:If I had had any opportunity,I would have
seen her.

Erroneous translation:If I had a chance,I would have seen her.

B.(i)English sentence in Type I:If you eat too much,you will be
ill.

Expected translation:Çok yersen hasta olacaksın.

Erroneous translation:Daha fazla yersen hasta olabilirsin.

(ii)English sentence in Type II:If I knew her number,I would
telephone her.

Expected translation:Numarasını bilseydim,ona telefon ederdim.

Erroneous translation:Eğer onun numarasını bilseydin ona tele-
fon edebilirdim.

(iii)English sentence in Type III:If we had played better, we
might have won.

Expected translation:Eğer daha iyi oynamış olsaydık,kazanabi-

lirdik belki.

Erroneous translation:Daha iyi oynasaydık,kazanırdık.

5. Teacher-Induced:

A.(i)Turkish sentence in Type I:Taksiye binersek tiyatroya yeti-
şebiliriz.

Expected translation:If we take a taxi,we can reach the theatre

in time.

Erroneous translation:We might have catch the theatre if we get on the taxi.

(ii)Turkish sentence in Type II:Şimdi bize gelseniz,iyi eğlenirdiniz.

Expected translation:If you came to us now,you would have a good time.

Erroneous translation:If you have came us,you would have fun.

(iii)Turkish sentence in Type III:Fırsatım olmuş olsaydı onu görürdüm.

Expected translation:If I had had any opportunity,I would have seen her.

Erroneous translation:If you have had opportunity,I would see him.

B.(i)English sentence in Type I:If it's convenient,let's meet at nine o'clock.

Expected translation:Eğer uygunsa,saat dokuzda buluşalım.

Erroneous translation:Eğer uygun olursa,saat dokuzda buluşabiliriz.

(ii)English sentence in Type II:If I were an orange,I should be sperical and juicy.

Expected translation:Eğer bir portakal olsaydım küre biçiminde ve sulu olurdum.

Erroneous translation:Eğer bir portakal olsaydım,yuvarlak ve sulu olmalıydım.

(iii)English sentence in Type III:It would have broken if you had not caught it.

Expected translation:Kırılacaktı tutmamış olsaydın.

Erroneous translation:Eğer onu yakalamasaydın kırılabilecekti.

Erroneous translation:Eǧer çok iyi oynasaymışlar,kazanırmışız.

Besides,in the total of the test,errors resulted from "in-
correct association",that is,the confusion of a linguistic form
with another in the TL and NL were found.

A.Turkish sentence:Şimdi araba bozulmasaydı tam zamanında İstan-
bul'da olacaktık.

Expected translation:If the car didn't break down now,we would
be in İstanbul in time.

Erroneous translation:If the car broke down,we had been in İs-
tanbul on time.

B.English sentence:I shall be very angry if you break any more
plates.

Expected translation:Çok kötü kızacağım bir tabak daha kırarsan.

Erroneous translation:Eǧer ben çok kızarsam artık tabakları kı-
rarsın.

As seen in the examples above, data analysis on the sources
of errors validated the predictions about the possible error types
in Chapter III (See further Appendix II).

4.3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The bias in obtaining the results of the translation test
was on the calculation of percentages of correct answers,errors,
and no answers in both parts of the test.First,total number and
percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers were ana-
lyzed,In order to identify the problem areas,that is,to see which

type of the conditional sentence appeared the most problematic,
and to check the validity of predicted difficulty level in con-
ditionals,the percentage of correct answers,errors,and no answers
in the three types of conditionals (e.g. probable, improbable and
impossible) were calculated.

The errors were classified according to their possible
sources in number and percentage and error types were investigated.
The data on all groups of students were compared to find out the
differences and similarities among each other.The findings were
illustrated with tables and histograms.

Each part of the test produced 2250 items to be analyzed.
In Part A, 1066 answers out of 2250 were correct.This corresponded
to a success level of 47%.The total number of erroneous contruc-
tions in Part A was 1029 which amounted to 46%.The number of no
answers was 155, 7%,which,in fact,was quite low.Table 4.2. lists
the total number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Part A. See also Figure 4.1.

Table 4.2. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in translating Turkish conditionals into
English

	Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
number of	1066	1029	155	2250
% of	47	46	7	100

Figure 4.1. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in translating Turkish conditinals into English

In Part B,however,the number of correct answers was 1575
which corresponded to a success level of 70%.There were 614 erro-
neous answers.This amounted to 27%.The number of no answers de-
creased to 61,3%.See Table 4.3. and Figure 4.2.

Table 4.3. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in translating English conditionals into
Turkish

	Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
number of	1575	614	61	2250
% of	70	27	3	100

Figure 4.2. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in translating English conditionals into Turkish

As the tables and figures illustrated above,in Part A,there
is a little difference between correct answers (47%) and errors
(46%) whereas in Part B, there is a big difference between cor-
rect answers (70%) and errors (27%). But in both parts,the per-
centage of no answers is quite low:7% and 3% respectively.

In Parts A and B, total number of correct answers was
2641 out of 4500 which amounted to about 59% while errors were
1643,about 37%.The number of no answers was 216, 4,8%.

Table 4.4. and Figure 4.3. show these distinctions in detail:

Table 4.4. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers in translating Turkish conditionals into English and English conditionals into Turkish

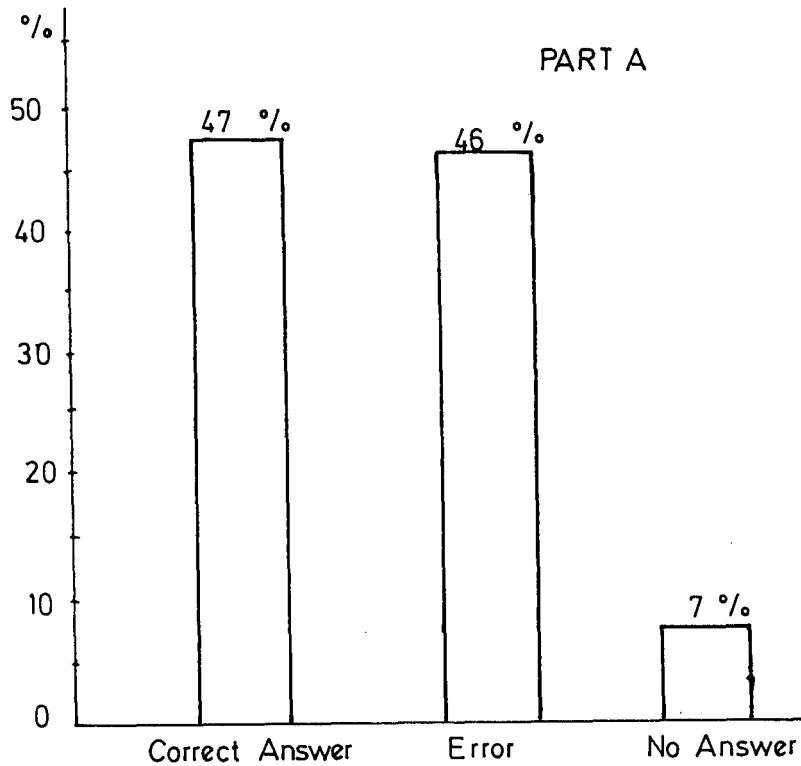|	Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
number of	2641	1643	216	4500
% of	58,7	36,5	4,8	100

Figure 4.3. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers in translating Turkish conditionals into English and English conditionals into Turkish

In order to compare the number and percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers in terms of differences or similarities among the three different groups of students,it would be better to look at Table 4.5. and Figures 4.4. and 4.5.

Table 4.5. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in translating Turkish conditionals into
English and English conditionals into Turkish for the
three different groups of students

PARTS IN THE TEST	FACULTIES	Correct Answers numb.	%	Errors numb.	%	No Answers numb.	%	Total numb.	%
PART A	Faculty of Education	481	64.1	260	34.7	9	1.2	750	100
	Open Faculty	296	39.5	399	53.2	55	7.3	750	100
	Faculty of Engineering	289	38.6	370	49.3	91	12.1	750	100
PART B	Faculty of Education	626	83.5	113	15	11	1.5	750	100
	Open Faculty	497	66	223	30	30	4	750	100
	Faculty of Engineering	452	60	278	37	20	3	750	100
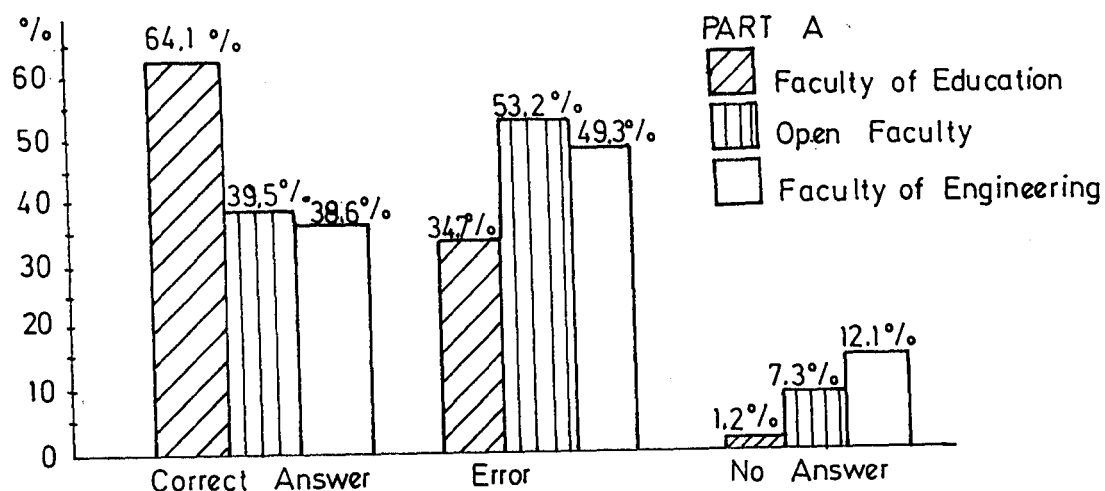
Figure 4.4. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
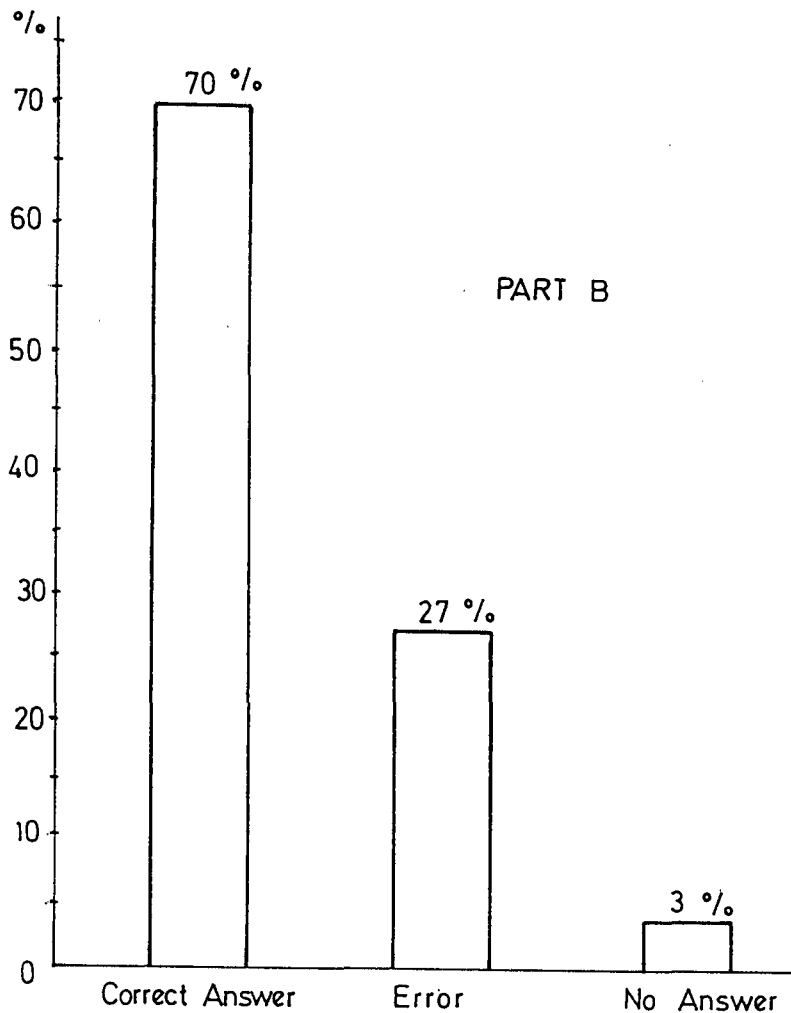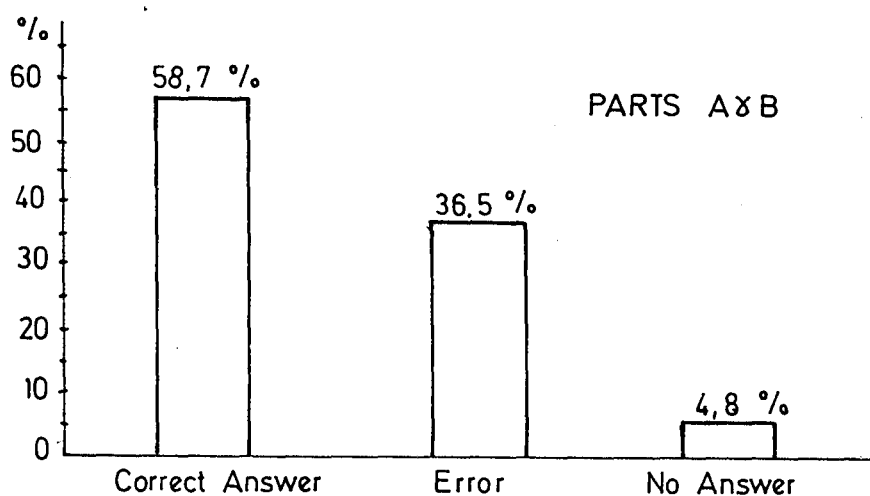in translating Turkish conditionals into English for
the three different groups of students
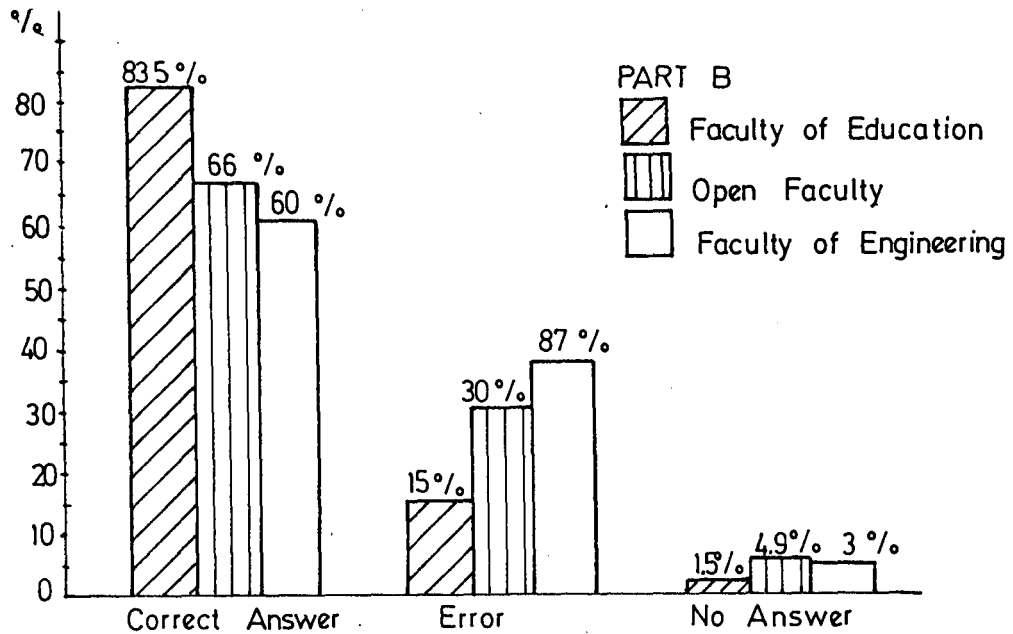
Figure 4.5. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in translating English conditionals into Turkish for
the three different groups of students

As shown in Table 4.5. and Figures, in Part A, the perform-
ance of Faculty of Education students is the highest in terms of
number and percentages of correct answers: 481;64.1% while there
is a little difference between Open Faculty and Faculty of Eng-
ineering students in correct answers: 296, 39.5% and 289, 38.6%.

The students of Open Faculty have the highest rate in terms
of number and percentages of errors in Part A: 399, amounted to
53.2% and the students of Faculty of Engineering follow them:370;
49.3% while the students of Faculty of Education have the lowest
rate in number and percentage: 260, about 35%.

In number and percentages of no answers in Part A,the
students of Faculty of Education have the lowest rate: 9; 1.2%
while the rate of Open Faculty is higher than of Faculty of Edu-
cation:55, 7.3% and of Faculty of Engineering is the highest:91,
12.1%.

In Part B, again,the performance of Faculty of Education
students is the highest rate in number and percentage of correct
answers: 626,about 84% while the correct answers of Open Faculty
students are higher than of Faculty of Engineering students which
are the lowest: 497; 66% and 452; 60%.

The students of Faculty of Engineering seem to show the
highest rate in terms of number and percentage of errors in Part
B: 278; 37% and Open Faculty students follow this rate with 223
errors,which amounted to 30% while Faculty of Education students
show the lowest rate: 113; 15%.

In number and percentage of no answers in Part B,the rate
of Open Faculty students is the highest: 30; 4% whereas of Fac-
ulty of Engineering students is higher than of Faculty of Educa-
tion students: 20; 3% and 11; 1.5%.

Table 4.6. and Figure 4.6. illustrate the total number and
percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers of three fac-
ulties in Parts A and B of the translation test.

Table 4.6. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers for the three different groups of students
in translating Turkish conditionals into English and
English conditionals into Turkish

PARTS IN THE TEST	FACULTIES	Correct Answers		Errors		No Answers		Total	
		numb.	%	numb.	%	numb.	%	numb.	%
PARTS A & B	Faculty of Education	1107	73.8	373	24.8	20	1.4	1500	100
	Open Faculty	793	53	622	41.4	85	5.6	1500	100
	Faculty of Engineering	741	49.4	648	43.2	111	7.4	1500	100
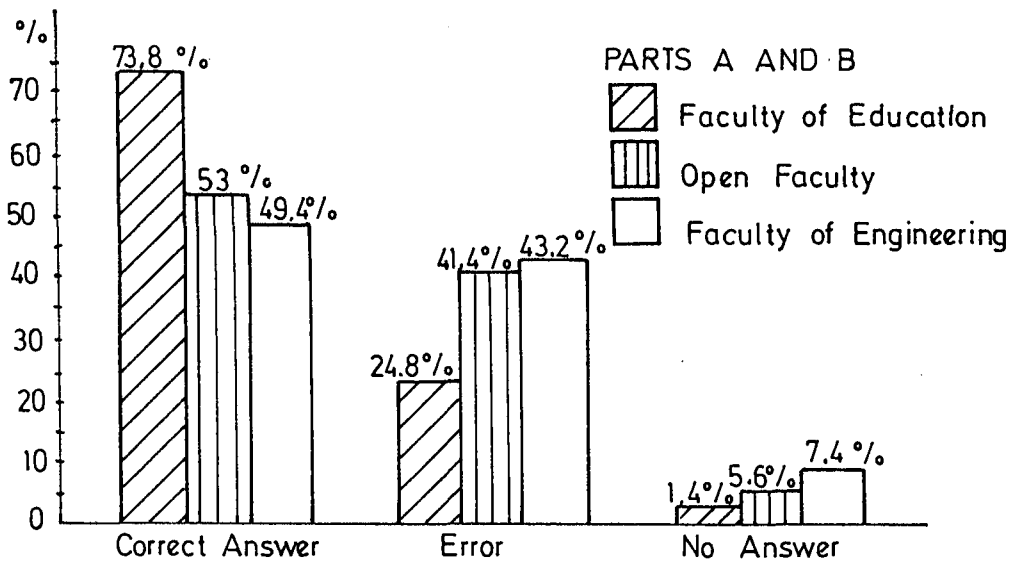
Figure 4.6. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
for the three different groups of students in translat-
ing Turkish conditionals into English and English con-
ditionals Turkish

In the two parts of the translation test,the performance
of Faculty of Education students appears to be the highest in
terms of correct answers: 1107; about 74% while the performance
of Faculty of Engineering students is the lowest: 741; 49.4% but
a little lower than the performance shown by Open Faculty students:
793,amounted to 53%.

The rate of Faculty of Engineering students' errors in
Parts A and B is the highest: 648; 43.2% and of Open Faculty stu-
dents follows this rate with 622 errors which correspond to 41.4%
while the rate of Faculty of Education students' errors is the
lowest: 373; about 25%.

In number and percentage of no answers in the two parts of
the test,Faculty of Education students have the lowest percentage:
20; 1.4% whereas Faculty of Engineering students have the highest
percentage:111; 7.4% and Open Faculty students follow Faculty of
Engineering students with 85 no answers, correspond to about 6%.

4.3.1. Identification of the Problem Areas

In order to identify the problem areas in English condition-
als, the number and percentages of correct answers,errors and no
answers in the three types of conditionals (e.g. probable,improb-
able and impossible) were analyzed.

In Part A, the number of correct answers in Type I (probab-
able) was 400,which amounted to 53.3% while in Type II (improbab-

able) was 401; 53.4% and in Type III (impossible),265; 35%. Here,

Type III had the lowest rate.In number of errors, Type III was the

highest: 371; 50% while Type I was the second: 341; about 46% ;

Type II the third: 317; 42.3% in the order.Type III had the high-

est rate in no answers: 114; 15%. Type II followed it with 32 no

answers which corresponded to 4.3% while Type I was the third in

the order: 9; 1.2%.

As a result,Type III appeared the most problematic in the

translation of conditionals from Turkish into English.See Table

4.7. and Figure 4.7.:

Table 4.7. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II,and III in translating Turkish
conditionals into English

		Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
Type I	number of	400	341	9	750
	% of	53.3	45.5	1.2	100
Type II	number of	401	317	32	750
	% of	53.4	42.3	4.3	100
Type III	number of	265	371	114	750
	% of	35	50	15	100

Figure 4.7. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in Types I, II and III in translating Turkish condition-
als into English

In Part B, the order of the three types of conditionals
appeared almost the same as in Part A, but the number and percent-
ages of correct answers increased in the three types:591;about
79% (Type I);494;66% (Type II);490;65.3% (Type III) while errors
decreased:154;about 21% (Type I);225;30% (Type II);and 235;31.3%
(Type III). In the number and percentages of no answers,Type II
was the highest:31;4% and Type III followed it with 25 no answers,
amounted to 3.4% while Type I was the lowest:5;0.6%.

Again, Type III seemed to be the most problematic type even
in the translation of conditionals from English into Turkish. See
Table 4.8. and Figure 4.8.

Table 4.8. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II and III in translating English
conditionals into Turkish

		Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
Type I	number of	591	154	5	750
	% of	78.8	20.6	0.6	100
Type II	number of	494	225	31	750
	% of	66	30	4	100
Type III	number of	490	235	25	750
	% of	65.3	31.3	3.4	100
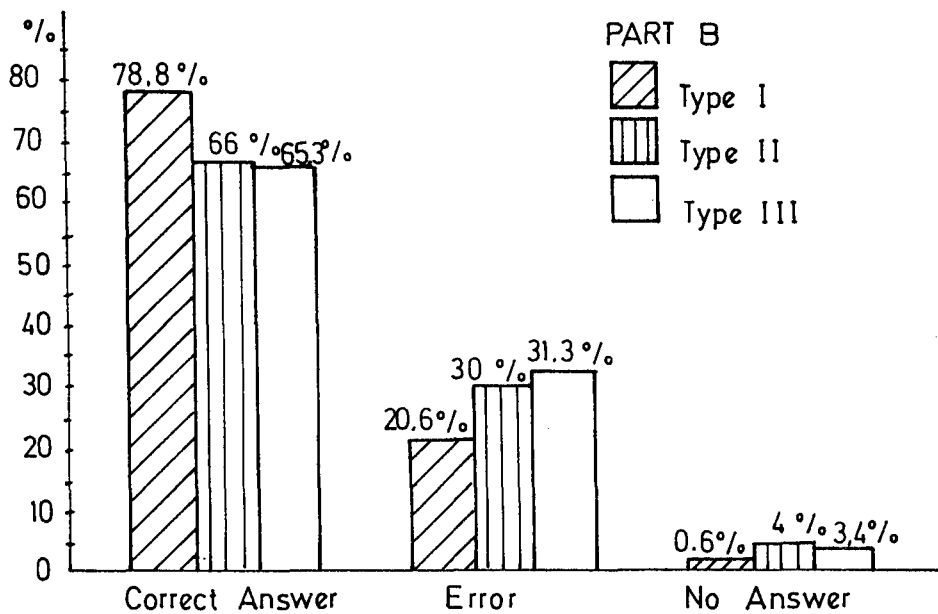
Figure 4.8. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in Types I,II and III in translating English condition-
als into Turkish

The number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II and III in Parts A and B showed that
Type III is the most problematic conditional for this sample of
Turkish learners of English.See Table 4.9. and also Figure 4.9.

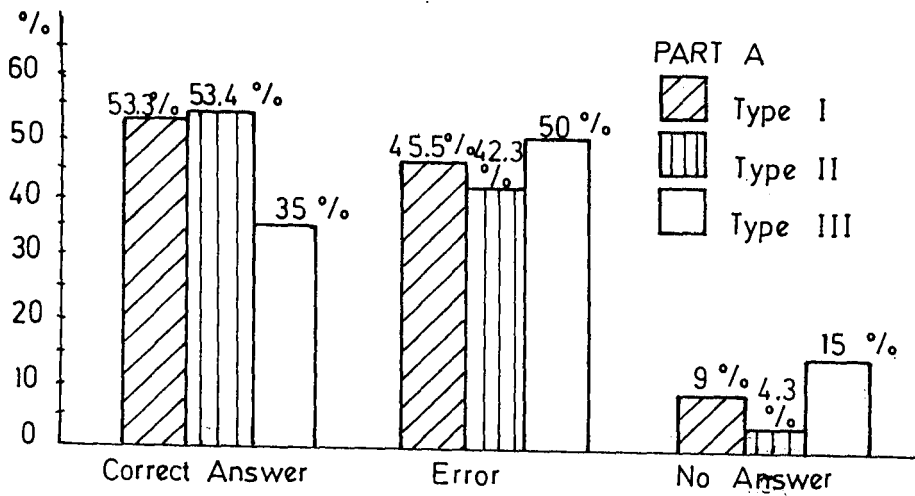Table 4.9. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II and III in translating Turkish
conditionals into English and English conditionals into
Turkish

		Correct Answers	Errors	No Answers	Total
Type I	number of	991	495	14	1500
	% of	66	33	1	100
Type II	number of	895	542	63	1500
	% of	60	36	4	100
Type III	number of	755	606	139	1500
	% of	50.3	40.5	9.2	100

Figure 4.9. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in Types I,II and III in translating Turkish condition-
als into English and English conditionals into Turkish

In Part A, mostly Faculty of Engineering students seemed

to have the problems with Type III while Open Faculty students

followed them.Faculty of Education students had also problems in

Type III but not as significant as the other faculty students as

showed in Table 4.10. and Figures 4.10.,4.11.,and 4.12:

Table 4.10. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II and III in translating Turk-
ish conditionals into English for the three different
groups of students

		Correct Answers			Errors			No Answers			Total		
		EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF
Type I	number of	193	109	98	57	135	149	0	6	3	250	250	250
	% of	77.2	43.6	39.2	22.8	54	59.6	0	2.4	1.2	100	100	100
Type II	number of	164	119	118	85	114	118	1	17	14	250	250	250
	% of	65.6	47.6	47.2	34	45.6	47.2	0.4	6.8	5.6	100	100	100
Type III	number of	124	68	73	118	150	103	8	32	74	250	250	250
	% of	49.6	27.2	29.2	47.2	60	41.2	3.2	12.8	29.6	100	100	100

EDF=Faculty of Education; OPF=Open Faculty; ENF=Faculty of Engi-
neering
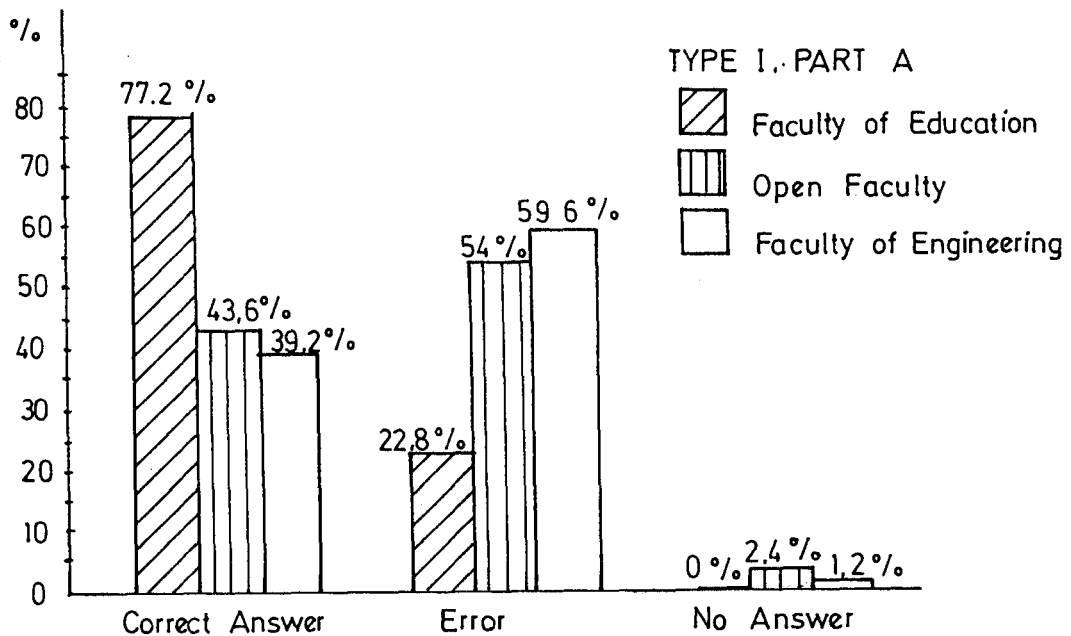
Figure 4.10. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in probable conditionals in translating Turkish con-
ditionals into English for the three different groups
of students

Figure 4.11. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in improbable conditionals in translating Turkish
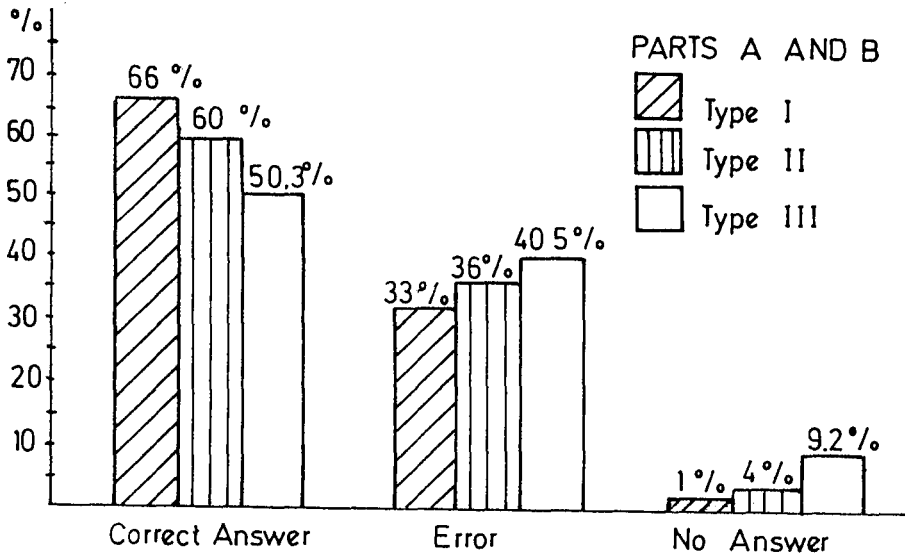conditionals into English for the three different
groups of students

Figure 4.12. Percentages of correct answers,errors and no answers
in impossible conditionals in translating Turkish
conditionals into English for the three different
groups of students

In Part B, generally, the number and percentages of correct
answers in the all types of conditionals increased whereas the
rate of errors and no answers decreased.Again,mostly Faculty of
Engineering students seemed to have problems with all types of
conditionals,but especially with Type III while Open Faculty
students followed them.For Faculty of Education students,Type III
was the most problematic but not significantly.These results were
illustrated in Table 4.11. and Figures 4.13.,4.14.and 4.15.

Table 4.11. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,II and III in translating English
conditionals into Turkish for the three different groups
of students

		Correct Answers			Errors			No Answers			Total		
		EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF
Type I	number of	218	198	175	31	49	74	1	3	1	250	250	250
	% of	87.2	79.2	70	12.4	19.6	29.6	0.4	1.2	0.4	100	100	100
Type II	number of	208	143	143	36	88	101	6	19	6	250	250	250
	% Of	83.2	57.2	57.2	14.4	35.2	40.4	2.4	7.6	2.4	100	100	100
Type III	number of	200	156	134	46	86	103	4	8	13	250	250	250
	% of	80	62.4	53.6	18.4	34.4	41.2	1.6	3.2	5.2	100	100	100

EDF= Faculty of Education ; OPF= Open Faculty ; ENF= Faculty of

Engineering

Figure 4.13. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in probable conditionals in translating English con-
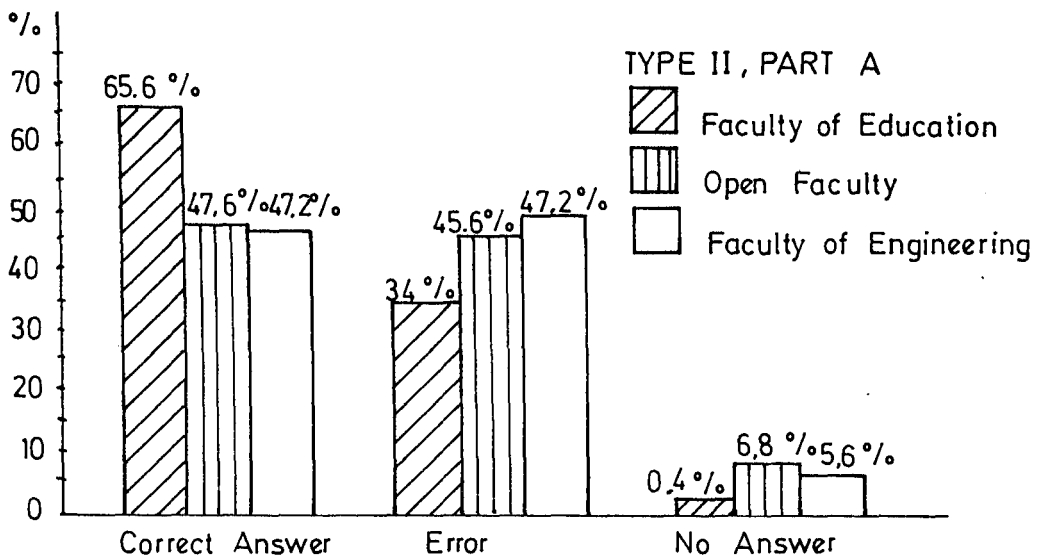ditionals into Turkish for the three different groups
of students

Figure 4.14. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in improbable conditionals in translating English
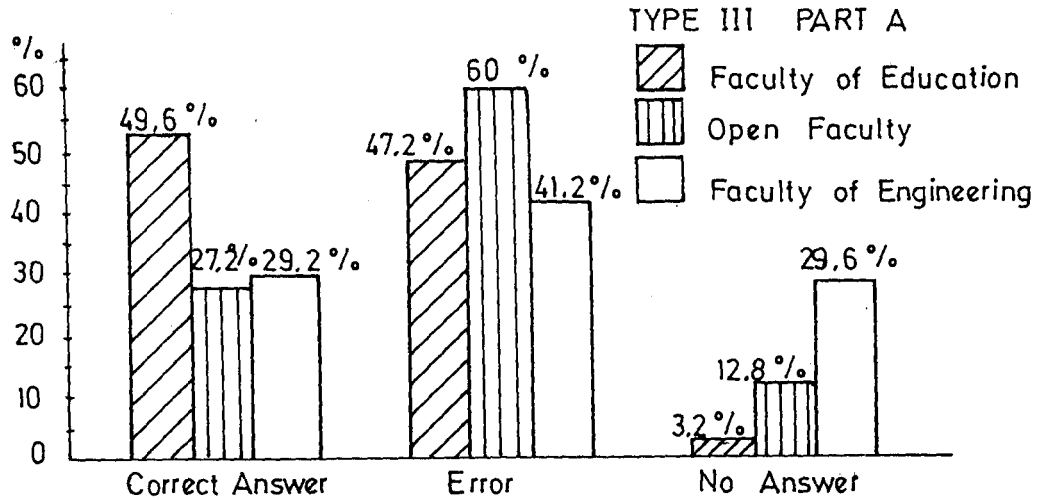conditionals into Turkish for the three different
groups of students

Figure 4.15. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in impossible conditionals in translating English
conditionals into Turkish for the three different
groups of students

When looked at the translation test totally, Type III was
problematic mostly for Open Faculty students with 236 errors,
which amounted to 47.2%. Table 4.12. and Figures 4.16., 4.17. and
4.18. show this indication in detail:

Table 4.12. Number and percentages of correct answers,errors and
no answers in Types I,IIand III in translating Turkish
conditionals into English and English conditionals into
Turkish for the three different groups of students

		Correct Answers			Errors			No Answers			Total		
		EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF	EDF	OPF	ENF
Type I	number of	411	307	273	88	184	223	1	9	4	500	500	500
	% of	82.2	61.4	54.6	17.6	36.8	44.6	0.2	1.8	0.8	100	100	100
Type II	number of	372	262	261	121	202	219	7	36	20	500	500	500
	% of	74.4	52.4	52.2	24.2	40.4	43.8	1.4	7.2	4	100	100	100
Type III	number of	324	224	207	164	236	206	12	40	87	500	500	500
	% of	64.8	44.8	41.4	32.8	47.2	41.2	2.4	8	17.4	100	100	100

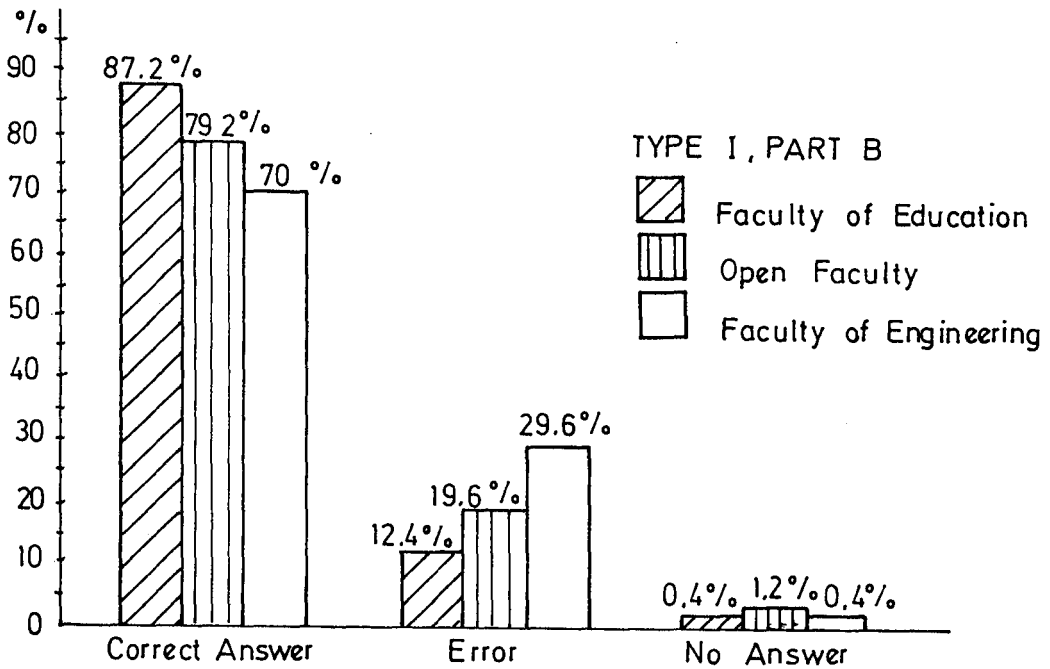EDF= Faculty of Education ; OPF= Open Faculty ; ENF= Faculty of
Engineering
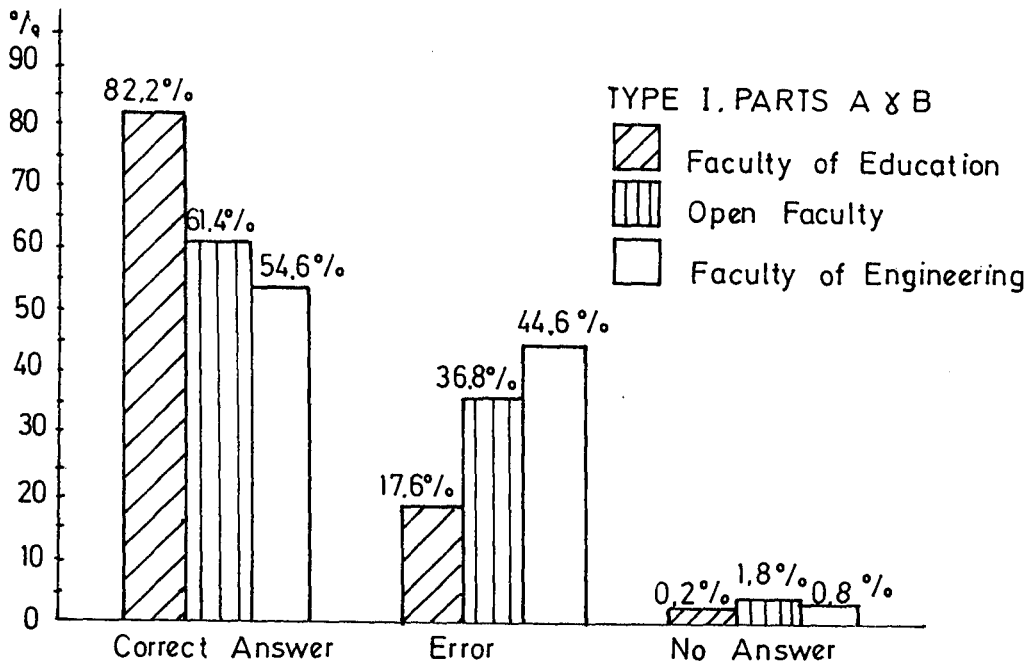
Figure 4.16. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in probable conditionals in translating Turkish con-
ditionals into English and English conditionals into
Turkish for the three different groups of students
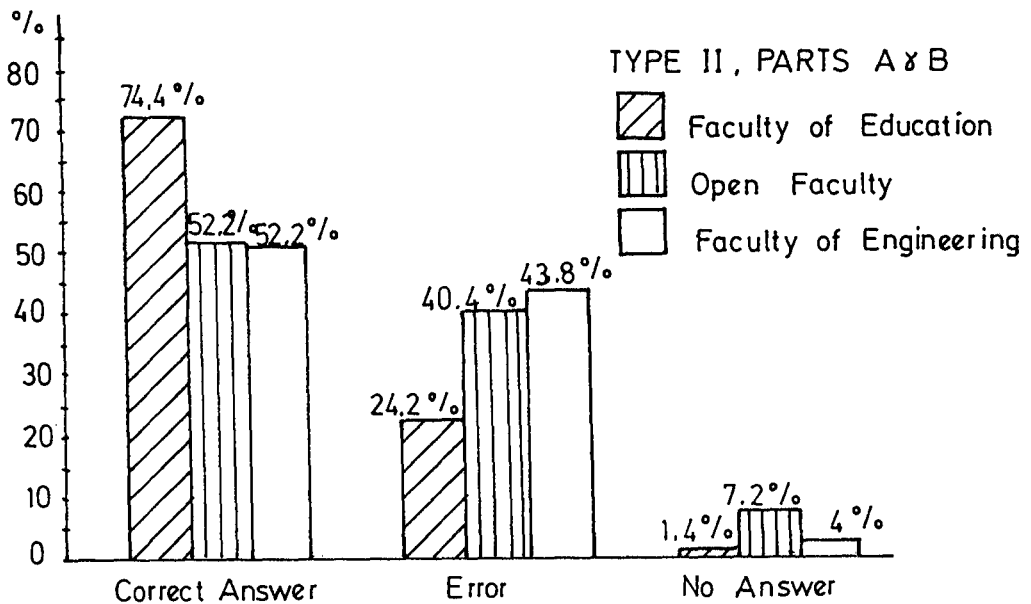
Figure 4.17. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in improbable conditionals in translating Turkish con-
ditionals into English and English conditionals into
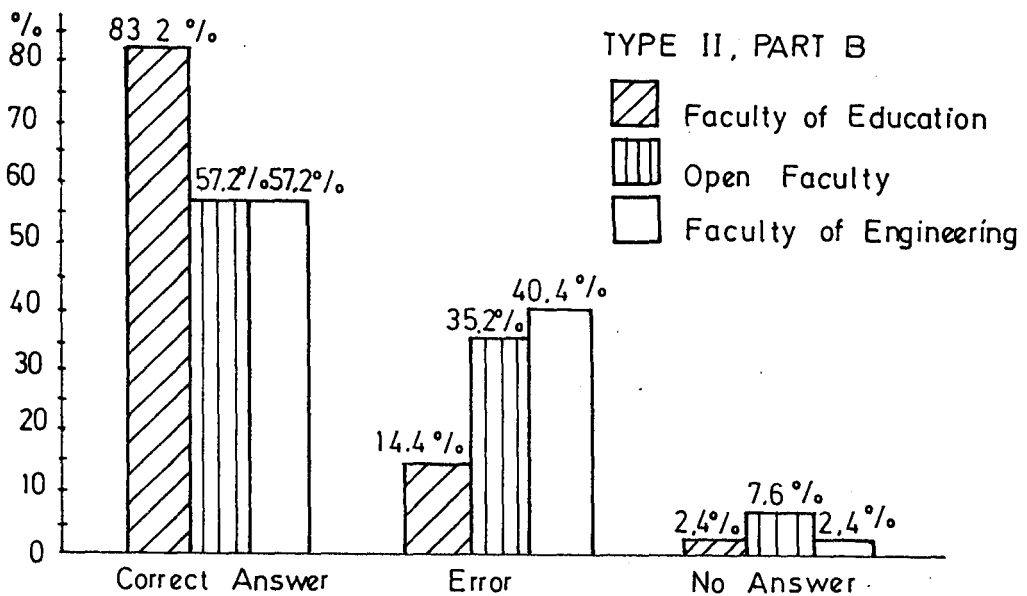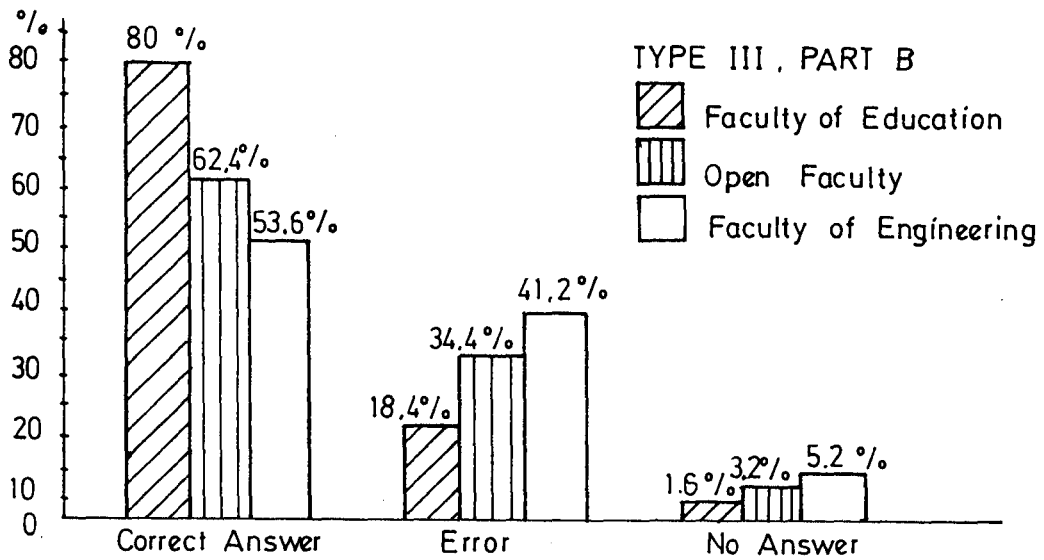Turkish for the three different groups of students
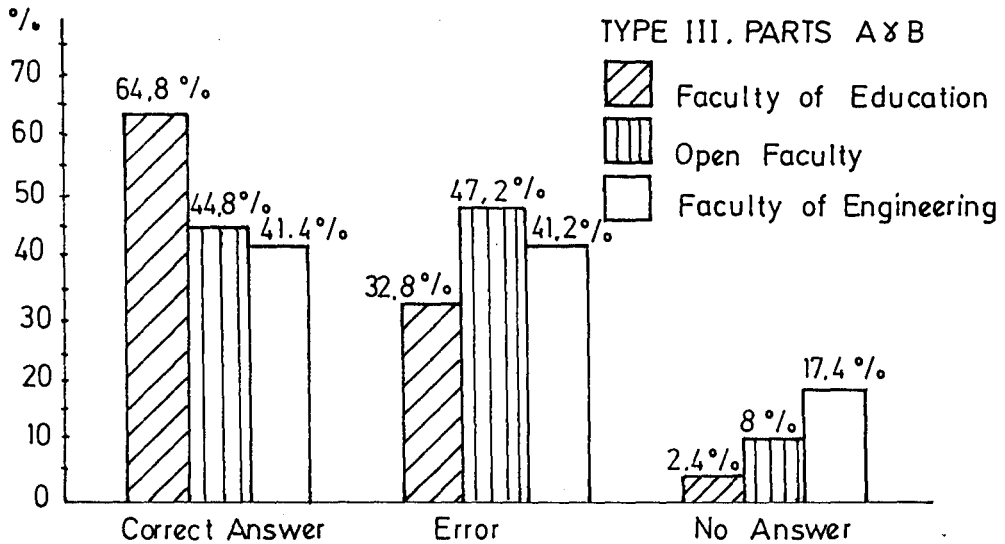
Figure 4.18. Percentages of correct answers, errors and no answers
in impossible conditionals in translating Turkish
conditionals into English and English conditionals
into Turkish for the three different groups of stu-
dents

4.3.2. Classification of Error Types

After extracting the errors from the data, errors were cla-
ssified into categories mentioned in 4.2.2. Following table and
Figure 4.19. show error types with number and percentage in Part
A of the test:

Table 4.13. Number and percentages of different error types in
translating Turkish conditionals into English

	Inter	Overg	Ambig	Perfo	te-in	Inc-A	Unique	Total
number of	321	59	440	130	30	16	40	1036
% of	31	6	42	125	3	15	4	100
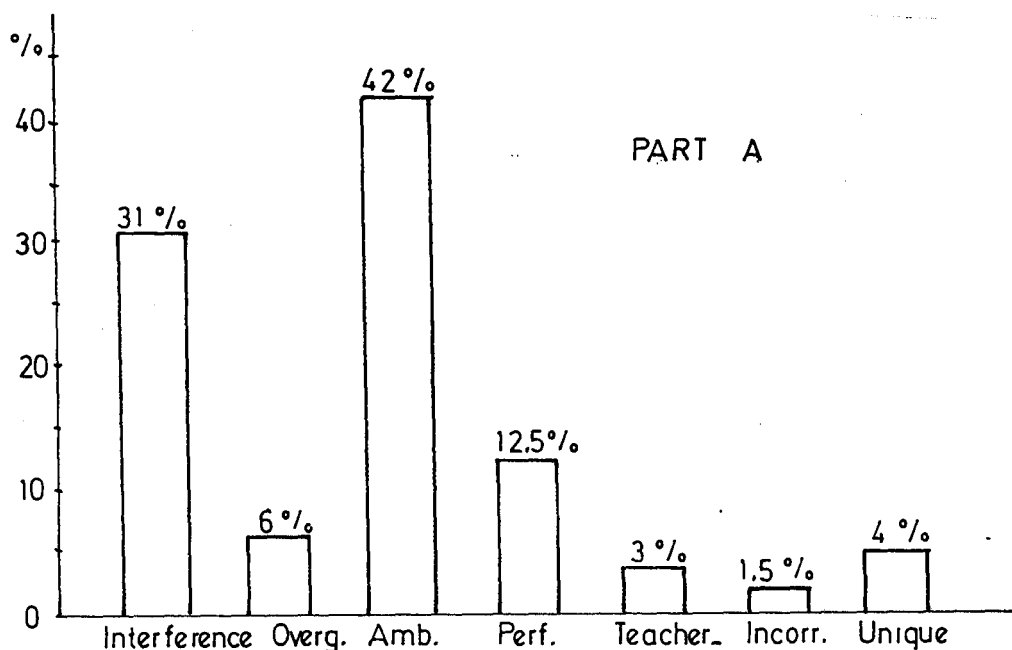
Figure 4.19. Percentages of different error types in translating
Turkish conditionals into English

As seen above, in the competence level, ambiguous errors
are rather high:440;42% and L1 interference errors follow them:
321;31% while in the performance level, performance errors are
quite high:130;12.5%.

Table 4.14. Number and percentages of different error types in
translating English conditionals into Turkish

	Inter	Ina-c	Ambig	Perfo	Te-in	inc-A	Unique	Total
number of	145	130	45	179	24	49	42	614
% of	23,6	21,1	7,3	29	4	8	7	100
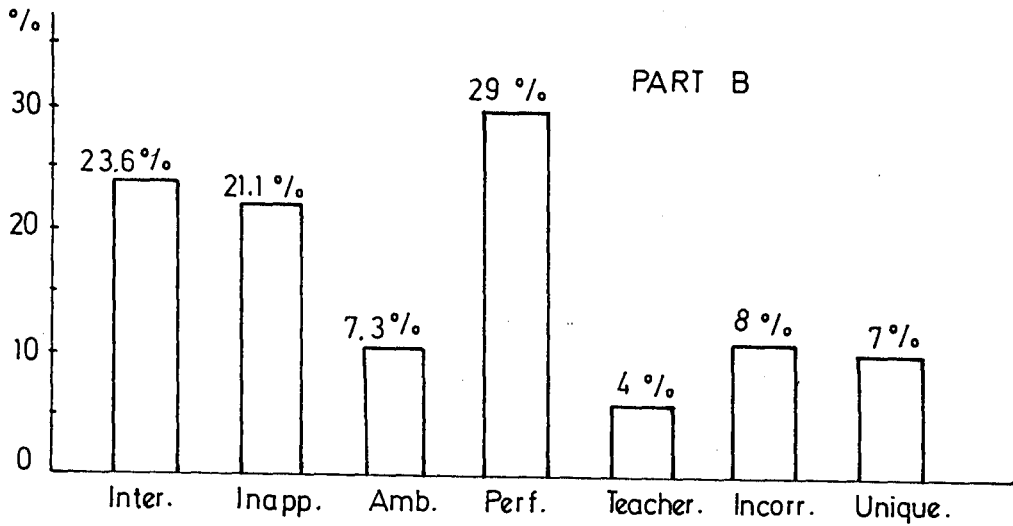
.Figure 4.20. Percentages of different error types in translating
English conditionals into Turkish

When compared to the total number of errors in two parts,

it is obvious that the number of errors decreases in Part B:1036

and 614.In Part B,performance errors are the highest:179;29%

while interference errors are the secomd in the order.Inappropri-

ate choice of structure or word occurs in this part of the test

and its number is rather high:130,amounted to 21.1%.

Table 4.15. Number and percentages of different error types in
translating Turkish conditionals into English and
English conditionals into Turkish

	Inter	Ov&in	Ambig	Perfo	Te-In	Inc-A	Unique	Total
number of	466	189	485	309	54	65	82	1650
% of	28	11,4	29,3	19	3,3	4	5	100
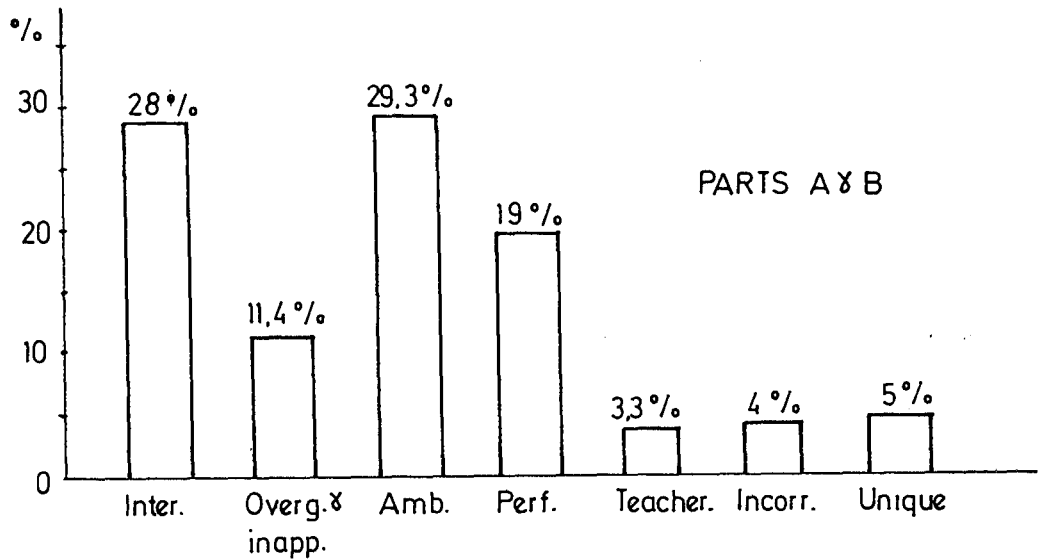
Figure 4.21. Percentages of different error types in translating
Turkish conditionals into English and English con-
ditionals into Turkish

As seen above, the results of the test indicate that amb-
iguous errors are the highest with 485 errors,correspond to 29.3%
and also interference errors are important in the competence level.
Performance errors have also significance with 309,19%.

Table 4.16. Number and percentages of different error types in translating Turkish conditionals into English for the three different groups of students

		Inter	Overg	Ambig	Perfo	Te-In	Inc-A	Uniqu	Total
EDF	numb. of	139	0	99	13	7	0	2	260
	% of	53	0	38	5	3	0	1	100
OPF	numb. of	89	29	179	61	13	10	27	408
	% of	22	7	44	15	3	2	7	100
ENF	numb. of	93	30	162	56	10	6	11	368
	% of	25	8	44	15	3	2	3	100
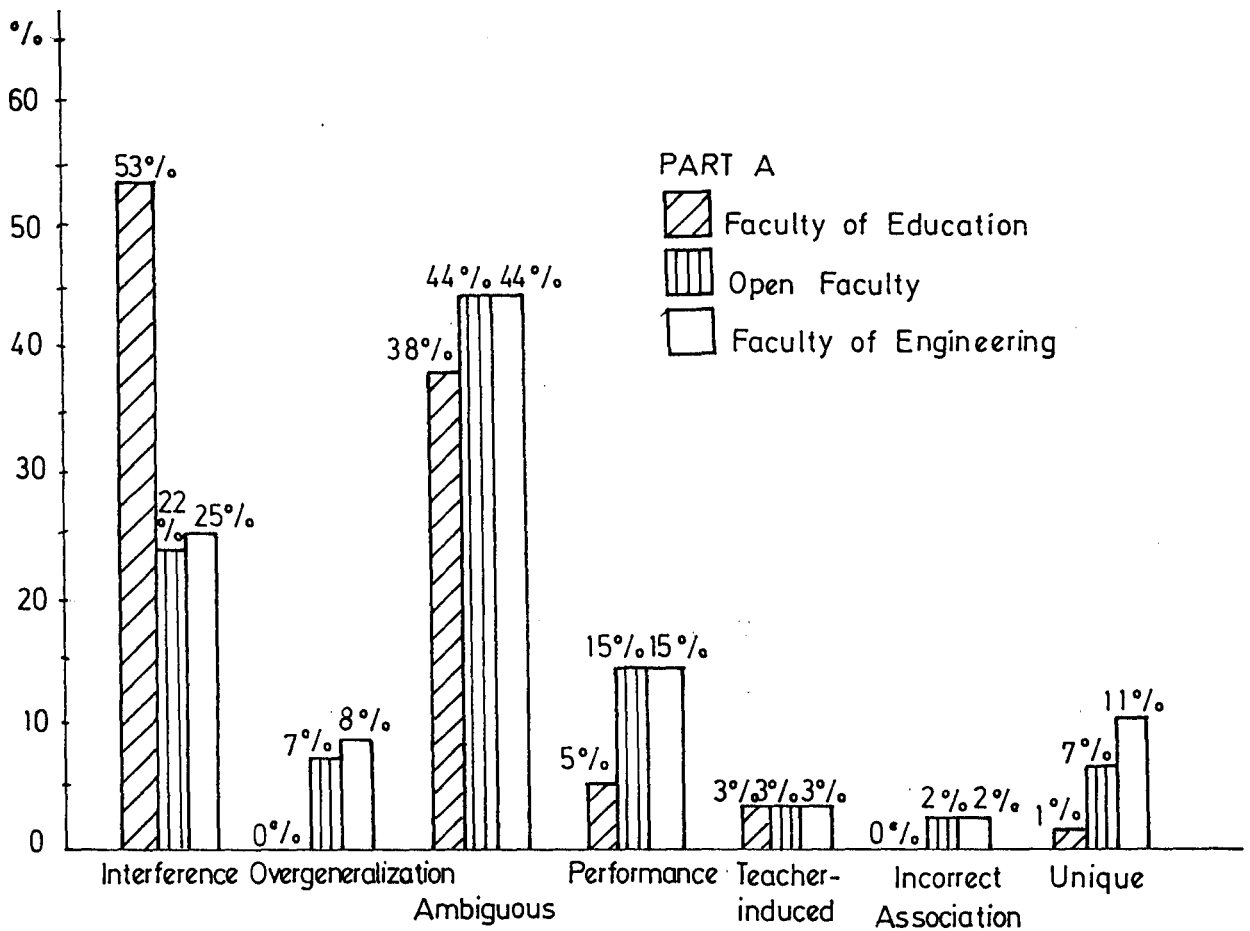
Figure 4.22. Percentages of different error types in translating Turkish conditionals into English for the three different groups of students

As illustrated in Table 4.16. and Figure 4.22.,in Part A,
Faculty of Education students have the highest rate in L1 inter-
ference errors while the students of Faculty of Engineering and
Open Faculty follow them.In ambiguous errors,the students of Open
Faculty and Faculty of Engineering have the same percentage:44%
while Faculty of Education students follow them with 38%. The
equality of two faculty-students continues in performance errors:
15% and Faculty of Education students have a third of their per-
centage:5%. In errors originated from overgeneralization and in-
correct association,Faculty of Education students show no failure
while the other faculty students show the same percentage in fai-
lure.In unique errors,Faculty of Engineering students have the
highest percentage:11% while Open Faculty students follow them
with 7% and Faculty of Education students show the lowest failure:
1%.

Table 4.17. Number and percentages of different error types in
translating English conditionals into Turkish for the
three different groups of students

|		Inter	Ina-C	Ambig	Perfo	Te-In	Inc-A	Uniqu	Total
EDF	numb.of	2	47	4	62	13	13	13	154
	% of	1	30.6	3	40.2	8.4	8.4	8.4	100
OPF	numb.of	130	20	36	6	2	5	26	225
	% of	58	9	16	2.5	1	3	11.5	100
ENF	numb.of	13	63	5	111	9	31	3	235
	% of	6	27	2	47	4	13	1	100
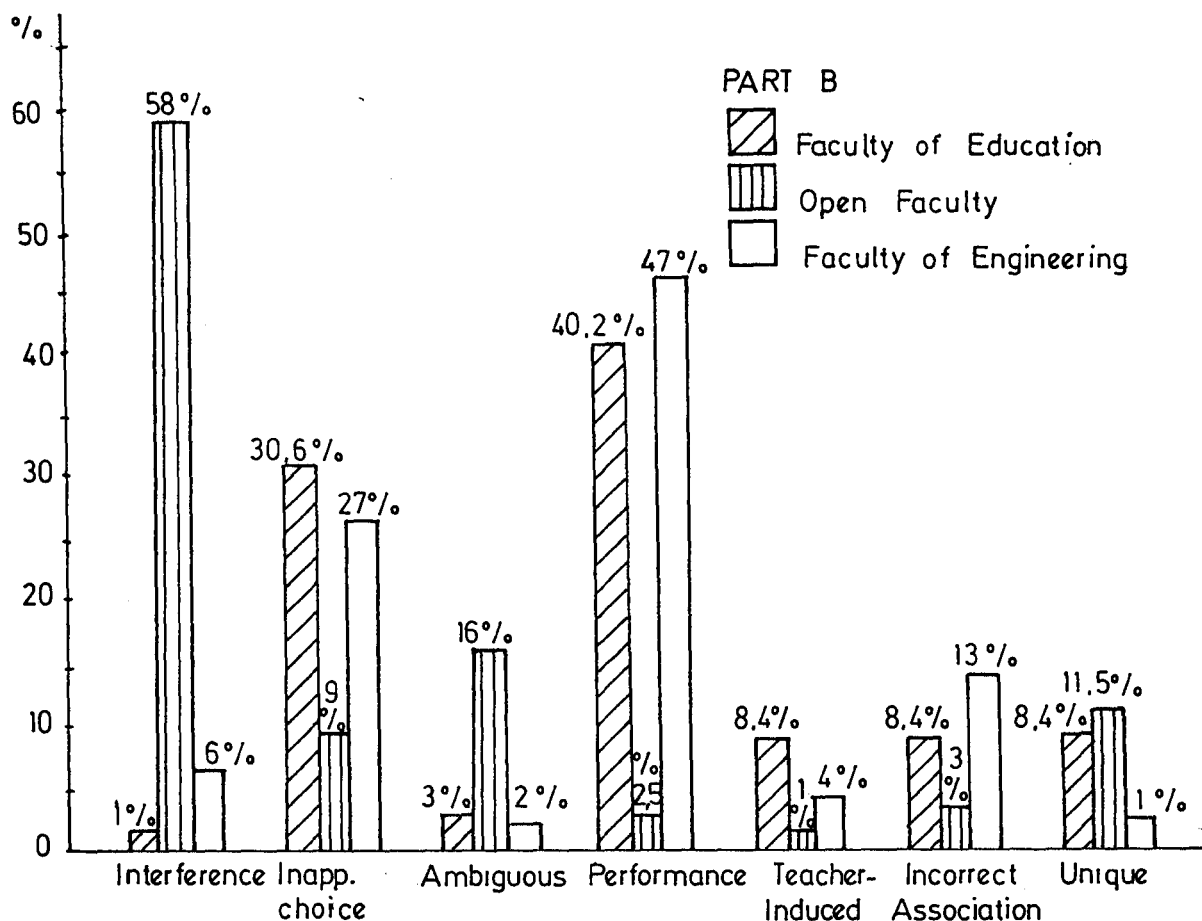
Figure 4.23. Percentages of different error types in translating
English conditionals into Turkish for the three dif-
ferent groups of students

As showed in Table 4.17. and Figure 4.23,in Part B, Open

Faculty students make errors mostly due to L1 interference:58%

while the students of Faculty of Education and Faculty of Engi-

neering make errors due to performance:40.2% and 47% when handled

the total error rate among these three groups.Errors originated

from inappropriate choice of structure or word have a high per-

centage in the students of Faculty of Education and Faculty of

Engineering: 30.6% and 27% while ambiguous errors are quite high

in the performance of Open Faculty students: 16%. Faculty of

Education students have the highest percentage in errors due to

teacher or teaching materials; Open Faculty students in errors called unique; Faculty of Engineering students in errors due to incorrect association.

Table 4.18. Number and percentages of different error types in translating Turkish conditionals into English and English conditionals into Turkish for the three different groups of students

		Inter	Ov-In	Ambig	Perfo	Te-In	Inc-A	Uniqu	Total
EDF	numb. of	141	47	103	75	20	13	15	414
	% of	34	11	25	18	5	3	4	100
OPF	numb. of	219	49	215	67	15	15	53	633
	% of	35	8	34	11	2	2	8	100
ENF	numb. of	106	93	167	167	19	37	14	603
	% of	18	15	28	28	3	6	2	100
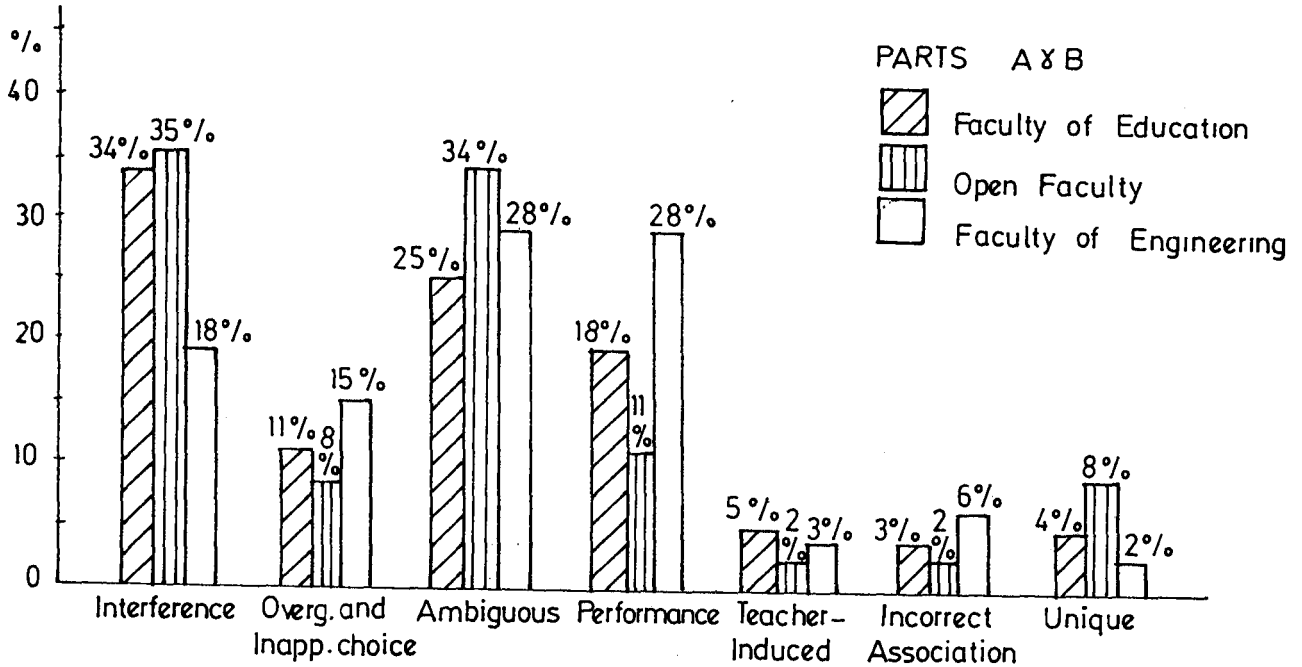
Figure 4.24. Percentages of different error types in translating
Turkish conditionals into English and English con-
ditionals into Turkish for the three different groups
of students

As indicated in Table 4.18. and Figure 4.24., in Parts A
and B, Open Faculty students make errors mostly in the errors due
to L1 interference and those errors called ambiguous;Faculty of
Education students mostly in these kinds of errors; Faculty of
Engineering students in performance and ambiguous errors.

4.3.3. Summary

Results of the EA can be summarized as follows:

1- The performance of the students in the two parts of the trans-
lation test was different.In Part B,they showed higher percentage

of correct answers while the percentage of errors was quite low.

2- Faculty of Education students showed the highest success level in the recognition and production of conditionals while Faculty of Engineering students showed the highest failure and Open Faculty was the second in terms of success level.

3- The impossible conditionals (Type III) appeared the most problematic conditional for these students.

4- Faculty of Engineering students showed the highest failure mostly in impossible conditionals.

5- Although ambiguous errors seemed to have the highest percentage in both parts of the test, errors due to L1 interference had a high percentage,too.Besides,performance errors also had the highest percentage.

6- In the total of the test, the students of Faculty of Education and Open Faculty made errors mostly due to L1 interference and those errors called ambiguous; Faculty of Engineering students in performance and ambiguous.

NOTE

(1)The Faculty of Education students have received English instruction for about three years with a full English program while Open Faculty students for a year but on the basis of a program in which English is used in every course and every day.The Faculty of Engineering students have received English instruction for about two years on the basis of a program in which English is taught six hours a week.

The time these three groups of students have received English instruction provides their language levels.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.1. DISCUSSION

The students showed different performance and success level
in the two parts of the translation test.When compared the results
of the two parts, in Part B,the studentsshowed higher percentage
of correct answers:70% while the percentage of errors was rather
low:27%.Why did this result happen? Because Turkish has condition-
al sentences which cause ambiguities in themselves,so the students
were confused when translating Turkish conditionals into English
ones.That's why, errors became high in Part A while correct ans-
wers were high in Part B.The percentage of no answers decreased
inPart B.No answers probably occurred due to the avoidance。

Perhaps students' Turkish competence took a part on the
occurrence of this case.The grammatical competence of these Turkish
speakers on their own language (Turkish) is naturally higher than
the one on the TL (English).Thus, when they translated Englibh sen-
tences into Turkish,they might use their competence on Turkish
easily in the production of conditionals,however,they could not

recognize if-clauses.On the other hand,when they translated

Turkish sentences into English,they could not produce English

conditionals perfectly since they might not recognize them or they

had a shaky knowledge about conditionals.

In the total success level of the test,Faculty of Education

students showed the highest success level and Open Faculty stu-

dents followed them.But Faculty of Engineering students showed the

highest failure.The reason of these results is obvious: All the

groups have been receiving different language instruction. in Eng-

lish during this study since their language levels and purpose of

learning English were rather different.According to this,Faculty

of Education students have received English instruction for about

three years with a full English program while Open Faculty stu-

dents for a year but on the basis of a program in which English

is used in every course and every day.Faculty of Engineering stu-

dents have received English instruction for about two years on

the basis of a program in which English is taught six hours a

week.Therefore, with these different language backgrounds,in the

first place,the failure of Faculty of Engineering students in

the production of conditionals is quite apparent.

From this result,one can reach a coclusion like this:"The

more students have grammar the less errors they make." This can

mean that learning conditionals may be a "habit formation".

Results indicated that the impossible conditionals(Type III)

were the most problematic conditional for this sample of students.

Because Type III is rather complex and in Turkish there is no clear cut distiction between improbable and impossible conditionals.

As mentioned above,Faculty of Engineering students showed the highest failure mostly in impossible conditionals due to their shaky knowledge about these complex constructions.

Mostly ambiguous errors were made in both parts of the test. But errors due to L1 interference had a high percentage.These verify the assumption that the complexity of conditionals and ambiguities resulted from Turkish structure cause the ambiguous errors which can be interpreted as either interference or failure in TL and NL systems; for that reason,students will make these types of errors.

Performance errors showed the highest rate in the total of the test.This indicates that translation is a difficult task, therefore,some erroneous usages can occur.

Mostly Open Faculty students made errors due to L1 interference and errors called ambiguous among the three groups of students. This shows that even in the intermediate level,the learners can be affected by NL structure and make errors in TL system in the production of conditionals.

The study showed that English conditionals pose problems for Turkish learners of English although they have a regular pattern.

Results verfied the usufulness of the techniques of
CA-and EA as pedagogical tools.

The conclusions can be summarized as follows:

i. The most problematic type seems to be impossible conditional
sentences,

ii. Even if ambiguous errors show a high percentage among
the other error types, errors due to interference have also
a great importance in the learning of conditional sentences
for Turkish learners of English;

iii. Even in the intermediate level, either lower or upper,
the conditionals pose problems for Turkish learners.

5.2. IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING CONDITIONALS

The results of this study lead to conclude that even
students at the intermediate level make great errors and this
shows that they have a shaky knowledge about English condition-
als although they are rather regular in English, Therefore,
English conditionals should be taught at the advanced level.

Before introducing the conditional, students should be
able to use with ease and accuracy the present, the past, the
past perfect tenses and the modal auxiliaries, especially
can and could. After making sure they have really mastered
these verb forms, the conditional should be introduced. Since
these contructions are classified as "complex", all types
cannot be introduced at once in a short period. That's why,
the three types should be taught, beginning from the first
type with time intervals.

Because of this regularity students concentrate on the mechanics of the grammatical contructions and do not think enough about meaning and use of the patterns(Tezer, 1987: 9). For that reason, conditionals should be presented on the basis of meaning and use. In order to understand meaning and use, the idea of context and situation is essential. In other words, real language occurs in real-life situations or as a result of real information(Harmer, 1983: 51).

As a result, conditionals should be presented in context or situations. By context, we mean the situation or the body of the information that results in language being used. According to this, in classroom terms, the classroom with physical surroundings and students; situations which are either invented stories or simulated real-life; formulated information, simulated or real-life can be the examples of context types.

5.3. LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The thesis concerned with only if-clauses under the title of "conditionals". It is obvious that in English, there are other conditional constructions to be studied such as "providing that", "suppose that", "on the condition that" and so forth. They were left to future studies.

The basis of the study was to provide o case analysis about Turkish learners' problems with these contructions. As a result, it was not a longitudinal study.

The language level of the subjects in this study was intermediate(both lower and upper) and in the light of results based on EA, Advanced Level was suggested for the sake of future research in this field.

This study brought some implications for Turkish learners' competence on conditionals but to some extent. Thus, a study can be done on how much Turkish speakers know about conditional sentences in their own language.

From the EA data, some error types were extracted. One or two of them can be studied in their own right.

After the case had been analyzed by the help of CA and EA, some suggestions were made and cited from the pedagogical point of view. However, these suggestions were not tested. The application of pedagogical suggestions in the ELT classroom was left to future longitudinal studies.

The relation between the form and the meaning of conditionals was not tested. This can be investigated in future studies.

APPENDIX I

A SAMPLE OF THE TRANSLATION TEST

USED FOR DATA COLLECTION (WITH POSSIBLE ANSWERS)

TRANSLATION TEST

A- Translate the following sentences into English:

1-Gerceği söylerse ona inanırız.

  (If he tells the truth,we'll believe him.)

2- Hava güzel olursa pikniğe gideriz.

   (If the weather is nice,we will go for a picnic.)

3- Erken kalkarsan çay içersin.

   (If you get up early,you will drink tea.)

4- Birkaç kez okusa unutmayacak.

   (If he reads several times,he won't forget,)

5- Geleceksen işini çabuk bitir.

   (If you come,finish your work quickly.)

6- Pencereyi açarsan sinekler içeri girer.

   (If you open the window,flies will come in.)

7- Oraya gidersek mutlaka sizi görürüz.

   (If we go there,we'll certainly see you.)

8- Taksiye binersek tiyatroya yetişebiliriz.

   (If we take a taxi,we can reach the theatre in time.)

9- Yemek yiyorsa dışarda bekleyecekler.

   (If he is eating his meal,they will wait outside.)

10- İstersen sana yardım edebilirim.

   (If you want, I can help you.)

11- Bir kelime daha söylese ağlardı.

(If he said one more word,she would cry.)

12- Zamanım olsa sana mutlaka gelirdim.

(If I had any time,I would certainly come to you.)

13- Şansım olsa balık tutardım.

(If I were in luck, I would catch the fish.)

14- Şimdi bize gelseniz,iyi eğlenirdiniz.

(If you came to us now,you would have a good time.)

15- Senin yerinde olsam bir doktora giderdim.

(If I were you, I would go to a doctor.)

16- Çok param olsa bir araba alırım.

(If I had a lot of money,I would buy a car,)

17- Siz olsanız ne yaparsınız?

(If it were you,what would you do?)

18- Şimdi araba bozulmasaydı tam zamanında Istanbul'da olacaktık.

(If the car didn't break down now,we would be in Ist. in time.)

19- Erken gelseydiniz şimdi burada beklemezdiniz.

(If you came early,you wouldn't wait here now.)

20- Bana gelsen sinemaya birlikte giderdik.

(If you came to me,we would go to the cinema together.)

21- Eger şartları uygun olmasaydı kabul etmezdik.

(If its conditions hadn't been convenient,we wouldn't have

accepted it.)

22- Sözümü dinleseydin şimdi bu derdin olmazdı.

(If you had listened to me,you wouldn't have had this problem now)

23- Bilseydim ben de sizinle gelirdim.

(If I had known,I would have come with you,too.)

24- Onu o zamanlar birgün görmesem mutsuz olurdum.

(If I hadn't seen him even one day in those days I'd have been

7- You will spoil it if you aren't careful.

(Bozacaksın onu dikkatli olmazsan eğer.)

8- If it snows this evening, I won't go out.

(Bu aksam kar yağarsa, disari çıkmayacagım.)

9- He will come if you wait.

(Gelir beklersen eğer.)

10- If you ring the bell,somebody will come.

(Zili çalarsan birisi gelir.)

11- What would you do if you won a million pounds?

(Ne yapardın bir milyon pound kazansaydın?)

12- I would be very frightened if someone pointed a gun at me.

(Çok korkardım eğer birisi bana silah doğrultsaydı.)

13- If you stopped smoking,you'd probably feel healtier.

(Sigara içmeyi bıraksaydın,muhtemelen daha sağlıklı hissederdin)

14- If I knew her number,I would telephone her,

(Numarasını bilseydim ona telefon ederdim.)

15- What would you do if you were bitten by a snake?

(Ne yapardın bir yılan tarafından ısırılsaydın?)

16- If I found L1000 in the street,I would keep it.

(Sokakta 1000 pound bulsam,onu saklardım.)

17- Kim wouldn't lend me any money if I asked her.

(Kim bana hiç ödünç para vermezdi isteseydim eğer.)

18- If I were you I would go home immediately.

(Senin yerinde olsam,hemen eve giderdim.)

19- If I were an orange I should be sperical and juicy.

(Eger bir portakal olsaydım küre biçiminde ve sulu olurdum.)

20- If I were you I wouldn't buy that coat.

(Senin yerinde olsam,o paltoyu satın almazdım.)

21- If we had played better,we might have won.

(Eger daha iyi oynamış olsaydık,kazanabilirdik belki.)

22- If I hadn't told him,he would never have known.

(Ona söylemeseydim, hiçbir zaman bilmeyecekti.)

23- If you had left earlier,you would have caught the train.

(Daha erken ayrılsaydın trene yetişirdin.)

24- If the dog had not woken us we would never have heard the

burglar.

(Eger köpek bizi uyandırmamış olsaydı hırsızı asla duymazdık.)

25- The child would have been killed if the train hadn't stopped

quickly.

(Tren hemen durmasaydı çocuk ölmüş olacaktı.)

26- If she hadn't answered the telephone,she would never have heard

the good news.

(Eğer telefona cevap vermemiş olsaydı iyi haberi hiçbir zaman

duymayacaktı.)

27- If I had seen you,I would have said hello.

(Seni görmüş olsaydım,merhaba derdim.)

28- It would have broken if you had not caught it.

(Kırılacaktı tutmamış olsaydın.)

29- We would have enjoyed the play if it had not been so long.

(Oyundan hoslanacaktık eğer bu kadar uzun olmamiş olsaydı.)

30- He would have come if you had invited him.

(Gelirdi onu davet etmiş olsaydın.)

APPENDIX II

A LIST OF TYPICAL ERRORS

SELECTED FROM THE EA DATA

I- Part A

1- Interference Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

If the weather was good,we would go to the picnic.

If he read,he wouldn't forget it.

If had wanted,I might have helped you.

If he said real us,we would believe him.

If we had got on taxi,we would have caught the theatre.

If the weather had been nice,we would have gone to picnic.

If you had got up early,you would have drunk tea.

If you got up early,you would drink tea.

If he had read a few times,he wouldn't have forgotten.

If you wanted,I would help you.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

If he says a word more,she will cry.

If I had had time, I certainly would have come to you.

If I had been fortunate, I could have caught fish.

If you had come to us, you would have spent a good time.

If I have a lot of money, I'll buy a car,

If the car hadn't broken down,we would have been in Istanbul on time.

If you are in this position,what will you do?

If I have luck,I will catch the fish.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

If its conditions were not convenient,we wouldn't accept it.

If you listened to me,you wouldn't have this trouble.

If I knew, I would also come with you.

If I did not see her once at that time I would be unhappy.

If you studied before, you could do this.

If I thought before,I would not behave like that.

If I were you,I would not think of him any more.

If I had a chance,I would see him.

If you study before,you can do this.

I'll go with you if I know.

2- Overgeneralization:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

If the air is been nice,we go to the picnic.

If he was talk true, we believe him.

If you were get up early,you drink tea.

If she was read several times,she don't forget.

If you were want,I help you.

B.In Improbable Conditionals:

If she was said one more word,she would cry.

If you were come to us,you would enjoy very well.

If you were come early,you wouldn't wait here now.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

If the conditions didn't be reasonable,we didn't accept it.

If you were listen me,you wouldn't have this problem now.

If I was know,I would come with you.

If you were work this before,you could do this.

If I were think before,I wouldn't behave like that.

3- Ambiguous Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

If she tells the truth,we believe her.

We go to the picnic if the weather is fine.

If you will get up early,you'll drink a cup of tea.

He doesn't forget if he reads a few times.

If you open the window,the flies come into the house.

If we go there,we certainly see you.

If he eat lunch,they wait out.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

If he say one more word,she would cry.

If I have enough time,believe me,I come to you.

If I had luck, I would have caught fish.

If I were you,I went to a doctor.

I buy a car if I have much money.

What did you do if you were me?

If you came early,you didn't wait here now.

If he tell a few word,she will cried.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

If the conditions were not suitable,we would not accepted.

If you listened to my advice,now you didn't have trouble.

You could do this if you would work before.

If I thought before, I didn't behave so.

If I were you I would never have thought about him any more.

If everybody thinks like them,no problem could be solved.

If I have any chance, I saw her.

If I have known, I would come with you,too.

If I knew,I came with you.

If I have opportunity, I see him.

4- Performance Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

If the weather good, we shall go to picnic.

If he read it twice or more,he will not forget it.

If you wake up earlier, you can drink tea.

If you will get up early, you drink tea.

If we go there,we must see you.

If she eat food, they will wait her outside.

If he eating they will wait out.

If you want, I will help you.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

If I had time,I could come to you.

If I were you,I could go to a doctor.

What do you do if you were me?

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

If I had not see him one day I would have be unhappy.

If you had not left the child alone,he would not fallen into the

water.

If I had known, I would come with you.

If I had a chance,I would have seen her.

5- Teacher-Induced Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

We might have catch the theatre if we get on the taxi.

If the weather will good,we'll go picnic.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

I would certainly come to you if I could have free time.

If this car hasn't broken down now,we would be in Istanbul in time.

If I were you, I had gone to a doctor.

If you came to me, we had go to cinema together.

If I should be lucky, I catch fish.

If he said one more word,she may cry.

C.In Impossible Conditionals:

If I were you, I will never think it again.

If you have studied it, you could do now.

If you have listened to me,now you wouldn't have been in this problem.

If I have had opportunity,I would see him.

6- Incorrect Association:

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

If the car is broken down now we would be in Istanbul at the true time.

If you were come early,you waited here now.

B. In Impossible Conditionals:
If the condition was covenient,we didn't accept.

If you listened me,you wouldn't heven't got any trouble now.

7- Unique Errors:

In All Types:

If the weather has been well, we can go picnic.

If we will go we must see .

If you could come early,you aren't waiting here now.

If you would have been in this position what do you do?

If I could not saw him,I was unhappy at that time.

You hadn't have this problem if you would listen to my word.

If I would know, I will come with you.

If I would think it before,I don't behave so.

If conditions weren't convenient,we don't accept.

II- Part B

1- Interference Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

O Pencereyi kapamasaydın hepimiz soğuktan ölecektik.

Zil çalsaydı birileri gelecekti.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

Eğer bir milyon kazanmış olsaydın ne yapardın?

Eğer birisi silahı bana doğrultursa çok korkarım.

Eger sigarayı bırakırsan belki kendini daha sağlıklı hissedersin.

Yılan tarafından ısirilmış olsaydınız ne yapardınız?

Kim bana hiç ödünç para vermezdi eger ona sormuş olsaydım.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

Eger onu davet ettiysen gelecektir.

O asla bilmeyecek eger ben ona söylemezsem.

Telefona cevap vermezse asla güzel haberleri duyamayacak.

Ben seni görürsem eğer merhaba diyeceğim.

Sen onu davet edersen gelecek.

Daha erken ayrılırsan trene yetişebilirsin.

2- Inappropriate Choice of Structure(s) or Word(s):

A. In Probable Conditionals:

Bu gece geçim diye endişelenme.

Eğer yağmur yağarsa hasta olurlar.

Eğer birkaç tabak daha kırarsan sinirden öleceğim.

Uygunsa 9'a kadar bekliyebiliriz.

Dikkatsizsen sütü taşırırsın.

Eğer daha fazla yersen ölüceksin.

Üzülme eğer ben bu gece üzülürsem.

O gelebilir eğer gecikirsen.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

Eğer bir milyon poundun olsaydı ne yapardın?

Eğer birisi silahı bana doğrultursaydı, kavga edebilirdim.

Caddede L1000 bulsaydım,ona sahip olurdum.

Eğer sigarayı bıraksaydın sağlığın düzelirdi,

Onun numarasını biliyorsan ona telefon edeyim.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

Daha iyi çalabilseydik belki kazanabilirdik.

Ona anlatmamış olsaydım asla tanımazdı.

Eğer davet etmiş olsaydın gelirdik.

Eğer biz güzel oynasaydık belki sampiyon olurduk.

Eğer onu ziyaret etseydim beni ziyaret edecekti.

3- Ambiguous Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

Daha fazla tabak kırdığın halde çok üzülecegim.

Eğer pencereyi kapatmıyorsanız soğuktan öleceksiniz.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

Eğer sigarayı bırakırsan belki de kendini daha iyi hissederdin.

Kim kendisinden borç para isteseydim hiç göndermeyecekti.

Bir milyon pound kazanırsan ne yapardın?

Eğer birisi bana silah doğrultursa çok korkardım.

Eğer bir portakal olsaymışim yuvarlak ve sulu olurdum.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

Daha iyi oynayabilseydik kazanabilirdik.

Şayet onu gördüysem merhaba demişimdir.

O gelir şayet davet ettiysen.

4- Performance Errors:

A. In Probable Conditionals:

Daha fazla yersen hasta olabilirsin.

Eğer yağmur yağarsa ıslanabilirler.

Bu akşam kar yağarsa dışarı gidemem.

Beklersen o gelebilir.

Dikkatli olmazsan onu bozabilirsin.

Zili çalarsan biri gelebilir.

B. In Improbable Conditionals:

Eğer onun numarasını bilseydim ona telefon edebilirdim.

Eğer bir portakal olsaydım yuvarlak ve sulu olabilirdim.

Sigarayı bıraksaydın belki kendini sağlıklı hissedebilirdin.

C. In Impossible Conditionals:

Daha iyi oynasaydık kazanırdık.

Daha erken çıksaydın trene yetişebilirdin.

Eğer köpek bizi uyandırmasaydı hırsızı asla duyamayacaktık.

Tren hemen durmasaydı çocuk 'ölmüş olabilirdi.

Telefonu yanıtlamasaydı iyi haberi işitemezdi.

5- Teacher-Induced Errors:

In All Types:

Üzgün değil bu gece geç kalırsam.

Eğer çok tabak kırarsan ben çok kızmalıyım.

Eğer dikkatsizsen sen bozmalısın.

Eğer bir portakal olsaydım yuvarlak ve sulu olmalıydım.

Eğer ona söylemeseydim hiç öğrenemiyecekti.

Eğer telefona cevap vermeseydi iyi haberleri duymayabilirdi.

Sen onu davet etseydin o gelebilirdi.

Eğer onu yakalayamasaydın kırılabilecekti.

6- Incorrect Association:

In All Types:

Eger ben çok kızarsam artık tabakları kırarsın.

Eger o gelirse sen bekle.

Ona sorsaydım Kim bana biraz ödünç para verirdi.

Uzun bir süre geçmeseydi oyundan zevk almayacaktık.

Tren aniden durmasaydı çocuk ölmüş olmayacaktı.

Kırılsaydı onu yakalayamazdım.

Gelseydi onu davet ederdim.

7- Unique Errors:

In All Types:

Daha fazla tabak kırdığında çok kızacagım.

Zili çalınca birisi gelir.

Bir kimse silahını bana tuttuğunda çok korkmuş oluyorum.

Eğer sen yapmazsan ben hemen eve gidecegim.

Kim bana borç vermeyince ondan istedim.

Eğer telefona cevap vermediyse iyi haberleri duyamadı.

Eğer çok iyi oynasaymışlar kazanırmışız.

Çocuk ölmüştür şayet tren acele durmadıysa.

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