

**TURKISH SPEAKING FIRST YEAR AND THIRD YEAR ELT STUDENTS'  
SYNTACTIC ERRORS IN THEIR ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS**

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**DISSERTATION**

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**ABSTRACT****TURKISH SPEAKING FIRST YEAR AND THIRD YEAR ELT STUDENTS’  
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The purpose of this study is to explore the syntactic error types made by ELT students in their English essays, to find out whether the errors show any difference according to the year level and the error type, and to describe the frequent errors emerged in the data. This research is believed to contribute to our ELT practices like the design of teaching activities in the fields of both FL teaching and language teacher training. The study is a part of a larger project which was funded by TÜBİTAK SOBAG group (project number 108K153).

The corpus used for analysis was reached by computerizing 8794-word handwritten texts composed of the argumentative essays of 17 first year students and 17 third year students of Anadolu University Education Faculty ELT Department BA Program. Syntactic errors in the texts were identified and corrected by a British native speaker. The errors were assigned error tags used by the *UCLEE* program and the error frequencies were obtained using the concordance program *AntConc*. Statistical analyses were obtained via *SPSS 15* program. Determining whether each error was an omission, addition or misinformation error, as proposed in the “surface structure taxonomy” (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982), and stating the errors’ syntactic, semantic and discourse level features formed the descriptions of the frequent errors.

According to the findings, there were nine general types of errors in the texts. Four of them, namely article, verb, noun and pronoun use in frequency order, accounted for 86% of all the errors found. The non-parametric tests showed no significant difference

between the two year levels on the basis of the error frequencies, but they confirmed a significant difference between the errors of both article use and verb use and all other types of errors.

In the light of the results, the most frequent errors, namely the errors of article use, were focused on and described in terms of specificity, genericity, uniqueness and discourse features. The widespread addition of “*the*” was found with noun phrases having [–specific], [+generic, +plural], and [–unique] nouns and the noun phrases which were newly introduced in the discourse. In the light of available literature, these results might indicate that the present ELT students’ acquisition of article use has not been completed yet.

**Key words:** English article use, English language teaching, learner corpus, syntactic error, Turkish learners

## ÖZET

### İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜ BİRİNCİ VE ÜÇÜNCÜ SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN İNGİLİZCE YAZILI METİNLERİNDEKİ SÖZDİZİMİ HATALARI

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Bu çalışmada, İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin İngilizce yazılı metinlerinde yaptıkları sözdizimsel hataların belirlenmesi, iki sınıf düzeyine ve hata türlerine göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığının incelenmesi ve sık görülen hataların ortaya çıktığı ortamların tanımlanması amaçlanmıştır. Çalışmanın, İngilizce'nin öğretimi ve öğretmen yetiştirme alanlarında ders materyali hazırlama gibi uygulamaların desenlenmesine katkıda bulunacağına inanılmaktadır. Bu tez, TÜBİTAK tarafından desteklenmiş olan daha büyük bir projenin bir bölümünü oluşturmaktadır (proje no 108K153).

Çalışmanın derlemi, Anadolu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Lisans Programı'nda okuyan 17 birinci sınıf ve 17 üçüncü sınıf öğrencisinden elde edilmiştir; derlem elle yazılmış ve bilgisayar ortamına aktarılmış toplam 8794 sözcük içeren sav metinlerinden oluşmuştur. Metinlerdeki hatalar bir anadili konuşucusu tarafından saptanmış ve düzeltilmiştir. Hataların kodlamaları UCLEE, frekans sayımları AntConc ve istatistiksel analizleri SPSS 15 programları yardımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Hatanın hangi işlem sonucu ortaya çıktığını belirlemek amacıyla Dulay, Burt ve Krashen'in (1982) "yüzeysel yapı sınıflandırması" kapsamında "gerekli yerde kullanmama", "gereksiz durumda metne ekleme" ve "yanlış kullanım" parametreleri kullanılmış ve ayrıca hatalar söz dizimi, anlam ve söylem düzeylerinde betimlenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Elde edilen bulgulara göre metinlerde dokuz genel hata türünde sorunlar bulunmuştur. Bu hataların %86'sını oluşturan dört hata türü; tanımlık, eylem, isim ve zamir hataları olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Yapılan parametrik olmayan testlerin sonucunda birinci sınıf ve üçüncü sınıf düzeyleri arasında hata sayıları bakımından istatistiksel olarak bir fark bulunmamış, ancak, hata türleri arasında tanımlık ve eylem hataları diğer türlerden anlamlı şekilde farklı bulunmuştur.

Ortaya çıkan eylem hatalarının çoğunlukla “yanlış kullanım”lar olduğu görülmüş, bu yanlış kullanımların yarıya yakın bir kısmını özne-yüklem uyumu hataları oluşturmuştur. Bulunan isim hatalarının çoğunluğunu çoğul takısının sayılabilir bir isimle birlikte kullanılmamış olması durumu oluşturmuştur. Zamir hatalarının çoğunu ise yanlış kullanım oluşturmuştur. Tanımlık hatalarının çoğunu belgili tanımlığın gereksiz durumda metne eklenmesi oluşturmuştur. İkinci sırada, gerekli olduğu yerde kullanılmamış olduğu ve az oranda da yanlış kullanıldığı durumlar saptanmıştır.

Son olarak verilerin yaklaşık üçte birini oluşturan tanımlık hataları; söz dizimi, anlam ve söylem düzeylerinde tanımlanmaya çalışılmıştır. Yaygın olarak görülen, belgili tanımlığın gereksiz durumda metne eklenmesi hatalarının, çoğunlukla [-özgöl], [+genel, +çoğul] ve [-tek] isim öbekleri ile birlikte ortaya çıktığı bulunmuştur. Elde edilen bulgular, var olan alanyazın ışığında değerlendirildiğinde bu çalışmaya katılan İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencilerinin tanımlık kullanımı edinimlerini henüz tamamlamamış olduklarına işaret edebilir.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** İngiliz dili eğitimi, İngilizce tanımlık kullanımı, öğrenci derlemi, sözdizimsel hata, Türk öğrenciler

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AE	argumentative essay
CEA	computer-aided error analysis
CLC	computer learner corpus
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELT	English language teaching
FL	foreign language
GA	article error
GADJ	adjective error
GADV	adverb error
GD	determiner error
GN	noun error
GNC	Noun case error
GNN	Noun number error (plural morpheme)
GP	pronoun error
GPD	Demonstrative pronoun error
GPP	Personal pronoun error
GPI	Indefinite pronoun error
GPF	Reflexive/Reciprocal pronoun error
GPR	Relative/ Interrogative pronoun error
GPU	Pronoun error of unclear reference
GV	verb error
GVAUX	Auxiliary verb error
GVM	Verb morphology error
GVN	Verb number error (subject-verb disagreement)
GVNF	Non-finite / finite verb error
GVT	Verb tense error
GVV	Verb voice error
GWC	word class error
L1	first/native language
L2	second language

NNS	non-native speaker
NS	native speaker
PVSS	plural verb-singular subject error
SLA	second language acquisition
SVPS	singular verb-plural subject error
TÜBİTAK	Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey)
UCLEE	Université Catholique de Louvain error editor
UG	universal grammar
WO	word order error

# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Theoretical Background to the Study

Programs in English Language Teaching (ELT) serve two main purposes: a) to help the teacher trainee students improve their language skills and linguistic knowledge of English, and b) to cultivate their talents for being a foreign language (FL) teacher. Therefore, teacher trainees are learners of “English as a foreign language” (EFL) and will be teaching what they have learned, in their future profession.

ELT students, still improving their language skills, can make many *errors*, which are considered as part of their development process. Errors are essential elements for the language learners to test what they have learned and hunt for answers to the questions accumulating in their minds about the target language rules. In addition, learner errors are extremely valuable for understanding the inner processes all the learners have been passing through in their unique ways. This understanding adds to the knowledge of three parties: *the teacher* for having an idea of the learner’s linguistic knowledge, *language researcher* on the basis of having insights into language learning and learning strategies, and *the learner* having an opportunity to check what he thinks he knows (Corder, 1967). This verification can be fulfilled on condition that the teacher corrects them. Ur (2008) argues that when the students employ “incorrect or unacceptable forms” in their linguistic productions, language teachers have to correct them and that learner errors should not go away unheeded.

For the language teachers to correct their learners’ errors, they need a systematic analysis of the errors themselves to obtain adequate evidence (Corder, 1967). Evidence obtained by scientific research such as descriptive case studies can be conducive for the teachers to understand the nature of the errors and to make informed choices for future language education. Such understanding and planning can also contribute to the learners’ awareness of their own presuppositions and false or incomplete hypotheses about the target language. Teachers’ conducting analytical research on their learners’ errors can also accelerate the improvement of the learners’



incomplete knowledge and skills by way of delivery of instruction in the linguistic areas they feel the urgent need.

Various scholars in the field of foreign language teaching (Brown, 2001; Corder, 1967, 1974; Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Widdowson, 1990; Ur, 2008; Yule, 1996) suggest that errors can support learners' linguistic progress. For instance, Corder (1967, 1974) takes the stance that teachers can grasp the opportunity to see the extent of the learners' progress when they focus on learner errors and only by studying learner errors can they have an idea about the learners' current linguistic competence. Such focusing clearly generates valuable information because the learners' use of target language is unique in itself; it cannot be described by the grammar of either their L1 or target language. Corder (1974) also suggests that errors should be explained linguistically and psychologically for helping progress in language learning.

Similarly, probing into language development of learners, Brown (2001) makes the analogy of "the tips of icebergs" for learner errors because he explains that the surfacing learner errors can reflect the learners' "underlying system at work" (2001, p. 66). This system is in the sense that, learners have been experiencing many inner processes for discovering the language rules, forming hypotheses about their applications and then deciding to produce the way they do in the target language. It is the stage of production where the learner tries to disclose what he knows and where the teacher notices the knowledge gap in the learner's mind by means of the errors emerged in the learner speech or writing.

To sum up, it has been discussed so far that language learners make errors during their linguistic productions because they are in a transition route aiming to learn the target language to the full possible extent. Due to this transition, learner errors are also argued to be grammatical in their own right (Ellis, 1990). Besides, learner errors provide a tangible "clue to the active learning progress being made by a student as he or she tries out ways of communicating in the new language" (Yule, 1996, p. 194).

On the issue of the nature of *learner error* in general terms, different scholars seem to adopt varying standpoints which seem to be complementary to some extent. For instance, Dulay et al. (1982) specify learner errors as a departure from a certain norm of performance (such as British English in the written mode) in the target language regardless of their features and sources. Likewise, Corder (1974) defines the learners' productions of untargetlike structures as "erroneous, ill-formed" and "ungrammatical", only when they are inappropriate for the grammar of the language newly being learned. What is more, Corder (1974, p. 130-131) classifies learner errors into three types according to their possible origins: *transfer errors*, which assumingly stem from the effect of the rules in the native language on the target language productions; *analogical errors*, which represent overgeneralization and emerge when the learner learns about a correct target language rule but does not know entirely when or how it is applied; and *teaching-induced errors*, which signify ineffective teaching due to the methods or materials used in the teaching process. For depicting the ways the errors turn up, Corder (1974, 1981) also draws a distinction between *overt errors*, where there is a deviation in the surface structure of a sentence, and *covert errors*, which occur as well-formed sentences but do not mean what is intended to mean by the learner.

Consequently, from a traditional perspective, errors signify the linguistic uses which do not comply with the language rules and standard practices. They reflect insufficiency in language competence and acquisition. Brown (2000) mentions the distinction between an *error* and a *mistake*, drawing on the difference between linguistic competence and performance. The suggested difference is explained by the availability of learner's correct knowledge of the target language rule. In case that the learner knows the rule but still uses a wrong form or structure due to a kind of failure such as slips of the tongue, hesitation or fatigue, the learner is said to have made a "mistake", which is also named as a "performance error". Just as native speakers do, the learner is then capable of correcting himself because it is a part of his linguistic competence. On the other hand, in case that the learner uses a wrong form or structure because he lacks the relevant target language knowledge, he cannot

make self-correction and then the deviation reflecting the learner's limited knowledge is called an "error".

The concept of error adopted in this research is based on Ellis's (1995, p. 51) definition, which is "a deviation from the norms of the target language". In this respect, the norm that serves as the variety of target language is the standard written dialect of English. With the aim of facilitating reference to deviations, no distinction was made between an "error" and a "mistake", and the term *error* was adopted. The focus in this study is also overt errors, reflected on the surface structures of sentences (Corder, 1981). In addition, the analysis was performed on deviations in correctness rather than deviations in appropriateness involving pragmatic issues. Errors were identified by a normal interpretation of learner sentences, which is also called as "plausible" by Corder (1981). The interpretations were realized with reference to the target language rules and context of production including the characteristics of the participant writers, mode of communication (free written production) and the topic provided for writing.

## **1.2. Historical Background to the Study**

Looking into the history of how learner errors have been treated, two mainstream approaches are noted: the behaviourist view and the nativist view. During 1960s, the behaviourist view was the central approach for general learning and teaching. Based on psychology, the behaviourist view adopted habit formation by way of stimulus-response chains and repeated reinforcement for teaching new skills to learners. Second language (L2) learning, following behaviourism, aimed at forming brand new habits which would be replacing the existing habits of the first language (L1). However, things were not as simple and regular as initially presumed. Learners seemed to be transferring their L1 habits into their L2 productions, which were deemed to constitute a substantial source of error called *negative transfer* (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 97). Under the influence of behaviourism and structural linguistics, with the purpose of avoiding such transfer and helping learners to form new habits, intensive studies called Contrastive Analysis (CA) started. CA method involved

comparing pairs of languages to discover the potential difficulty areas for learners where rules of one language differ from the other.

On the other hand, a description of a target language in terms of its rules to form grammatical sentences and a comparison of them with those of a native language was not satisfactory to explain all the learner errors occurred. Moreover, all the predicted difficulty areas did not induce errors. Such outcomes caused several criticisms against CA towards the end of 1960s and the beginning of 1970s. During this period, Chomsky's arguments that children have innate capacity for language acquisition turned attention from the environmental factors to mental factors. The field of second language learning was also influenced by this perspective shift. Then, it was discovered that all the errors were not traceable to L1, and this finding led the linguists to examine learner errors themselves more carefully in the developmental process of learning. This new method was called Error Analysis (EA). With a mentalist perspective, EA represents an alternative approach to understand language learning. Pica (2005, p. 265) informs that the formal study of second language acquisition is claimed to have started in 1967 with "*The Significance of Learners Errors*" published by Corder (1967). Presently, EA techniques are still being employed for linguistic research (Ellis, 1995). EA embraces learner errors as signs of efforts for development in FL learning and thus it is process-oriented, but the behaviourist views of CA only attempted to understand learners' erroneous productions or to predict them with a focus on the properties of the native and the target languages. On the other hand, in EA, errors were seen as unavoidable and inevitable for learning and teaching successfully. EA studies were very popular during 1960s and 1970s but in 1980s EA approach lost its popularity. It was severely criticized on both methodological and theoretical grounds. For instance, Dulay et al. (1982, p. 141) reported that one of the criticisms levelled at EA was that of confusing error description with error explanation. Some errors were being categorised as of transfer type in their descriptions while transfer could be a possible explanation for the errors under this category. Dulay et al. maintained that the "process" of acquisition was confused with the "product" of acquisition. According to them, the final product of language acquisition, namely verbal performance, can

be *described* for example in terms of errors or acquisition orders, while the process of language production can be *explained* for example in terms such as “transfer”. Another criticism was the unclear definitions of error categories. Further clarifications of the criticisms are presented in Chapter 2.

Though EA was criticized by various scholars, these criticisms were not hopeless for the forthcoming researchers. Presently EA techniques are still being employed for linguistic research, as Ellis argues (1995). One of today’s EA researchers, Granger (2002) maintains that new EA studies are so carefully designed that they can beat the criticisms levelled at the traditional EA. Granger states that the error analysis process takes both “the context of use” and “the linguistic context (co-text)” into consideration, the context referring to the learner’s clauses, sentences, paragraph or even the whole text where the erroneous part emerged. Hence, making use of “contextualized errors” is a significant improvement compared to the former EA methods. Granger (2002) emphasizes that there is a need for EA studies because our understanding of learners’ interlanguage development is greatly informed by analyzing learner errors.

As for the renewed method of how to search the learners’ errors for illuminating language teaching and learning, today’s EA studies benefit greatly from corpus-based research due to the advances in computer technology such as the practicality to communicate with larger populations and collect data from them and process the data on the computer more reliably and at a faster speed. Accordingly, Kennedy (1998, p. 274) expresses that there is “a need for systematic and comprehensive corpus-based research agendas across the whole grammatical system”. Kennedy puts forward three effects of corpus-based studies on pedagogy: firstly, language teaching content is affected in terms of selection, sequencing and weighing the items to be taught. Secondly, teachers are informed about language and language use owing to the frequency counts realized with corpora. Thirdly, language teaching methodology is expanded by more individualized instruction techniques such as giving support to self-access studies realized by using a corpus database (p. 281).

A number of research studies (e.g., Dagneaux, Denness & Granger, 1998; Hayes, 2003; Izumi, Uchimoto & Isahara, 2005) which focused on FL learner errors showed that more frequently than lexis, lexico-grammar, morphological, register, word order and some other types of errors, the category of grammar - or syntax - was the most common areas of difficulty among FL learners, which forms the departure of the present study.

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

Foreign language learners usually talk about experiencing difficulties in grammar. What they generally cannot utter overtly but genuinely feel its difficulty is most probably in the production of accurate and acceptable sentences. Possessing the knowledge of individual words in FL does not guarantee constructing well-formed phrases or sentences. It seems to be the extent of learner's knowledge of *syntax* that determines his/her communicative strength in the FL. A review of the research studies (e.g., *prepositions*, Alpsy, 1998; *ergatives*, Can, 2000; *demonstratives*, Çokal & Ruhi, 2006; *transitivity*, Montrul, 1997, 2000, Uygun & Atay, 2006; *agentive verbs*, Montrul, 2001) conducted with Turkish EFL learners indicated their problems on various grammatical features. Alpsy (1998) studied the errors in the use of three English prepositions in the ELT students' narrations. She concluded that the misuses of the prepositions were considered to be stemming from various reasons such as native language interference. Can's (2000) study aimed to study the use of ergative verbs and related errors of Turkish ELT students. He used a cloze test, a grammaticality judgment test (in the form of sentence-acceptability), and sentence completion and production tasks to elicit the data. The results showed the learners' avoidance or "untargetlike passivization" of these verbs.

The studies mentioned above focused on Turkish EFL learners' errors in specific linguistic areas discretely. However, it seemed that there is a need for a description of common errors in general. This was for the reason that the researcher and her colleagues observed that other mistakes besides the ones mentioned in these studies have also occurred in students' written work. With this motive, to verify the

observations, a preliminary study was performed by the researcher with the help of three colleagues in the ELT department in order to see the types of errors in learner texts and to find out whether different lecturers find the same errors and treat the errors in the same way in their corrections. The study was conducted on a small group of the 2005-2006 Spring term first year ELT students' writing skills course examination sheets consisting of 20 first year students' and five second year students' essays. Number of essays was not determined on purpose. The texts were written on different topics. The students did not have access to any reference tools like dictionaries while writing their texts. The three lecturers were asked to identify (e.g., underline) and correct the grammatical errors they found in the essays. The observed errors included grammatical and morphological errors like article errors, subject-verb agreement errors, verb tense errors, wrong part-of-speech and word order errors; words, phrases or sentences with unclear references (namely semantic errors) and lexical (word choice) errors as well as punctuation errors. Consequently, the lecturers and the researcher examining the texts found different numbers of errors at varying linguistic levels, from lexical to stylistic. This finding further supported that a study which would rather aim at a description of a general picture than focus on a single error type could be conducted. Thus, the preliminary study explained above served as evidence for us to initiate an exploratory study delving into the issue of learner errors from a large perspective.

Motivated by these studies and supported by the relevant literature, the present research aims to constitute a beginning step to meet the need to see the entire panorama of syntactic errors in the learners' written productions. In the light of this study, the nature of overall syntactic errors of ELT students will be uncovered in detail from both qualitative and quantitative aspects (Figure 1). The process of such discovery in this descriptive research entertains a methodological support from recent error analysis studies which make full use of technological advances in corpus research (e.g. Dagneaux et al., 1998; Izumi, et al., 2005).

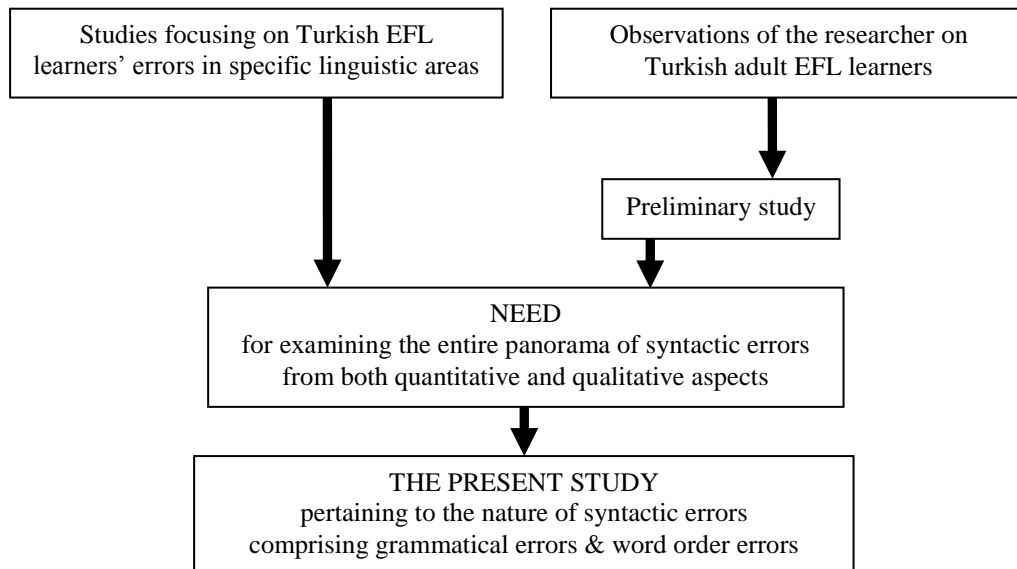


Figure 1. *The Way to the Present Study*

#### 1.4. Aim and Scope of the Study

The present study aims to construct a comprehensive study pertaining to the nature of syntactic errors produced by a group of ELT students in their English argumentative essays (Appendix I), as a part of a larger project (Balpınar, Keçik & Özcan, 2009) funded by TÜBİTAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey). The text type was determined as argumentative essay due to the need to control the variables on the linguistic structures in order to form homogeneous data from a single text type written on a single topic. Additionally, argumentative texts constituted a relatively less studied text type than narrative texts in the literature, but to our knowledge, no comprehensive studies were found with Turkish students. In this study, the nature of syntactic errors was investigated cross-sectionally so that we can have insights into the learners' syntactic development (this is also called “*quasi-longitudinal*” in Granger, 2002, with reference to the similar study by Dagneaux et al., 1998). These insights can contribute to the pedagogical improvements in English language education and teacher training, for both teachers and researchers, as well as for language learners, who *do* need to make errors in order to learn (Corder, 1981).



This study was also inspired by new EA studies “which make full use of advances in CLC research” (CLC: computer learner corpus, Dagneaux et al., 1998, p. 165). Equally important is that today’s EA studies make use of “contextualized errors”, as maintained by Granger (2002). The present study takes the context of errors into consideration during all the error identification, coding and description processes. As a conclusion, the present study is expected to contribute to the ELT field, especially having the latest advances in computer technologies at hand.

This study makes use of the *Error Tagging Manual* (Version 1.2.) (Dagneaux, Denness, Granger, Meunier, Neff & Thewissen, 2005), which accompanies the error editor program UCLEE (Université Catholique de Louvain Error Editor) which has presently been used as a time-saving device for the annotation process. This manual introduces tagging guidelines and error categories (Table 1) with explanations, examples and warnings for potential misunderstandings or overlaps. Based on the error classification in this manual, the corresponding syntactic error categories within the scope of this study were determined as:

1. Grammatical errors, *i.e.* “errors that break general rules of English grammar” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 15). This category is divided into 8 categories - including determiners, articles, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs and word class - and 22 sub-categories.
2. Word Order errors, except for Adverb Order (GADVO) or Adjective Order (GADJO) (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 37).

Accordingly, the study was delimited by the categories of determiners, articles, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, word class and word order errors. Other types of errors like prepositions were identified in the learner texts but they were neither tagged nor included in the present analysis.

Table 1.

*Error Tags in Error Tagging Manual (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 42-43)*

FM Form, Morphology	LCC Lexis, Conjunctions, Coordinating
FS Form, Spelling	LCLC Lexis, Connectors, Logical, Complex
FSR Form, Spelling, Regional	LCLS Lexis, Connectors, Logical, Single
GDD Grammar, Determiner, Demonstrative	LCS Lexis, Conjunctions, Subordinating
GDO Grammar, Determiner, Possessive	LP Lexical Phrase
GDI Grammar, Determiner, Indefinite	LPF Lexical Phrase, False friends
GDT Grammar, Determiner, Other	LS Lexical Single
GA Grammar, Articles	LSF Lexical Single, False friends
GADJCS Grammar, Adjectives, Comparative / Superlative	QC Punctuation, Confusion
GADJN Grammar, Adjectives, Number	QL Punctuation, Lexical
GADJO Grammar, Adjectives, Order	QM Punctuation, Missing
GADVO Grammar, Adverbs, Order	QR Punctuation, Redundant
GNC Grammar, Nouns, Case	SI Sentence, Incomplete
GNN Grammar, Nouns, Number	SU Sentence, Unclear
GPD Grammar, Pronouns, Demonstrative	WM Word Missing
GPP Grammar, Pronoun, Personal	WO Word Order
GPO Grammar, Pronoun, Possessive	WRS Word Redundant Single
GPI Grammar, Pronoun, Indefinite	WRM Word Redu[n]dant Multiple
GPF Grammar, Pronoun, Reflexive/Reciprocal	XADJCO LeXico-Grammar, Adjectives, Complementation
GPR Grammar, Pronoun, Relative/ Interrogative	XADJPR LeXico-Grammar, Adjectives, Dependent Preposition
GPU Grammar, Pronoun, Unclear reference	XCONJCO LeXico-Grammar, Conjunctions, Complementation
GVAUX Grammar, Verbs, Auxiliaries	XNCO LeXico-Grammar, Nouns, Complementation
GVM Grammar, Verbs, Morphology	XNPR LeXico-Grammar, Nouns, Dependent Preposition
GVN Grammar, Verbs, Number	XNUC LeXico-Grammar, Nouns, Uncountable / Countable
GVNF Grammar, Verbs, Non-Finite / Finite	XPRCO LeXico-Grammar, Prepositions, Complementation
GVT Grammar, Verbs, Tense	XVCO LeXico-Grammar, Verbs, Complementation
GVV Grammar, Verbs, Voice	XVPR LeXico-Grammar, Verbs, Dependent Preposition
GWC Grammar, Word Class	Z Infelicities

Within the scope of the present study, syntactic errors were only identified and described. Dulay et al. (1982) express that “the descriptive classification of errors is often the first step a researcher takes in developing a hypothesis or inference about L2 learning processes” (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 146). The study did not embrace any objective to investigate its cause, which requires “the determination of its origins” (p.

140) such as native language interference, albeit this issue was mentioned in the discussion section.

### **1.5. Statement of the Research Questions**

With an aim to examine syntactic errors produced by a group of ELT students and abovementioned scope of the study in mind, the present study addresses the following research questions:

1. What types of syntactic errors are produced by Turkish speaking ELT students in their English argumentative essays?
2. Is there a significant difference in the syntactic errors according to:
  - 2.1. the class level?
  - 2.2. the error type?
3. How can the frequent types of errors be described in terms of the parameters of:
  - 3.1. omission,
  - 3.2. addition and
  - 3.3. misinformation?
4. How can the most frequent type of error be described at:
  - 4.1. syntactic,
  - 4.2. semantic and
  - 4.3. discourselevels?

### **1.6. Significance of the study**

Corder (1981, p. 35) straightforwardly expresses that “[s]tudying the errors made by learners of a second language needs no justification”. Conducting research on language learners’ errors have been a deliberate attempt of linguists and educationalists throughout the history of ELT, stretching as far earlier periods of time as 1940s. As one of the first efforts to explore second language learners’ errors, Ellis (1990, p. 45) gives the example of the book *Common Errors in English* written by F.

French and published in 1949. According to Ellis (1990), these efforts changed face in different periods both for practical reasons regarding classroom teaching and for developing theoretical grounds of language teaching. These efforts started by lists of typically committed errors, and continued by the substantiation of the reasons, at the end of sixties and seventies, why the predicted errors of contrastive analyses do not all occur in the actual learner productions. Subsequent efforts also involved the establishment of the idea that L1 cannot be regarded as the sole starting point of all learner errors and that some errors can be developmental in nature due to the learner's being in a constant change in language learning under the influence of several factors as formal instruction and environment.

As an investigation into foreign language learner errors, the present study also aims to take part in the endeavour of improving foreign language education. The significance of the study stems from several departure points. First of all, the investigation merits attention for the reason that it tries to reveal the linguistic development of English language teacher trainees who need to be competent in the foreign language they will be delivering education on within a few years' time. Secondly, and somewhat parallel to the first, our participants in the study are, at the same time, foreign language learners of English and the investigation attempts to reflect what errors are made and thus what areas of language deserve urgent concentration in teaching them English for the sake of their being effective and well-informed teachers, or their being competent in this language for whatever profession they choose afterwards. Thirdly, the investigation seeks valid and reliable data on learner errors because it utilizes the technology of computer-assisted tagging. An added value for reliability is the use of a concordance program. The human eye may fail to spot each and every occurrence of the focused items in the texts. Additionally, it is not possible to get frequency counts as fast as a concordance program can do. Concordancing can help researchers obtain lists of target items and their frequency counts very quickly, in seconds, and unfailingly. Although analysing learner errors is not a novel attempt, doing this with the latest advances in the research methods is an added value. Niceties of the use of error tagging and concordancing will be presented in Chapter 3. The merits of this study also arise from the choice of a

computerized corpus study. These merits are; investigating a collection of learner texts together, revealing and quantifying recurrent patterns characterizing learner language, and ensuring consistency (standardization) and reliability in error tagging. Finally, this research is believed to contribute to the ELT practices like the design of teaching activities in both FL teaching and FL teacher training fields because this study is borne out of the core signs of the language learning process, namely learner errors and meant to illuminate the directions to take in effective teaching.

Finally, Corder (1981) puts forward that error categorization in terms of the systems like tense, number, case, etc gives more satisfactory descriptions of errors, as well as the categorizations on the basis of omission, addition, selection and ordering errors and the linguistic levels of errors such as phonological and grammatical. The present study accordingly probes into the case of article use in the data. It presents environmental descriptions of the errors of article use on the basis of syntactic, semantic and discourse level analyses, further than the frequency counts, class level comparisons, and omission, addition and misinformation aspects.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

*I am the very model of a user of technology  
For testing out hypotheses on grammar and morphology.  
I used to do it manually, with diagrams arboreal,  
But life is so much better since my research went corporeal.*  
(Blackwell, 2006)

This chapter reports the historical background to the analysis of learner errors, start with contrastive analysis and is followed by error analysis which came to the stage mainly after the downfall of contrastive analysis to stay there for about two decades until the detection of some limitations in 1980s. Then the revival of error analysis with brand new techniques has started with the use of computers in analysing language learners' errors. Further, a number of error analysis studies from the years 1980s to 2000s were reviewed with an aim to introduce how learner errors have been investigated from various aspects.

### 2.1. Historical Background to Analysis of Learner Errors

When we look into the history of language teaching and learning to see how learner errors were dealt with, we perceive that during 1960s the prevailing view for learning and teaching in general was deeply affected by Behaviourism. Behaviourism accepted any kind of skill learning as habit formation. Based on the techniques applied in psychology, the behaviourist view adopted stimulus-response chains for educating learners in a new skill. If the stimulus led the learner to produce the desired response or responses, the learner was awarded with repeated reinforcement, in different forms like verbal reinforcement (like saying “*well done!*”), permission to realize a desired activity, or object reinforcers (such as food and toys). If the targeted responses did not occur, the learner was not reinforced at all, which was intended to direct the learner to try more for acquiring the correct responses (McInerney & McInerney, 2002, p. 121). From the perspective of language learning, the desired outcome was accordingly reinforced, but when there was a communication breakdown, no reinforcement was delivered until the correct habits were gained by

the learner. First language (L1) learning was seen as developing a set of habits to respond to the stimuli provided. Similarly, second language (L2) learning was merely forming a set of brand new habits which would be developed from the present practices in L1, which may range from the word order to the accent. The recipe for better learning and teaching was simplistic: *practice makes perfect*. The more you drill in difficult areas (where L1 structure differs from L2), the better you produce in the new language. Nevertheless, the actual practices were not so simple because the habits already formed for L1 were found to be interfering with the development of L2 habits. Specifically, the learners were using L1 rules in L2 environments; this was called *negative transfer*. In order to help learners avoid negative transfer, and thus pave the way for effective teaching, both L1 rules and L2 rules were to be scrutinized comparatively. This need led to the study of Contrastive Analysis (CA). Through CA, the learners' errors would be predicted where to emerge since it was strongly believed that learners experience difficulty and make errors when the target feature was different from the L1 feature; the similar rules in both languages would make things easy and lead to no learner errors. Once the "difficulty" areas were discovered, errors would be suitably explained and consequently avoided. However, some derailments emerged in this line of thought. As Cook (2003) states, the predicted errors did not occur but some other unpredicted ones did occur; hence, researchers thought to set out from the learners' actual errors prior to sketching what their causes might be.

Towards the end of 1960s, behaviourism, which could be thought as the justification of CA, was levelled a series of criticisms, which started by Chomsky's arguments that children have innate capacity for language acquisition. Piaget's cognitive developmental theory was supportive of this common view of generative linguists. In this view, language learning was not to be seen as merely composed of habit formation and reinforcement sequences. It was argued that in fact human language is creative and rule-governed. It was unexpectedly found out that differences between the native and the target languages do not always lead to errors; difficulty may sometimes come up in one direction, starting from one language as L1 and learning another as L2, but not in the other way. Moreover, "the majority of errors could not

be traced to the L1” (Mitchell & Myles, 1998, p. 30) and a part of these intractable errors were argued to be due to the learners’ lack of exposure to the other language (Gordon & Harshbarger, 2003, p. 44). For having insights into language learning, what we need to scrutinize over is learner errors themselves, which were to be accepted as indicators of learning and non-learning, and consequently of language development (Corder, 1967, p. 23). This fresh movement which superseded CA was called Error Analysis (EA). CA compared two languages to predict learning difficulties whereas EA focused on learner errors, which are deemed indispensable for language learning and valuable for effective teaching. Corder (1981, p. 35) states that EA has been intentionally used for discovering whether the errors predicted by the CA theory could be verified or refuted. EA principally examines learner language in its own sake, affected by nativist views suggesting that learning primarily takes place through mental processes. However, all nativists do not agree on these processes of the mind. Some say language learning strategies may be specifically linguistic in nature (*UG*, - universal grammar – which denotes innate knowledge of language universals) and others say that they may involve broader cognitive processes (*connectionism*, which denotes general capacity for storing information).

EA came to the stage arguing that learner errors must be originating from the learner-internal processes, and that examining learner errors can help understanding the learning process. However, traditional error analysis of 1970s faced criticism and went out of fashion in the 1980s when a number of methodological and theoretical inadequacies were spelt out. Dagneaux et al. (1998, p. 164) mentioned the headlines of major weaknesses of EA and how they met them in their study. From now on, these limitations will be explained from different sources and the new measures taken in the study by Dagneaux et al. will be reported. The first two limitations are stated to be methodological while the remaining three limitations are related to the scope of EA.



*Limitation 1:* EA is based on heterogeneous learner data.

The practitioners of EA in the late 1960s and 1970s made use of only the written examination papers of the language learners to examine errors but these samples were not being collected by paying attention to the factors which are very much likely to influence learner productions (Ellis, 1995, p. 50). Ellis stresses the need to obtain a fine documentation and definition of learner language, and that this can help overcome the problems with the methodology since the corpus data are collected by sticking to such design criteria. The shared characteristics of the two corpora in Dagneaux et al.'s (1998, p. 169) investigation which were compared to one another were age of learners (around 20 years old), learning context (EFL), medium (writing), genre (essay writing), and length (about 500 words) while the independent variable was the proficiency level. This process has helped to compile homogeneous corpora.

*Limitation 2:* EA categories are fuzzy.

Dagneaux et al. (1998, p. 164) maintain that previous error categories were either “ill-defined” or rarely defined. By the same token, Dulay et al. (1982, p. 141) emphasize that the non-defined, variously defined or unclearly defined categories obstruct replication or comparative studies to be conducted methodically and the duly presentation of findings across studies. Nonetheless, in Dagneaux et al.'s (1998, p. 166) study, the EA system is said to be ensuring consistency in the analysis, adopting “a purely descriptive system” in terms of linguistic categories. Each and every error category (e.g., verb) and subcategory (e.g., verb tense) is described and one or more examples from the written learner data were provided for the analyst. The definitions and examples are accompanied by valuable and practical guidelines and warnings essential for valid and reliable categorization and comparison with different learner sentences in other research studies. For avoiding subjectivity in the analysis, no categories such as L1 transfer were accommodated in the categorization,

except for the category of “false friends” added out of the researchers’ special interest in this type.

*Limitation 3:* EA cannot cater for phenomena such as avoidance.

Ellis (1995, p. 68) finds traditional EA methods inadequate in searching the issue of avoidance in the learner productions on account of concentrating on what learners do per se. However, in some research studies (e.g., Feldman, Abuhakema & Fitzpatrick, 2008) learners were hypothesized to occasionally resort to error-avoidance strategies. On the other hand, Dagneaux et al. (1998, p. 171) explicate that a computer learner corpus can help the researcher to “compare the frequencies of words or phrases in native and non-native corpus of similar writing” and this comparison can disclose avoidance or underuse in learner language. Dagneaux et al. warn that all instances of underuse may not be errors but “lexical infelicities in learner writing” (p. 172). Because of the laborious work of retrieving all the lexical errors in a corpus, they advise teachers to rely on their intuitions for working on the hypothetically problematic words. They give the example of the word “as” in English, all error instances of which they retrieved for a closer inspection. They found that the word “as” as used in Example (1) below appears as a learner error in all books of common errors but they emerge in fewer numbers in the data than the use of “as” in Example (2), which are not given in such books.

(1) \*As (*like*) a very good student, I looked up in the dictionary ...

(2) . . . . with university towns \*as (*such as*) Oxford, Cambridge or Leuven...

(Dagneaux et al., 1998, p. 172)

*Limitation 4:* EA is restricted to what the learner cannot do.

According to Ellis (1995, p. 67), an “often-cited but also overemphasized” limitation of EA includes the argument of its reflecting an “incomplete picture of learner

language”. He contends that researchers may well investigate “non-errors as well as errors” (p. 68). Dagneaux et al. (1998) establish that, having pinned down a problematic area by listing all the errors under a subcategory, for example the use of “*can*” under the GVAUX (auxiliary) category, the researcher can draw up a concordance of “*can*” and compare its correct and incorrect uses. This helps see “what the learner knows and what he/she does not know and therefore needs to be taught” (p. 169).

*Limitation 5: EA gives a static picture of L2 learning.*

As for the static nature of traditional EA, Ellis (1995, p. 68) expresses that EA is charged with not reflecting the linguistic improvement stages that L2 learners go through as many studies are cross-sectional. However, Ellis continues that this criticism is not legitimate since researchers can carry out longitudinal studies using EA. In the project by Dagneaux et al. (1998), similar learner groups at different levels of proficiency were compared, namely the advanced level and the intermediate level. Levels seemed to be determined according to the years of instruction at university as they stated that “there is a 2-year gap that separates the two different stages in the curriculum”.

EA studies, which were most popular during 1960s and 1970s, thus gained momentum by the second half of the 90s (Ellis, 1995, p. 69-70) with the new computer technologies at hand. In terms of its advantages, Granger (2002, p. 14) maintained that today’s EA studies are quite diverse from the former EA methods; they make use of “contextualized errors”. Specifically, she puts forward that, during the error analysis process, both “the context of use” and “the linguistic context (co-text)” can be exploited. Granger explains that the context refers to the learner’s clauses, sentences, paragraph or even the whole text where the erroneous part emerged. An additional advantage of current EA methods is the use of correct versions of all occurrences of errors along with the errors themselves on the computer. The following section gives the details of the uses of computers in analysing learner errors.

## 2.2. The Use of Computers in Error Analysis

What helps computer-aided error analysis (CEA) process to a great extent is *error-tagging*. Izumi et al. (2005) explained error-tagging schemes used in learner corpus research and pointed out the need to adjust the tags presently used, with a focus on “intelligibility and naturalness” of expressions for the sake of learners’ communicative competence.

Dagneaux et al. (1998) explained how they tried to overcome the inadequacies of traditional EA of 1970s, as explicated above, and how they benefited from the technique of CEA for examining an English corpus written by French speaking learners. In the error correction process, the native speaker and the non-native speaker researchers worked together in order to insert the correct form that can be considered rather as “one possible correct form - ideally the most plausible one - than as the one and only possible form”<sup>1</sup>. In this collaboration, first, the native speaker corrects each error manually and inserts the correct forms in the text. Then, the non-native speaker analyst assigns appropriate tags to all the errors and inserts them in the text with the correct forms. The aim of all this system is to guarantee consistency in analyzing the data.

For quick insertion of error tags and corrections, Dagneaux et al. (1998) developed an error editor program called UCLEE (Figure 2). UCLEE (also called Louvain) is one of the four best documented and representative error tagging systems<sup>2</sup> (Diaz-Negrillo & Fernandez-Dominguez, 2006). UCLEE allows inserting corrections and tags very speedily. Error tags can then be searched by a text retrieval tool for different purposes such as numerical counts and grammatical examinations. Dagneaux et al. fully recognized CEA as having shown that EA is still valuable for language teaching. CEA can be argued as compensating the weaknesses of traditional EA.

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<sup>1</sup> Barlow (2005) states that the error identification and corrections can be influenced by the meanings construed by the native speaker analyst. The potential difficulties in the process are thus diminished by the collaboration between the NS and the NNS analysts.

<sup>2</sup> Other systems are: CLC (Cambridge Learner Corpus project), FreeText (Belgium) and NICT JLE (Japan) (Diaz-Negrillo & Fernandez-Dominguez, 2006).

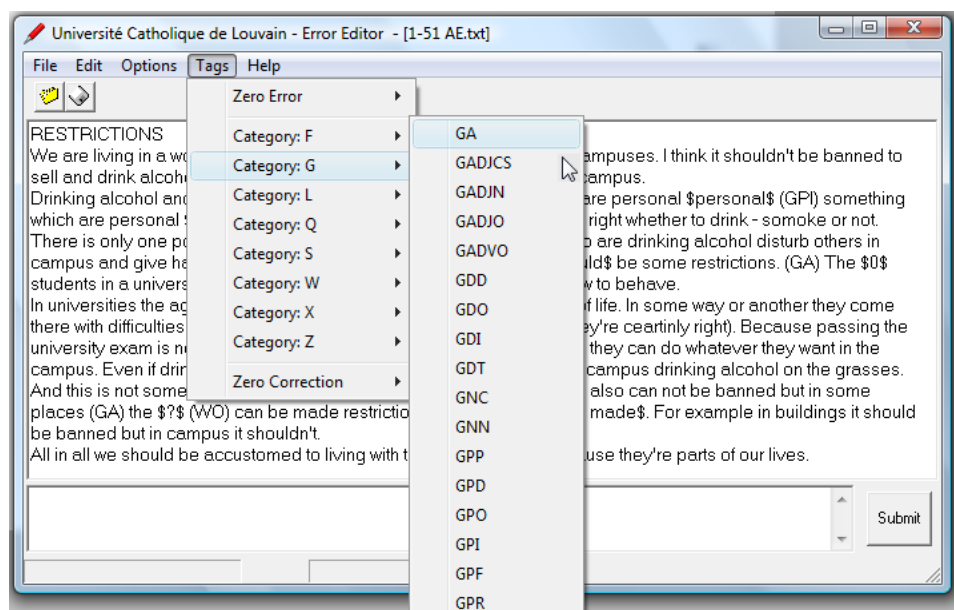


Figure 2. *The Error Editor Program (UCLEE) Screen View*

Dagneaux et al. (1998) concluded that CEA has shown the continuing value of EA for language teaching, and that CEA is a very effective technique and a tool, contributing very much to instruction materials development.

Having the relevant theoretical background and the current application methods of EA established, let us turn to dive into the studies which dealt with the analysis of learner errors from different viewpoints.

### 2.3. Error Analysis Studies

According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, p. 51), analysing errors include the stages of identification, description and explanation of errors, which were originally proposed by Corder (1981, p. 21-25). For identifying errors, they explained that the learner productions are compared to those that can be produced by a native speaker equivalent in the same situation, which entails some degree of interpretation of the learner's sentence on the part of the native speaker. Identification and description of errors are expressed to be linguistic processes. For describing errors, a similar comparison is made between the learner productions and their reconstructions, which denote the possible corrections in the target language. Ellis (1995, p. 54-56) informs

about different ways of describing errors used in different studies, which are based on: a) “linguistic categories” (like the auxiliary system or like syntax) adopted in traditional EA as in Politzer and Ramirez (1973), b) “a surface structure taxonomy” of Dulay et al., (1982), and c) “the systematicity” as presystematic, systematic or postsystematic errors proposed by Corder (1974). Presystematic errors occur as a result of ignorance, unawareness or lack of knowledge of the rules; systematic errors are the learners’ regular errors occurring despite their knowledge of the rules, which can be corrected by the learners themselves if pointed out; and postsystematic errors denote to wrong applications of the rules because of the reasons such as a lack of attention, memory lapses, physical states and psychological conditions; these errors are also called mistakes or performance errors (Corder, 1974). Dulay et al.’s (1982) surface structure taxonomy (SST) draws attention to “the ways surface structures are altered in erroneous utterances/sentences” (p. 150). According to this taxonomy, learners do this modification on target forms in four principle modes: omission, addition, misformation and misordering. *Omission* is defined as “the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance” while *addition* conversely refers to “the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance (p. 154). *Misformation* errors denote to “the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure” (p. 158) and *misordering* to the ordering of words in a sentence erroneously. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, p. 61) adopted Dulay et al.’s term “misformation” as “misinformation”. We also adopted the latter for the present study. Dulay et al.’s last parameter, which is *misordering*, has already been used as another main category in the study under the name of “word order” (WO). Examples are provided below from the present data for illustrating each parameter case<sup>3</sup>.

#### Omission

- (3) *They sit down (GA) **0 \$the\$** meadows, they drink their bears and then they go for their homes. (3-262 AE)*<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> The font of the relevant tag(s), and its relevant erroneous part and correction in each example was emphasized with bold type in order to attract the reader’s attention.

<sup>4</sup> The number and letter codes for the essays are explained in Section 3.4.

### Addition

(4) *Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes are (GA) **the** \$0\$ actions which people should decide on to do or not. (3-214 AE)*

### Misinformation

(5) *So (GA) **the** \$a\$ ban on selling them in the campus would be useless. (1-80 AE)*

In the omission case above, the noun “meadows” should have taken the definite article “*the*”. However, neither the definite article nor any other determiner was used prior to this noun. Hence we say that the learner omitted the definite article and this is an omission error. In the addition case, the noun “actions” was used as a non-specific general term in the context of the essay and therefore should not be made definite using the article “*the*”. Thus we say the learner added the article redundantly to the text and this is an addition error. Finally, in the misinformation case, the noun “ban” was used with the definite article whereas it should have taken “*a*” according to the context. Therefore, we say the learner misused the definite article in the place of the indefinite article and this is a misinformation error.

As for forming a taxonomy for analysing learner errors, Corder (1981) argues that errors are better and systematically described by their features in terms of tense, number, mood and alike beyond their being omission, addition, etc errors and being grammatical or semantic errors (p. 37). He gives this example as an illustration of this argument:

(6) *I am waiting here since three o'clock.*

(Corder, 1981, p. 37)

For the erroneous part in this learner statement, Corder (1981) claims that we cannot say it is “an error of selection or omission” by noticing only the use of “*am*” in the place of “*have been*”. What we should be noticing, he continues, is the learner’s line

of thinking while producing this sentence, namely writing in the perfective tense but choosing the wrong form, and that the learner is in the process of developing his or her knowledge of the tense system in English. However, reflecting about the process the learner goes through during production seems to make Corder's (1981) argument partly cover explanation of learner errors. This is the third step of EA mentioned by Corder (1981) and Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), the first two of which were identification and description of errors. They described the process of explaining learner errors as a sociolinguistic as well as psycholinguistic one. The process is argued to involve decision making on what the sources of learner errors can be, such as the effect of the L1 of the learner and lack of L2 knowledge.

A number of studies regarding language learner errors in the last decades (Chan, 2004; Dagneaux et al., 1998; Hayes, 2003; Izumi et al., 2005) unveiled that grammatical, and specifically syntactic, errors construct the most common group of learner errors. Dagneaux et al. (1998, p. 168) conducted a research project, aiming to "provide guidelines for an EFL grammar and style checker specially designed for French-speaking learners". Their data consisted of a corpus of advanced learner essays compiled from the ICLE database, supplemented by a similar-sized corpus of the essays written by intermediate students. Thus, there were two corpora used in this project. They used seven major category codes drawn from the data, which were: formal, grammatical, lexico-grammatical, lexical, register, word redundant/word missing/word order, and style. Their findings showed that the highest proportion of errors belonged to the category of Grammar (32%). This category was divided into 8 groups as determiners, articles, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs and word class. Most of these groups have sub-groups such as demonstrative, possessive, and indefinite determiners of Determiner category.

In their article appeared in the corpus workshop proceedings, Izumi et al. (2005) initially developed an error tagging scheme where the tags hold the information of "POS, morphological/grammatical/lexical rules, and a corrected form" (p. 75). Subsequently they asked a native speaker of English to correct and comment on raw,



EFL learner data comprising 15 interviews containing 17.068 words, from NICT JLE (Japanese learner English) corpus. Basing on the native speaker's work, the researchers categorized the errors as morpheme, grammar, lexis, and discourse. They found that half of the errors were in the grammar category, but they inferred that these errors did not seriously obstruct the intelligibility. Most of the grammatical errors were local, like subject-verb disagreement and article errors. In fact, the research studies concerning the article use of L2 learners employed either a ready learner corpus like NICT JLE, or employed very controlled activities such as forced choice elicitation tests, or short texts like dialogues or isolated sentences with/without empty slots for a definite/indefinite or zero article (e.g. Ekiert, 2004; Ionin, 2003; Ionin, Ko & Wexler, 2003; Izumi & Isahara, 2004; Trenkic, 2008).

Hayes (2003, p. 28) conducted an "exploratory and descriptive" PhD study related to English L1 transfer and Russian L2 lexical and syntactic errors. The purpose of her dissertation study was to investigate the relationship between the language learners' target Russian language proficiency levels and their negative transfer errors from English into their L2 Russian at lexical and syntactic levels. She examined the written transcripts of 124 oral proficiency interviews in Russian carried out with English speakers across different proficiency levels. The participants were college students who either wished to take part in an immersion program in Russia for about one semester or a year, or have just finished an immersion program. She found that the students still made most types of lexical- and syntax-based transfer errors at the advanced levels of proficiency (p. 102). Hayes expressed that transfer errors were identified by checking all the lexical and syntactic errors "for a close correlation with an equivalent (a lexical item or a syntactic structure) in English" (p. 34). She also conceded that we cannot squarely be confident that L1 transfer is the only source for the errors found.

In a similar vein, Chan (2004) investigated learner use of English syntax but in the written mode. She found over 50 interlingual error types from the English writing tasks assigned to Chinese learners, and then she designed translation and grammaticality judgment tasks to investigate syntactic transfer. Chan stated that the

reason for the errors to be most possibly ascribed to transfer was their resemblance to L1 structures. The frequencies and percentages, and self-reporting data from the interviews indicated great influence of L1 on L2 output. Her study suggested conducting *corpus-based empirical research* to “establish a comprehensive taxonomy of interlingual errors for teachers’ reference” (p. 67). This suggestion has been a forward motion for the present research on syntactic errors.

When we look at the recent corpus studies pertaining to the learners’ linguistic level, Nesselhauf’s (2007, p. 307) study reported that advanced German speaking learners of English have difficulties in verb-noun collocations of arbitrary convention, such as “make a distinction.” Nesselhauf compiled a corpus of 300 argumentative and descriptive essays, containing about 150.000 words. One of the findings of this study was that the learners used the existing collocations in inappropriate contexts. Therefore, Nesselhauf concluded that collocations also need to be taught within context as well as out of context.

A review of the research studies administered to Turkish EFL learners showed that the learners have problems on various grammatical features as well. In the literature, Turkish EFL learners’ syntactic errors were studied in specific linguistic areas discretely (e.g., *prepositions*, Alpsy, 1998; *ergatives*, Can, 2000; *demonstratives*, Çokal & Ruhi, 2006; *transitivity*, Montrul, 1997, 2000; Uygun & Atay, 2006; *agentive verbs*, Montrul, 2001; *generic reference* Snape, Mayo & Gürel, 2009). Alpsy (1998) studied the errors in the use of three English prepositions, “*at*”, “*in*” and “*on*”, in the ELT students’ narrations called “guided composition” and in their answers to a cloze test and a translation test. The students were grouped into two, consisting of fifty first year students and fifty third year students. None of the students was able to use all the prepositions accurately in all the occasions. Consequently, the misuses of the prepositions were considered to be stemming from various reasons such as native language interference and faulty generalizations of the rules about the uses of these prepositions.

Can's (2000) study aimed to "reveal the status of English ergative verbs from the viewpoint of erroneous usage by Turkish learners of English" and provide "plausible explanations for the most significant types of errors that learners encounter" (p. 121). He used a cloze test, a grammaticality judgment test (in the form of sentence-acceptability), and sentence completion and production tasks in order to elicit the data. The results showed the learners' avoidance or untargetlike passivization of these verbs.

Çokal and Ruhi (2006) emphasized that in addition to the knowledge of lexico-grammatical system, knowledge of form-function mappings is essential for developing writing in an L2. They examined the use of the interlanguage discourse deictic pronouns *this* and *that* in written academic discourse of Turkish EFL learners. The participants were at different proficiency levels from pre-intermediate to the 4th year of foreign language education. The number of participants in the proficiency groups ranged from 44 to 81. They found that the learners used *this* as the default "anaphoric-cum-discourse deictic marker"; that learners generally lack the knowledge of "the modal properties of *this* and *that* in establishing focus and indicating stance", and that learners did not maintain the use of appropriate reference, which resulted in "violations of the Principle of Relevance in making referents mutually manifest to their audience" (p. 46). They concluded that "IL pragmatic principles governing the use of *this* and *that* in IL English are different from their attested functions in written and spoken native speaker English" (p. 46).

In the related literature, the concepts of error and transfer seem to be commonly studied simultaneously. For instance, Montrul (1997, 2000) conducted an experimental study with different learners who have English, Spanish and Turkish as L1 and L2 in separate groups. She found that errors with transitive and intransitive nonalternating classes are related to developmental factors and thus language proficiency and L1 effects were not clear. However, among the different L1 language groups, errors with alternating verbs were found to be due to L1 effects, namely transfer. She maintained in her article that "errors are systematic and can be traced back ... to the learners' respective L1s" (Montrul, 2000, p. 263). UG and L1

knowledge “may not affect all linguistic domains in the same way at a given stage of development” (This is stated as *modularity*).

In a similar fashion, Montrul (2001) also investigated L1 effects on acquisition of argument structure in her experimental study. By Turkish and Spanish learners of English, she found L1 constraints to be in effect. Turkish learners undergeneralized while Spanish learners overgeneralized the transitivity alternation with manner-of-motion verbs. Studying with 40 Turkish adult learners and conducting a picture judgement task for them to rate sentence acceptability, Uygun and Atay (2006) found that beginners were disinclined to accept alternating verbs both in transitive and intransitive frames. However, still having difficulties with acceptance of intransitivity, the higher proficiency level learners displayed native-like acceptance of alternating verbs in transitive frames.

Snape, Mayo and Gürel (2009) investigated article choice in relation to generic reference of four groups of English learners: Spanish, Turkish, Japanese and Chinese. They conducted a forced choice elicitation task to 88 pre-intermediate and advanced Turkish learners of English. They found that the Turkish groups tended to omit “*the*” in definite singular generic contexts while the Japanese groups used “*a*” instead of “*the*” such contexts. The former group correctly provided the indefinite article in general and omitted it less than the latter group. In conclusion, the finding concerning the Turkish learners’ higher achievement with the indefinite article use was attributed to L1 influence. The Turkish article *bir* is considered as having a quasi indefinite article marking generic reference.

From a larger perspective on syntax, the present study has a purpose to construct a comprehensive study pertaining to the nature of overall syntactic errors of ELT students, making use of a computerized written corpus and recent computer programs. This study is also motivated by new EA studies “which makes full use of advances in CLC research” (Dagneaux et al., 1998, p. 165) (CLC= computer learner corpus). What Sue Blackwell wrote in 2003 (published in Renouf & Kehoe, 2006, p.

1) and quoted at the beginning of this chapter seemed quite applicable to the present state of affairs.

In addition, there are some studies pertaining to the analyses of learner errors on the basis of the errors' environments analysed at different planes from the immediate circumstance of a noun phrase stretching out to a whole text. Relevant papers concerning L2 English and languages containing no article system (Abbott, 2006; Ionin, 2003; Master, 2002; Prince, 1992; Robertson, 2000) seem to adopt different planes of analysis. Now we discuss how they handled the analyses and how they relate to our analysis needs.

As regards to the process of learning to use articles, Master (1997) stated that learners whose native language does not consist of an article system, [-ART] speakers as he called them, initially do not use an article in their English production until the time they understand that this is not the way English language works. Then, they start to overuse *the*, hypothesizing that all nouns need to have one (almost as in our case). Master (1997) explains how the English articles *a*, *the* and the zero article ( $\emptyset$ ) occur in sentences. The zero article has two forms as the zero article, occurring with non-count plural nouns and alternating with *the*, and the null article, occurring with singular count and proper nouns and alternating with *a*. In his 2002 paper Master also gives details of the ways information structure is manipulated, such as in the use of existential *there* (“*There is a fly in my soup.*”). Master’s 1997 and 2002 frameworks seem appropriate for depicting the immediate circumstance of the noun phrases with article errors in our corpus, in the cases of omission, addition and misinformation. That is to say, the environments of the errors can be described in terms of the grammatical definiteness of noun phrases, those with “*the*” being the definite, and of other structures in the immediate environment of noun phrases like existential “*there*”.

In order to define the contexts requiring the English definite and indefinite article in her corpus, Robertson (2000) formed a taxonomy. This taxonomy was stated to be largely based on Hawkins’ (1978) scheme for the reason that Chinese learners tend to

use demonstratives instead of the definite article under the influence of their L1, and that Hawkins highlighted the similarities and differences in the function of the definite article and demonstratives in his taxonomy. The categories in Robertson's taxonomy reflected the semantic and pragmatic properties of the environments in which the definite and indefinite noun phrases occurred. The noun phrases were coded in four categories: definite contexts (requiring *the*), demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*), indefinite contexts (requiring *a/an*), and the quantifier *one*. Robertson's taxonomy classified the definite NP environments as:

- *Anaphoric use of referring NP*
- *Immediate situation use of referring NP*
- *Larger situation use of referring NP*
- *Head noun of an associative clause NP*
- *Unexplanatory use of definite NP*
- *NP with nominal modifier, and*
- *NP with establishing relative clause*

The indefinite NP environments were classified as:

- *Use of NP in existential predication*
- *Use of NP as object of transitive verb or complement of copulative construction, and*
- *Generic use of singular NP*

Robertson (2000) provided examples from her corpus for each category in the taxonomy. The corpus included 1884 noun phrases in 18 dialogues. The frequency of occurrence of each type of noun phrase was reached and compared with different forms in each functional environment such as existential use. Accuracy (i.e. providing the article in obligatory contexts of use) was defined in relation to standard (British) norms. Text-level analysis was used, based on this taxonomy of Robertson. Setting out from the generative grammar perspective, Robertson found that Chinese learners' marked tendency to omit English articles stemmed from their failure in the mapping between the form and the abstract functional features in the interlanguage grammar. The omissions were explained under the principles of determiner-drop, recoverability and lexical transfer.

In another study, Leung (2001) also employed the generative perspective for investigating the acquisition of articles in L3 initial state grammar of 68 Cantonese-English bilingual learners of French. She assumed a partial access to UG for the functional categories and tried to discover the role of prior linguistic knowledge on L3 acquisition of articles. The participants were all advanced speakers of L2 English. The Laval Placement Test helped to group the learners into two proficiency levels of their L3 French: 41 beginners and 27 intermediate. Leung, referring to Lyons (1999, p. 16), assumed *the* as [+definite] and *a* as [-definite] (p. 4). The semantic features of definiteness and specificity in her study included *the* as specific definite (“i.e. singular definite article with specific reading”, p. 3), *a* specific indefinite (“i.e. singular indefinite article with specific reading”), and *a* non-specific indefinite (“i.e. singular indefinite article with non-specific reading”). She employed two experimental tasks designed both in English and in French: an oral picture description task including a 10-minute talk and a written production task consisting of answering a group of questions “to elicit articles plus nouns”. With a focus on singular countable noun phrases, she found that the learners did very well on the former task, but especially the beginner group had some problems in producing French definite articles regardless of gender to a greater extent than their incorrect use of indefinite articles. Nevertheless, a significant progress was found between the beginner and the intermediate groups. These results were thought to suggest that “a certain degree of UG restructuring is possible on the initially “failed” feature of [+DEFINITE] in L3 French, although the feature is still “failing” in this intermediate stage (but to a lesser extent (...))” (p. 8). The results of the latter task indicated that the learners did very poorly on the specific definite article use both in French and in English, and that there was no significant difference between the two proficiency groups. It was concluded that “these results seem to demonstrate (...) a strong L2-L3 correspondence in both the initial state and subsequent development of French, and a lack of UG restructuring in the intermediate stage” (p. 8).

In Snape, Leung and Ting’s (2006) article regarding the comparisons of Chinese, Japanese and Spanish learners of English, the learners’ article choices were

examined in forced choice elicitation tasks. It was reported that the Chinese native speakers did better than the Japanese native speakers in the use of English articles, which showed that all learners with articleless first languages do not face the same problems in English article acquisition.

#### **2.4. Features of Nouns**

Master (2002, p. 333) mentions the feature of countability of a noun as one of “a complex mix of factors” which impinge on the choice of article in English. He explains the reasons of this outcome under the term of “the packet or wave notion”, which denotes to respectively the isolated form and the accumulation of entities being referred to. The first form which has clear border lines can be used as countable (i.e. count) and thus as plural (like “*pencil, star, idea*”) while the second which does not have such apparent border lines cannot (like “*plastic, flour, energy*”). Master warns that a noun is never inherently one of these two types but it may have a marked tendency to be count or noncount, which is decided by the speaker. He offers a good example with the noun “*pencil*” in its somewhat marked, or uncustomary, usage for the second language learners, as follows:

(7) *The vet found bits of chewed-up pencil in the dog's stomach.*

(Master, 2002, p. 334)

As for this usage of the word “*pencil*”, we can no longer claim that it is a count noun; what makes it noncount is represented in its behaviour as a “formless mass” whose boundary is not explicitly delineated.

Specificity is another feature which affects our choice of articles. It reflects the speaker's intent to refer to a particular entity using a “referring” expression, meaning that “there is a particular object which the speaker is thinking of as motivating the choice of description” (Lyons, 1999, p. 166). Information is deemed specific when it refers to a particular entity in the real world (Brinton, 2000, p. 292) whereas the referring expressions can also be used for a particular referent in the speaker's mind



or in any imaginary world (Hurford & Heasley, 1983, pp. 35, 58). The following examples from Lyons illustrate the case of being specific and non-specific.

(8) *I bought **a car**.*

(9) *Pass me **a book**.*

(Lyons, 1999, p. 165)

As explained in Lyons (1999), the indefinite noun phrase “*a car*” in Example (8) is not the same with the indefinite noun phrase “*a book*” in Example (9) because the former points out a referent which casts familiarity to the speaker, though not to the reader. On the other hand, the latter poses familiarity to neither the speaker nor the hearer within itself. Lyons (1999) draws attention to the specific and non-specific readings of the same noun phrases, too, with different continuations, which is explained under the title of “opacity and scope ambiguities”. Here, the term *opaque context* is defined as the context where the noun phrase cannot be substituted with another referring expression which refers to the same entity, i.e. “a coreferential expression” (p. 166). For example, in the example (10) below, if the president is respected as, let us say, a knowledgeable person, *the president* can be replaced with *a knowledgeable person* since this does not influence the “truth value of the sentence” (p. 167). However, the case is different in (11) where we cannot apply the same substitution.

(10) *I'm going to have lunch with **the president** tomorrow – I'm dreading it, he's such a boring man.*

(11) *I'm going to have lunch with **the president** tomorrow – that is, if the election takes place today and we have a president.*

(Lyons, 1999, p. 168)

Lyons (1999) reminds that such contexts with a continuation part does not guarantee specificity or non-specificity but makes the situation more apparent for the reader. The example given above comprises the use of the definite article in a “future” situation. There are also other specific and non-specific uses in the situations of

“verbs of propositional attitude, negation, questions, conditionals, modals” and “intentional verbs” with a definite determiner<sup>5</sup> and an indefinite determiner in each example statement.

Genericity is another aspect of noun phrases which is operative in the choice of article. As for the grammatical form a generic noun takes, a generic reference can be built in English using “*the*” or “*a*” with the singular count nouns, zero article (Ø) with plural count nouns and with noncount nouns, as specified by Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p. 85). Generic use indicates that the speaker does not refer to any particular entity in the world but want to talk about something in general. Lyons (1999) characterizes generic noun phrases as “a whole class or mass rather than an individual member, a plurality of members, or a part” (p. 51). Lyons adds that each and every generic phrase is not equally generic, and that generic uses characteristically possess their more unmarked non-generic uses, too (p. 179), which is exemplified from Greenbaum & Quirk (1990) below:

(12) *Dogs make admirable companions for children and adults alike.*

(13) *My neighbour apparently has **dogs**; I hear them barking at night.*

(Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990, p. 85)

Example (12) above, from Greenbaum & Quirk (1990), illustrates one of “a wide range of generic noun phrase types displayed in English” (Lyons, 1999, p. 181). The noun “*dogs*” in this sentence could have been “the dog” or “a dog” as well, but not “the dogs” because generic noun phrases in general are not in the definite plural form except for some nouns like those expressing nationality as in “*the Finns*” and those which refer to “classes of classes” that stand for groups larger than species of animals as in this sentence: “***The cats** – at least the big ones like tigers and pumas – are particularly fierce predators*” (Lyons, 1999, p. 181-182). Example (13) is a regular, non-generic use counterpart of the noun “*dogs*”. This use of the same noun

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<sup>5</sup> The term “determiner” is used here as some examples given in Lyons (1999) involve the use of a definite noun phrase without using an article, such as “*John’s cottage*” (p. 168, examples 27a and 27b).

is “arguably more basic” (Lyons, 1999, p. 179). It is also stated that plural and mass generics, which are in the category of non-singular generics, are characteristically indefinite (p. 189).

Uniqueness is another phenomenon to be taken into consideration for assessing the environment of noun phrases in focus. A unique entity is the only one that satisfies the description used, which is signalled by the use of the definite article “*the*” on the whole (Lyons, 1999, p. 8). Indefinites are said to be neutral with respect to uniqueness and the use of “*a*” may indicate non-uniqueness (p. 12). The uniqueness of “*the*” is usually relative to a particular context, as Lyons expresses. According to him, there are some inherently unique nouns such as “*the sun*” and “*the universe*”. Uniqueness nicely emerges where the referent is “hypothetical, potential, or in the future” (p. 9) as in the following example:

(14) *The winner of this competition will get a week in the Bahamas for two.*

(Lyons, 1999, p. 9)

Although we cannot name “*the winner*” in the example above since the competition is not yet bygone, we can readily argue that the noun is unique because it refers a single entity that exists in the world and we can select it from all others. Uniqueness can also apply to sets and masses with the definite article “*the*” (Lyons, 1999, p. 11) as in the following example:

(15) *We’re looking for the vandals who broke into the office yesterday.*

(Lyons, 1999, p. 11)

The noun phrase “*the vandals*” in the above example refers to the entirety of the objects that match what is described, and is consequently unique.

The article use can be analysed in terms of the information status of noun phrases at the text level. Conducting a text-level analysis, Prince (1981) dealt with information

status of entities on the basis of his “*Assumed Familiarity Analysis*”. Prince tries to find out what kinds of speaker assumptions have an effect on the linguistic productions (namely the text), and what inferences the hearer draws on the basis of the chosen form, which forms a matter of linguistics as well as cognitive psychology, as Prince articulates it (1981, p. 233). In a later paper, Prince (1992) described his research on definiteness and information status in the noun phrases of a naturally occurring text (i.e. a letter) so as to uncover how subjects differ from non-subjects with respect to definiteness. In other words, Prince (1992) investigates whether and how subject noun phrases differ in terms of being definite and indefinite. For this purpose she focused on a letter called “the ZPG letter”. The discourse level analyses disclose that:

- The entities with the feature “-old” are more likely to be subjects than those with the “-new”.
- Discourse(-old) status has a stronger effect on being subjects than Hearer(-old) status.
- Subjects tend to represent (discourse-)old information.
- Pronominal status (=being a pronoun), and therefore possibly the salience of the entity being referred to, makes subjecthood more likely.
- We cannot draw definite conclusions but discourse(-old) status is clearly relevant to subjecthood.

Similarly, Abbott (2006) explained definiteness and indefiniteness with reference to Prince’s (1992) givenness (i.e. discourse-old and discourse-new issues). In her paper, Abbott (2006) describes definite and indefinite noun phrases in terms of uniqueness, familiarity, definiteness effect, kinds of definite and indefinite noun phrases, other categorizations of noun phrase than definite / indefinite (old / new, givenness, accessibility) and (in)definiteness in other languages. Prince acknowledges that analyses conducted with such taxonomy of familiarity can show variations from one analyst to another by saying that: “(...) a more knowledgeable reader than I would of course have more Unused entities and fewer Inferreds” (1981, p. 252).

The discourse types in Assumed Familiarity Taxonomy are clarified by Prince (1981) with due examples. She states that “[w]hen a speaker first introduces an entity into the discourse, we may say that it is ‘new’” (p. 235), and that when the hearer needs to create a new entity; it is called Brand-new, which is typically indefinite, as in this example:

(16) *I got on **a bus** yesterday and **the driver** was drunk.*

(Prince, 1981, p. 233)

The noun “a bus” is assumingly a Brand-new entity for the hearer whereas the noun “the driver” used later on is an Inferrable one because “the speaker assumes the hearer can infer it, via logical - or, more commonly, plausible - reasoning, from discourse entities already Evoked or from other Inferrables” (Prince, 1981, p. 236). Prince adds that Inferrables are like both hearer-old and hearer-new (and discourse-new) entities; they can be represented by definite noun phrases and also indefinite noun phrases.

Evoked entities are stated to be “already in the discourse model” of the hearer. This takes place either via the linguistic text itself, as Evoked from a Brand-new entity as its antecedent, or via the situation in which the communication takes place; the hearer evokes it from “the discourse participants and salient features of the extratextual context, which includes the text itself” (1981, p. 236). Prince provides these examples for illustrating respectively (textually) Evoked and Situationally Evoked entities:

(17) *A **guy I work with** says **he** knows your sister.*

(18) *Pardon, would **you** have change of a quarter?*

(Prince, 1981, p. 233)

In Example (17) above, “*a guy I work with*” is a Brand-new anchored discourse entity because the noun phrase “*a guy*” is linked to another one “properly contained in it”, which is its anchor (p. 236). Additionally, “*he*” becomes Evoked from the previous text. However, in Example (18), the referent of “*you*” is understood from the situation in which the interlocutors interact. So, it is Situationally Evoked.

Prince (1981) defines Containing Inferrables as necessarily hav(ing) some noun phrase contained in them, often within a subordinate clause, as in the following example:

(19) *Hey, one of these eggs is broken!*

(Prince, 1981, p. 233)

The hearer is expected to be able to infer the meaning of “*one*” from the succeeding part of the phrase “*of these eggs*”. Prince continues her explanations that “the hearer may be assumed to have a corresponding entity in his/her own model and simply has to place it in (or copy it into) the discourse-model” (p. 235), which refers to the type she called Unused, being typically definite.

(20) *Noam Chomsky went to Penn.*

(Prince, 1981, p. 233)

As for another type, when the hearer is assumed to have a corresponding entity in his/her own discourse model, and the entity have appeared previously in the text but no substitutions are used for them, we have Hearer-old entities, as different from the Unused ones. They are also typically definite.

Izumi, Uchimoto and Isahara (2004) investigated the detection of learners’ errors in their corpus. They formed a tagging system for classifications of Japanese learners’ errors in transcribed oral proficiency interviews. Their selection of error categories included noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, article, pronoun and collocation

errors. This selection was determined according to their frequent occurrences and practical identification from the context by the researchers.

As a summary of what surfaces from this chapter, error analysis, “the old trick” in the present researcher’s terms, is still a worthwhile enterprise for exploring the high mountains and the deep forests of foreign language learning. The pathways of language learning and teaching research have already been trotted up to the present time but the former explorers did not have such advanced tools as error editors and concordance programs illuminating the pathways to delve into all the peaks and troughs, which now pave the way to cast a fresh look at the learner errors in their natural environments in every single detail.

### 3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter introduces the details on the conduct of the present investigation, which mainly consist of information on the participants, the learner essay data, the data collection procedure, the pilot study, the data collection and the data analysis.

#### 3.1. Participants

As mentioned earlier, the present study is a part of a larger project (Balpınar et al., 2009) carried out with 352 volunteer Turkish ELT students at four class levels at Anadolu University Education Faculty ELT Department BA Program, in the Spring Term of 2006-2007 academic year. They were asked to write three different essays. 347 narratives, 62 argumentative and 61 free writing pieces of writing were obtained. The participants of the present study were totally 34 students - 17 first year and 17 third year students<sup>6</sup> - whose argumentative essays were selected and analysed for the purpose of this study. The choice of text type was determined by several reasons. Text type may have some effects on the linguistic structures emerging in the texts. So as to control text type variable, we had to form our data for the present analysis from a single text type written on a single topic. The argumentative texts were chosen because this type of texts was studied relatively less than narrative texts in the literature and to our knowledge there was no comprehensive study with the Turkish context (for the use of argumentative texts, see e.g. Dagneaux et al., 1998; for the use of narrative texts, see e.g. Emeksiz, 1998; Stehle, 2009; Chan, 2004; and transcripts of story telling, Avery & Radišić, 2007; Izumi & Isahara, 2004; Izumi et al., 2004).

All the participants had Turkish L1 background. At Year 1 level, there were 12 female and 5 male students and their age range was 18 to 21. At Year 3 level, there were 15 female and 2 male students and their age range was 20 to 23. Year 1 ELT students were receiving courses on contextual grammar, advanced reading and writing, listening and pronunciation and oral communication skills while Year 3 ELT

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<sup>6</sup> Descriptions of the students in the study and number of words in their essays are presented in Appendix II.



students were focusing more on courses like methodology in the area of specialization and research skills. Students in the ELT Department are trained to become effective teachers of English, who are skilled in the English language, knowledgeable in the target culture as well as equipped with the knowledge of language teaching methodology. The ELT program prepares the students to become teachers of English to the young and adolescent learners, between the ages of 10 (4<sup>th</sup> grade) to 17 (11<sup>th</sup> grade) in the primary and secondary schools and young adults at universities around the country.

The participants were assured that all the information they presented for the study would be kept confidential. They were asked to sign on the sheet indicating their voluntary participation in the research.

### **3.2. Data**

The present study is a part of a larger project funded by TÜBİTAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey). This research project embraces the examination of different learner texts grouped as argumentative essays, narrative essays and free writing (no topic assigned). All the essays were typed into the computer files in order to form a learner corpus. Referring to the definition of the term “*corpus*” as “a large and principled collection of natural texts” (Biber, Conrad & Reppen, 1998, p. 4; Reppen & Simpson, 2002, p. 93), our data comprising the 3 groups of learner essays makes a corpus with 27.787 words. Our corpus is one of the principled collections of texts, because of several reasons. First, this corpus was collected systematically. In order to control the variables during the corpus construction, all the collected texts were produced on the same topic and in the same language, by students from the same L1 Turkish backgrounds and having no knowledge of other foreign languages, as they stated. Diaz-Negrillo & Fernandez-Dominguez (2006) argue that “[r]esults obtained from learner corpus research are considered more reliable than those obtained in previous SLA practices” because they are collected systematically in a “representative and balanced” way for valid generalizations (p. 85). Second, all the participants agreed by signing the data

collection sheet that their personal information and texts would be used for scientific purposes. Third, the data was type-written on the computer and was thus preservable and portable. It is stored in the computer for examining patterns of language use. For example, various computer programs such as concordancers assist the researcher list all the occurrences of either a lexical item or a code used in all the texts comprising the corpus. This method of using learner corpora for linguistic examination is called “computer-aided error analysis” (CEA) (Granger, 2002, p. 12) and involves analyzing interlanguage errors with the help of computer tools in a standardized form. Fourth, this corpus is also appropriate to the “learner corpus typology” suggested by Granger (2002, p. 11), since the present corpus is: “monolingual” (English), “general” (argumentative essay, not relating to a specific area of study like science), “synchronic” (collected at the same time) and “written” (pencil and paper work).

The data of this study is the learner corpus consisting of *argumentative essays*, which totally make an 8794-word corpus (Table 2). The focus is on the syntactic errors made by the ELT students. The mean numbers of words and sentences in the texts are presented on Table 2.

Table 2.

*Size of the Data in the Study*

	Year 1	Year 3	general
	n	n	n
Number of essays	17	17	34
Number of words in essays	4288	4506	8794
Mean number of words per essay	252,2	265,1	258,6
Number of sentences	348	315	663
Mean number of sentences per essay	20,5	18,5	19,5

For giving the reader an idea about the essays on textual basis, two comparisons were conducted, involving the mean numbers of words and sentences of the essays at two

class levels. Considering the mean number of words per essay, 5% more words were observed in third year students' argumentative essays. On the other hand, taking the mean number of sentences per essay, third year students' essays contained 10,5% less number of sentences. Therefore, third year students wrote fewer but longer sentences than first year students.

### **3.3. Data Collection Procedure**

The data collection procedure was hereafter described. The processes aimed to find the answers to the research questions posed.

#### **3.3.1. Pilot Study**

For collecting the data, a data collection sheet including instruction and topic choices was prepared. For ensuring the clarity of the instruction and to determine the topic that appealed most to the students, we conducted a pilot study with the help of 12 comparable, voluntary students (Figure 3). The feedback obtained in the piloting phase included the confirmation of the comprehensibility of the instructions given on the data collection sheet and the decision of the topic to be presented for essay writing. The essays compiled from the piloting students were not included into the main data for reliability reasons. During the piloting, the students were asked to choose one of the three topics written on the sheet given to them. The topic favoured by most of the students to write about in their essays constituted the topic for essay writing in the main study.

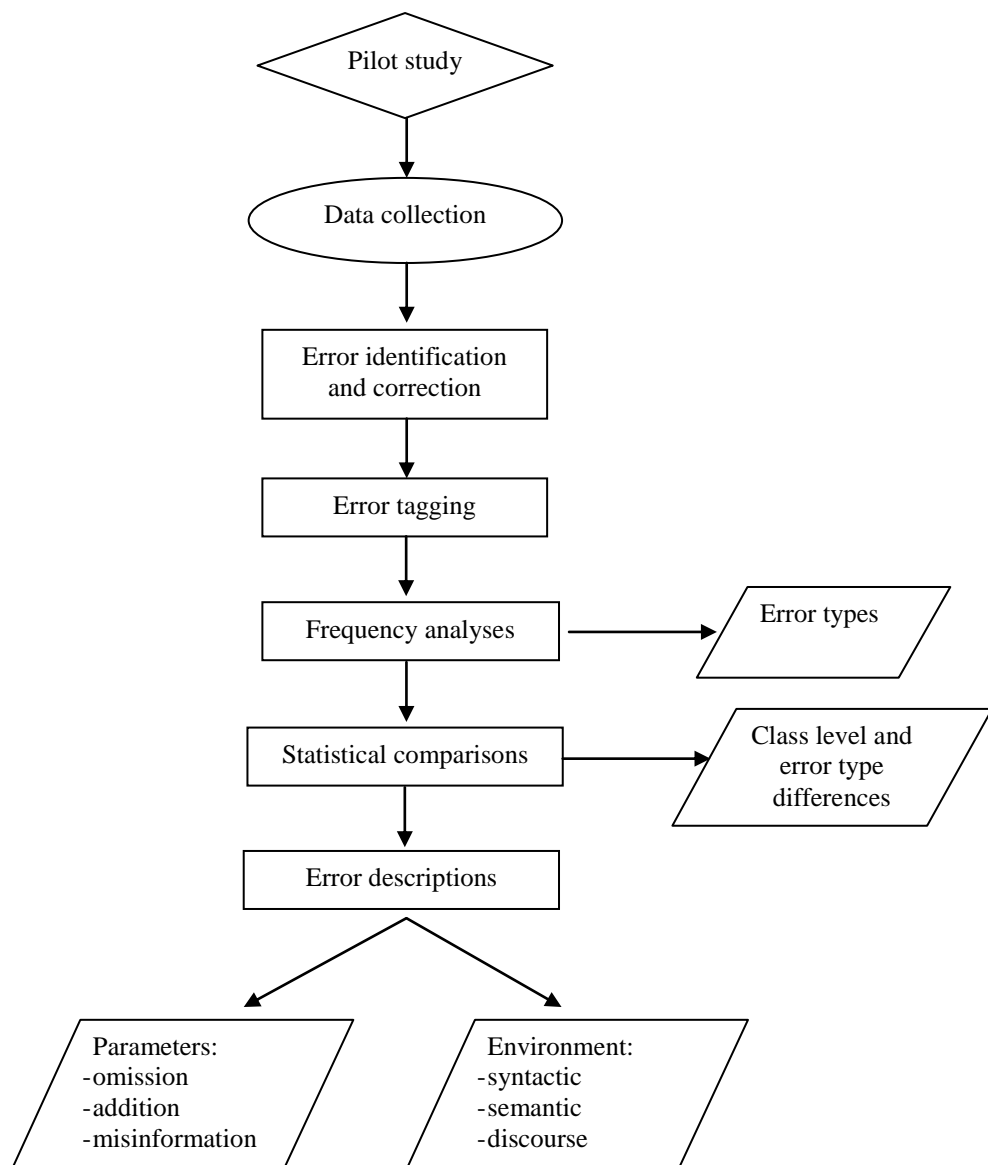


Figure 3. *The Procedure Followed During the Study*

### 3.3.2. Data Collection

The students obtained the sheets for writing their argumentative essays outside their regular class hours. As for the *pros* of writing outside class hours, the students wrote under no time limitations and with no reservations and/or concern of being given marks as a part of their course evaluation. In addition, they had the opportunity to make use of sources like a grammar book or a dictionary if they wished. As for the

*cons* of writing outside class hours, the students had to spare their time for the sake of being a part of this research. Besides, they probably did not have a chance to consult a teacher for any aspect of writing an essay.

Each student was given a data collection sheet specially prepared for the study, where the essay topic appeared (Appendix III). The students were asked to submit their essays to the researcher within 1 to 5 days. Therefore, the task was untimed and the students may have had access to reference tools like a grammar book. They had enough time to review their work before submission. Since they were accustomed to process writing approach, they most probably had the habit of reviewing their product. Therefore, we assume that they must have edited their essays. The essay topic given on the sheet was: “Should the sale and consumption of alcohol and cigarettes be allowed on the university campus?” The essay sheet informed the participants to write the essay in English of about 250 words. Afterwards, the researcher computerized the handwritten essays (for a sample handwritten essay, see Appendix IV) as Microsoft Word files, and verified their consistency with the help of a colleague.

The essays to be examined in the study were selected via suitable sampling methods. The stratified sampling and the random sampling were indispensable processes to be realized because we would not include all the essays obtained from all the students who had been volunteers for the participation in this research for the purpose and within scope of this study. We had to form a homogeneous group of students among those who produced argumentative essays. Stratified sampling was employed in order to select the essays of the students at the two class levels. Creswell (2005) explains that on some definite feature like gender, a researcher can “divide (stratify) the population and then, using simple random sampling, sample from each subgroup (stratum) of the population (e.g., females and males). This guarantees that the sample will include specific characteristics that the researcher wants included in the sample” (p. 148). Our definite feature is class level and our subgroups are Year 1 and Year 3 students’ essays. As suggested, a simple random sampling was subsequently used for the purpose of having equal number of essays for each class

level. This sampling method is classically used for having a sample group of individuals consisting of representatives of the population each member of which has an equal chance to be selected (Creswell, 2005, p. 147). The essays of the students whose L1s were other than Turkish had been eliminated from the present analysis prior to sampling, so as to prevent a potential effect of a different language on L2 English production and in consequence to obtain a more homogeneous learner group.

So as to see the developmental nature of the learner language, the errors committed before and after receiving instruction on writing argumentative essays were taken into consideration. The “before” group was composed of essays of the first year (“Year 1” is the term used in this study) students who did not yet start receiving instruction on writing argumentative type of essays. The ELT program starts with mostly skills-based courses, like writing skills or reading skills, and ends with mainly teaching practice-based courses in the fourth year. Therefore, the “after” group was formed from the essays of the Year 3 students who had already received instruction and practice on writing argumentative essays. Thus, we would also be able to observe their linguistic state earlier than they started the teaching practice in the fourth year.

### **3.4. Data Analysis**

First of all, number and letter codes were given onto each essay sheet. The aim of this coding is to ensure the privacy of the participants, and for facilitating data documentation, analysis and presentation, as advised by Austin (2006). The same number and letter codes were used as the document titles of the essays typed into the computer. They were grouped according to the class level and the text type. For example; the text coded as “3-187 AE” is a third-year student’s argumentative essay numbered 187.

Non-native language teachers may not notice all the learner errors, nor can they always consider culturally appropriate forms in the target language. Therefore, a native speaker teacher is needed for finding the errors and for correcting them most

appropriately. A native speaker of British English who was a lecturer at the School of Foreign Languages at Anadolu University collaborated for the process in the study. He was first of all informed and briefly trained on the nature of error identification and correction within the scope of the study, using the *Error Tagging Manual* (Dagneaux et al., 2005), which introduces tagging guidelines and error categories with explanations, examples and warnings for potential misunderstandings or overlaps. Afterwards, he identified the errors in the essays (which had already been computerized as word files) and corrected them on the word files (Appendix V). When there was more than one possible correction, the native speaker preferred the best substitute derived from the context, with the least possible modification of the learner's original statement. Then, the researcher "tagged" the errors, first manually on the paper printouts of the corrected electronic texts, and then electronically via the error editor (UCLEE, 1.2) (see Appendix VI for a sample tagged essay). The researcher needed to convert the MS Word files into MS Notepad files. After that, the researcher inserted the corrected forms of the errors into the text between two dollar (\$) signs right after the erroneous word or group of words.

Tagging errors involves lots of decision making and interpretation of the text on the part of the researcher and the native speaker corrector. This is because learners produce "high-inference data". The present tagging was realized only by the researcher on the basis of the native speaker corrector's interpretations of learner statements, and thus involves her interpretations on the learners' written essays and the native speaker's corrections. Additionally, two experts in the ELT field examined and confirmed a part (15,7%,  $n=61$ , Table 3) of the tagged errors within their sentence environments. They did not interpret the texts. These selected errors were deemed as representative of the errors emerging in their corresponding categories in the frequent four error categories of articles, verbs, nouns and pronouns (total  $n=388$ ).

Table 3.

*Error Frequencies in the Four Categories and of the Errors Examined by Two Experts*

error categories	error occurrences		expert view	
	n	n	n	%
Article use	142	6	6	4,2
Verb use	113	40	40	35,4
Noun use	75	5	5	6,7
Pronoun use	58	10	10	17,2
total	388	61	61	15,7

The confirmation obtained from the experts involved the appropriateness of the tags assigned (such as confirming that the error was related to article use, tagged as GA) and of the statement of the wrong form and the right form (such as confirming that the wrong form is plural agreement and the right form is singular agreement in a subject-verb agreement error like “it cause”). In terms of the language norm used in error identification and correction steps, Dulay et al. (1982, p. 139) points out the effect of “the norm used to identify errors”. British English is the L1 of the native speaker corrector and thus the norm used in error identification and correction in our study was British English.

The identified learner errors were assigned tags (such as “GA” for an error of article use) one by one by a reference to the erroneous form, not to the correction, as advised by Dagneaux et al. (2005) in the error tagging manual: “Principle 1: Do not tag on the basis of the corrected /targeted word/phrase, but on the basis of the incorrect word/phrase only” (p. 7). This is illustrated in the following example where the last error has to be tagged (GA) (article error) rather than (GDO) (misuse of a possessive determiner).

- (21) *By hindering the selling and drinking alcohol or smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$, we will destroy (GA) the \$our\$ freedom. (3-310 AE)*



Tagging the errors in a big collection of texts is advantageous because, if tagged, the non-targetlike forms are thus easily retrievable for analysis on the basis of the error type by concordance programs (for an example output window of AntConc, see Figure 4). The system of tagging also contributes to the consistency in assigning the errors to relevant categories, and, as stated by Dagneaux et al., to identify an item, like an article or a conjunction, which is failed to be used by the learner. Such an item, called a “zero form”, cannot be detected by a concordance program. Some example error tags are:

*GA: errors of article use*

*GVT: errors of verb tense*

*GPU: errors of pronoun with unclear reference*

*GADJCS: grammatical errors affecting comparative/superlative adjectives*

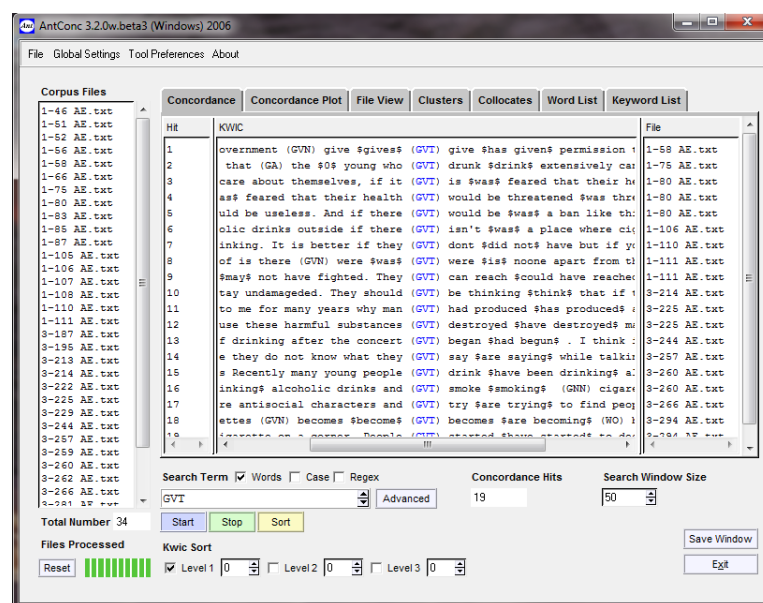


Figure 4. Example Output of AntConc Search for Verb Errors

To facilitate the frequency counts of the error categories and subcategories, the error tags were used as the search terms in the concordance program AntConc (3.2.0w.beta3), as seen on Figure 4. The number of “hits” in the program indicated the frequency of a term, i.e. an erroneous part, in the data. The members of each error type were afterwards listed so as to find the common and distinctive

characteristics of each error category, along with the related frequencies and percentages. The percentages were computed via the Microsoft Excel program.

Following the frequency counts, the descriptive findings with regard to two class levels were computed and compared between the two class levels and among the different types of errors (for the procedure followed, see Figure 2 presented earlier). With this aim, the error types, the class levels and the error frequencies were all submitted to the statistical program by a statistician and the findings were reached as a range of tables and figures. Rather than parametric tests, their alternative non-parametric tests were employed because the study contained nominal data not showing normal distribution. The difference between error categories was sought via Chi-square (Kruskal-Wallis) test. The difference between the class levels was investigated via Mann-Whitney U test. The analyses conducted for these aims were realized by means of SPSS 15.

In order to facilitate descriptions of the error types, concordance tables (Appendix VII) were formed where the frequent errors in the data, namely article errors, verb errors, noun errors and pronoun errors, were grouped on the basis of the error type. The concordance tables were also sub-grouped on the basis of “omission, addition, and misinformation” (as adopted from the surface structure taxonomy by Dulay et al., 1982, p. 150, as was explained in Chapter 2) and the environment they occur in.

After the frequent error types were thus analysed, further analysis was undertaken. While presenting the results, the article errors were emphasized and detailed the most since these errors occurred the most frequently in the data. This analysis involved the environmental descriptions of errors of article use. The descriptions were constructed at three levels, as syntactic, semantic and discourse, in interaction with the feature of definiteness of the noun phrases (NPs) with which article errors occurred. Lyons (1999) uses the term “simple definite” for the noun phrases used with the definite article “*the*” and “simple indefinite” for other noun phrases with or without the indefinite article “*a*” (pp. 2, 16, 34). In accordance with this grammatical

definiteness approach, we acknowledge “formal” (i.e. depending on the form) definiteness as a syntactic category.

Environmental descriptions of article errors at the syntactic level included countability and existential “*there+be*” and copulative constructions; at semantic level, specificity, genericity and uniqueness; and at discourse level ( as suggested by Prince, 1982); (textually) Evoked / situationally Evoked (discourse-old), Unused (discourse-new, hearer-old), Hearer-old, Inferrable, containing Inferrable, Brand-New Anchored (discourse-new, hearer-new), and Brand-New (Unanchored) (discourse-new, hearer-new), which may or may not be accompanied by one or more attributes such as “*beautiful*” in “*I bought a beautiful dress*” (Prince, 1982, p. 237).

## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the results of the investigation on the basis of the research questions addressed. The issues handled mainly were: the identification of syntactic error types in the ELT students' essays, statistical comparisons of the number of errors across the class levels and the error types, descriptions of the frequent error types emerged in the data in terms of their use, and finally an elaborate description of article errors which are found to be the most frequent error type. Accordingly, the research questions addressed in this study were:

1. What types of syntactic errors are produced by Turkish speaking ELT students in their English argumentative essays?
2. Is there a significant difference in the syntactic errors according to:
  - 2.1. the class level?
  - 2.2. the error type?
3. How can the frequent types of errors be described in terms of the parameters of:
  - 3.1. omission,
  - 3.2. addition and
  - 3.3. misinformation?
4. How can the most frequent type of error be described at:
  - 4.1. syntactic,
  - 4.2. semantic and
  - 4.3. discourse levels?

### 4.1. Types of Syntactic Errors in the Data

Nine main error categories emerged in the essays of the students at both class levels. Figure 5 illustrates the percentages of all the main error categories within the argumentative essay data. Their frequencies and percentages in the data were

achieved by retrieving the main and sub-categories separately via the concordance program AntConc and by the computations via the Microsoft Excel program.

The frequent errors were article errors (GA, 31,4%), followed by those related to verbs (GV, 25%), nouns (GN, 16,6%) and pronouns (GP, 12,8%). The other groups of errors were less in number as: word class (GWC, 5,8%), determiners (GD, 3,5%), word order (WO, 2,2%), adjective (GADJ, 1,5%) and adverb (GADV, 1,1%) (Figure 5). These figures construct the required answer to Research Question 1.

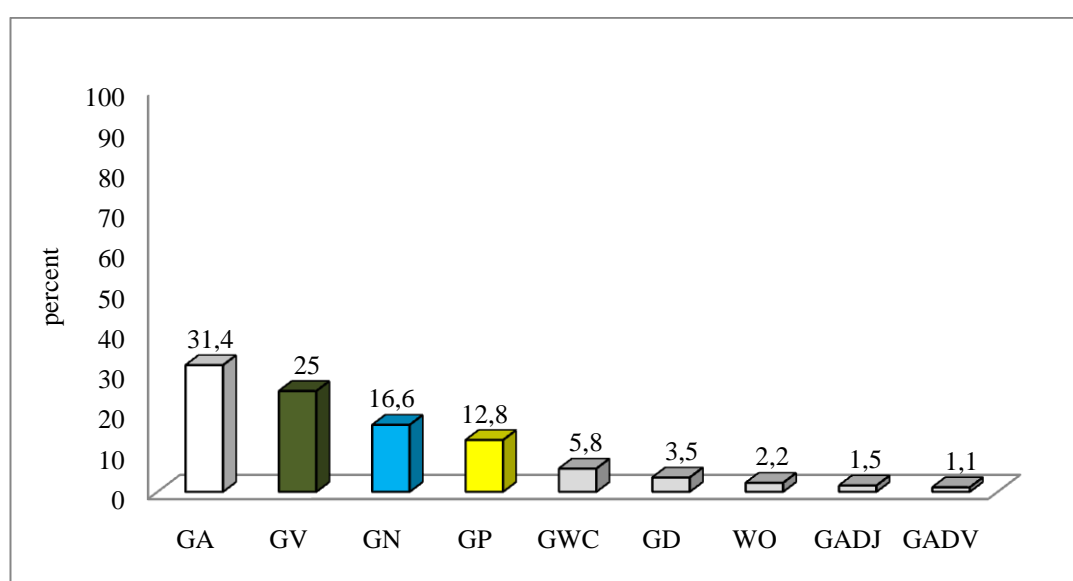


Figure 5. Percentages of Error Categories in the Whole Data

Since the errors in the four categories of article, verb, noun and pronoun, which account for 85,8% of all the data are much more frequent than each of the remaining categories, the subcategories of the four will hereafter be given in detail. Table 4 presents the frequencies and percentages of the frequent error types made by both groups. Subcategories of each error type was analysed within that error type group. Each subcategory mentioned was exemplified following the table.

Table 4.

*Frequencies and Percentages of the Frequent Error Types*

Categories:			n	%	total n	total %
GA						
definite	Grammar, Article		113	79,6	142	36,6
indefinite	Grammar, Article		29	20,4		
GV						
GVN	Grammar, Verb, Number		45	39,8	113	29,1
GVM	Grammar, Verb, Morphology		1	0,9		
GVNF	Grammar, Verb, Non-Finite / Finite		23	20,4		
GVV	Grammar, Verb, Voice		6	5,3		
GVT	Grammar, Verb, Tense		19	16,8		
GVAUX	Grammar, Verb, Auxiliaries		19	16,8		
GN						
GNC	Grammar, Noun, Case		9	12	75	19,3
GNN	Grammar, Noun, Number		66	88		
GP						
GPD	Grammar, Pronoun, Demonstrative		7	12,1	58	14,9
GPP	Grammar, Pronoun, Personal		17	29,3		
GPI	Grammar, Pronoun, Indefinite		7	12,1		
GPF	Grammar, Pronoun, Reflexive/Reciprocal		1	1,7		
GPR	Grammar, Pronoun, Relative/ Interrogative		5	8,6		
GPU	Grammar, Pronoun, Unclear reference		21	36,2		
total:						

As it is seen from Table 4, 79.6% of the article errors belong to the erroneous uses of the definite article *the* in the article error category. Verb errors mostly (39,8%) occurred in GVN (verb number) subcategory referring to the subject-verb disagreement. A great majority (88%) of noun errors indicated GNN (noun number) subcategory denoting the errors of singular/bare and plural forms of nouns. Finally, 36,2% of pronoun errors indicated the use of pronouns with an unclear reference. A general look at the four categories reveals the article errors as the most frequent (36,6%) category.

As for the general progress, the next section presents the frequencies and percentages of the frequent error types and their comparisons with reference to class levels in the study.

#### **4.2. Class Level and Error Types**

In this section, firstly an overall picture of error types found in texts of students at each class level was provided. Next, the statistical comparisons were given regarding the two class level differences and error type differences.

According to the findings from the first year students' essays and from the third year students' essays, as presented on Table 5, errors of article use increased 15,2% (from 66 to 76) and errors of noun use increased 27,3% (from 33 to 42). On the other hand, it was found that errors of verb use decreased 28,8% (from 66 to 47) and errors of pronoun use decreased 51,3% (from 39 to 19). The definite article errors were higher in the third year students' essays than those of the first year (81,6% vs. 77,3%). The subcategories of verb errors were similar in number in general except for the subject-verb agreement errors, which occurred twice more in the first year students' essays. Noun number errors (GNN) regarding the use of the plural morpheme emerged in a much higher rate (95,2%) in the third year students' essays than in the first year students' essays (78,8%). The most widespread subcategory of pronoun errors comprised the errors with the use of personal pronouns in the 3<sup>rd</sup> year essays (31,6%) while it was the use of pronouns with unclear reference in the first year students' essays (41%). Research Question 2 addressed the issue of whether there was a difference in the errors according to the class level of the students and to the error type. The following section includes the comparison of the errors which was detected in the essays of first year students with the ones of third year students on the basis of the main error types, and the comparison of errors to discover whether one type of error surfaced in a significantly different quantity than any other type in the learner corpus data.

Table 5.

*Frequencies and Percentages of the Frequent Error Types in Terms of Class Levels*

Categories:	Year 1				Year 3				general	
	n	%	total n	total %	n	%	total n	total %	decrease %	increase %
GA										
definite	51	77,3	66	32,4	62	81,6	76	41,3		15,2
indefinite	15	22,7			14	18,4				
GV										
GVN	30	45,5	66	32,4	15	31,9	47	25,5	28,8	
GVM	0	0			1	2,1				
GVNF	13	19,7			10	21,3				
GVV	4	6,1			2	4,3				
GVT	9	13,6			10	21,3				
GVAUX	10	15,2			9	19,1				
GN										
GNC	7	21,2	33	16,2	2	4,8	42	22,8		27,3
GNN	26	78,8			40	95,2				
GP										
GPD	2	5,1	39	19,1	5	26,3	19	10,3	51,3	
GPP	11	28,2			6	31,6				
GPI	5	12,8			2	10,5				
GPF	0	0			1	5,3				
GPR	5	12,8			0	0				
GPU	16	41			5	26,3				
total:			204	100			184	100	80,1	42,4



**4.2.1. Differences in the Errors According to the Class Level:** There were two class levels in the study. Therefore, Mann-Whitney U test, which is the non-parametric alternative to independent samples t-test, was employed (Appendix VIII). The computations showed that the p values were above the significance level of 0,05 ( $p > 0,05$ ,  $p = 0,317/1,00$ , Figure 6).

This finding clarified that the class level did not have a significant effect on the number of errors in the essays. That is to say, third year students' essays were found to involve statistically similar number of errors to those of the first year students, as the answer to Research Question 2.2.

	GA	GV	GN	GP	GWC	GD	GADJ	GADV	WO
Mann-Whitney U	,000	,000	,000	,000	,500	,500	,000	,000	,000
Wilcoxon W	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,500	1,500	1,000	1,000	1,000
Z	-1,000	-1,000	-1,000	-1,000	,000	,000	-1,000	-1,000	-1,000
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,317	,317	,317	,317	1,000	1,000	,317	,317	,317
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)	1,000(a)

Figure 6. *The Results Output of Mann-Whitney Test*

**4.2.2. Differences in the Errors According to the Error Type:** There were nine different error categories identified in the study. Kruskal-Wallis test, which is the non-parametric alternative to one-way ANOVA, was employed for investigating the possible difference between the error type emerging in the data.

Considering the mean ranks (Figure 7), the most frequent error was related to article use (17,50) followed by these categories; verb use (15,50), noun use (13,00), pronoun use (12,00), word class (9,50), determiners (7,00), word order (4,75), adverb use (3,25) and adjective use (3,00).

Error Type	n	Mean Rank
GA	2	17,50
GV	2	15,50
GN	2	13,00
GP	2	12,00
GWC	2	9,50
GD	2	7,00
GADJ	2	3,00
GADV	2	3,25
WO	2	4,75
Total	18	

	ERRORS
Chi-Square	16,144
df	8
Asymp. Sig.	,040

a Kruskal Wallis Test

b Grouping Variable: ERRORTYPE

Figure 7. *The Results Output of Kruskal-Wallis Test*

The computations showed that since the p values were below the significance level of 0,05 ( $p=0,04$ ), there was a significant difference between the error categories ( $X^2(8)=16,144$ ,  $p<0,05$ , Figure 7). A significant difference was found between the errors when using articles and all other types of errors except for verb errors, and similarly between the verb errors and all other error types except articles, meaning that there is no significant difference between articles and verbs. Namely, the frequencies of article use and verb use errors were statistically different from the remaining seven error types.

These findings evidenced that the students in the study produced errors of verb use and principally of article use in statistically higher numbers than those of all other syntactic error categories.

### 4.3. Descriptions of the Frequent Types of Errors in Terms of Surface Structure Taxonomy: Omission, Addition and Misinformation

The four frequent error categories, namely article errors, verb errors, noun errors and pronoun errors, are hereafter defined and described both quantitatively and qualitatively (i.e. explanations on syntactic, semantic and discourse relations for the article category), as the answer to Research Question 3.

For the present analysis, we adopted grammatical definiteness, accepting noun phrases with “*the*” as definite and the ones without “*the*” as indefinite, and Dulay et al.’s (1982) Surface Structure Taxonomy including learners’ modification forms of target language, as; omission, addition and misinformation. Within the scope of this study, we are not interested in other definite noun phrases for example with the demonstrative “*this*”, which is recognized as “inherently definite” (Lyons, 1999, p. 106). Demonstratives formed a part of the category of pronouns (see Table 1 in Section 1.4).

**4.3.1. Article Errors:** Among the errors of article use, the most remarkable finding was that slightly more than half of all the article errors in the learner texts were addition errors (52,8%). A little more than one third of the errors were omission errors (37,3%) and the remaining one tenth were of the misinformation type (9,9%) (Figure 8).

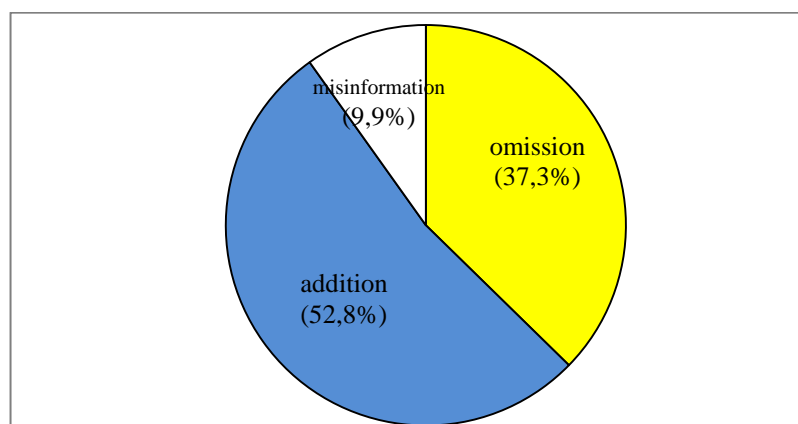


Figure 8. Percentages of Errors According to Parameters at Both Class Levels

The article errors are further analysed according to class level and definiteness in terms of surface structure taxonomy (see Table 6). The term “GA %” on Table 6 refers to the percentages of the errors under the parameters of omission, addition or misinformation in the whole article errors.

Table 6.

*Frequencies and Percentages of Article Errors According to the Parameters*

Parameters	GA											
	<i>the</i>				<i>a</i>				general			
	n	%	total n	GA %	n	%	total n	GA %	year total n	year total %	year total n	GA %
Omission												
Year 1	17	56,7	30	21,1	11	47,8	23	16,2	28	52,8	53	37,3
Year 3	13	43,3			12	52,2			25	47,2		
Addition												
Year 1	32	44,4	72	50,7	2	66,7	3	2,1	34	45,3	75	52,8
Year 3	40	55,6			1	33,3			41	54,7		
Misinformation												
Year 1	2	18,2	11	7,7	2	66,7	3	2,1	4	28,6	14	9,9
Year 3	9	81,8			1	33,3			10	71,4		
total:			113	79,6			29	20,4			142	100

As for the *quantitative* findings regarding article error descriptions, Table 6 presents that omission errors of articles were found in almost similar amounts in Year 1 (52,8%) essays and Year 3 (47,2%) essays. Namely, the class level does not seem to be especially effective in whether the needed articles are omitted or not. Omission of the indefinite article *a* (16,2% of all article errors) was more common than the addition and misinformation of the indefinite article (each 2,1%).

Table 6 also illustrates that the most frequent mode of committing definite article errors was addition of *the* to a noun phrase when it was not required (50,7% of all GA errors). In fact, the rate of the definite article errors (79,6% of all article errors) substantially exceeded the rate of the indefinite article errors (20,4% of all article

errors) on the whole. There were slightly more addition errors present in Year 3 essays (54,7%) than in Year 1 essays (45,3%).

Misinformation errors consisting of the use of the definite article *the* instead of the indefinite article *a* was higher in Year 3 essays. Similar to the finding that “*the*” was commonly used when it was not needed, it was also used in place of the indefinite article “*a*”. As supportive evidence, Ekiert’s (2004) study can be mentioned. She found that those with a low proficiency level did not overuse *the* to a great extent but the unnecessary use of *the* was considerably high by those at the intermediate-level. As an equative finding between the proficiency levels, Butler (2002) found that Japanese students even at the advanced level may well experience problems with determining both hearer knowledge and noun countability for assigning English articles. Most of the misinformation errors (7,7% of all article errors) indicated the misuse of “*the*” rather than “*a*” (2,1% of all article errors).

As for the *qualitative* findings of article errors, the corresponding examples and explanations were introduced from now on.

*4.3.1.1. Omission Errors of Article Use:* The indefinite articles were underused (i.e. omitted) in the essays taken as a whole whereas the definite article was overused (i.e. added) in zero article (namely “the absence of an article” as defined by Close, 1992, p. 28) environments. The common error with the indefinite article, namely the omission of “*a*” from a noun phrase when it was needed, was as in the example below.

(22) *One of them was drunk and he had (GA) 0 \$a\$ girlfriend with him. (1-111 AE)*

The noun “girlfriend” in Example (22) is a countable singular noun which requires the use of an article and this article needs to be the indefinite article *a* according to the sentence context. However, this article was missing in the learner sentence, as was the definite article *the* in the following example.

(23) (GA) 0 *The* Second reason is about (GA) the religion of course. (1-85 AE)

In Example (23), the definite article was needed for signalling that there was a sequence of “reasons” being mentioned in the text. The learner may have left the subject noun phrase without an article possibly due to the corresponding case in his mother tongue. Namely, when such a sequence is mentioned in Turkish, no definiteness marking is used. Therefore, the learner may naturally have left the article slot blank in the example above.

4.3.1.2. *Addition Errors of Article Use:* The widespread addition errors of the definite article occurring in the ELT learners’ essays can be exemplified as in the following learner sentence.

(24) *Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes are (GA) the actions which people should decide on to do or not.* (3-214 AE)

The head noun “actions” in Example (24) do not call for any article preceding it, being a general concept, but the learner preferred to use the definite article, making the noun a definite description. According to Close (1992), the main distinction in the case of definite article additions is “general *versus* particular” whereas the distinction in the case of indefinite article omissions, as it was in Example (22), is “mass *versus* unit”. Consequently, the learners tended to use particular and mass noun phrases in grammatical form in preference to general and unit ones. Close (1992, p. 43) argues that it may be typical for English speakers in general to use “*the*” for “categories of objects in the world outside them”, giving this example stated by educationalists: “*Should moral education be given at school or in the home?*”

The addition of the indefinite article can be exemplified as in Example (25). In this sentence, there is the mass noun “confusion” after the existential *there* construction.

The learner may have attached the indefinite article in this position in the sentence presumably due to the existential construction without realizing the non-count feature of the noun.

(25) ... *thus there is (GA) a \$0\$ confusion among the students in the campus. (1-111 AE)*

4.3.1.3. *Misinformation Errors of Article Use:* Misinformation errors of “*the*” instead of “*a*” in Year 3 learners’ essays were as exemplified below.

(26) *In another point, I can say that a university student is (GA) the \$a\$ person who controls himself and behaves according to every kind of situation. (3-281 AE)*

The noun “person” in Example (26) needed to be made indefinite rather than definite for discourse and semantic reasons (that is, it was newly introduced into the discourse and the referent, which is singular, was not a particular entity).

**4.3.2. Verb Errors:** Verb errors are analysed in this section in terms of omission, addition and misinformation parameters, first quantitatively, and then qualitatively under the corresponding headings.

As for the *quantitative* findings regarding verb errors, Table 7 presents the frequencies and percentages according to the parameters as for the verb errors. The term “GV %” refers to the percentages of the errors under the parameters of omission, addition or misinformation in the whole verb errors.





In general, the verb errors were fully described via the misinformation parameter (89,4% of all verb errors) because of the nature of the verb subcategories. This had the only exception of the auxiliary errors, which also occurred in the omission error form (10,6% of all verb errors). The use of all three parameters together is not possible for the GVN (verb number), GVM (verb morphology), GVNF (verb finite/nonfinite), GVV (verb voice), GVT (verb tense) subcategories. The following examples are offered for illustrating this state of affairs.

	<u>error type</u>	<u>example</u>	<u>text code</u>
(27)	GVN	<i>So, if someone (GVN) want \$wants\$ to drink or smoke, he/she can ...</i>	(1-66 AE)
(28)	GVM	<i>... we can (GVM) spent \$spend\$ a lot on (GPP) it \$them\$ .</i>	(3-222 AE)
(29)	GVNF	<i>... there are many reasons (GVNF) to have \$why they have\$ them.</i>	(3-266 AE)
(30)	GVV	<i>... (GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) also affect \$are also affected\$ negatively.</i>	(1-46 AE)
(31)	GVT	<i>... because they do not know what they (GVT) say \$are saying\$ while talking in a drunken way.</i>	(3-257 AE)

For such errors presented in Examples (27-31) above, it is not a matter of “absence” or “presence” of an item, but “the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure” is what matters only.

The only verb error subcategory with omission errors was the auxiliary comprising 10,6% of all verb errors (Table 7). In this category, the auxiliary verbs, modals and sometimes the main verbs were omitted. The most frequently omitted auxiliaries were *should* and *would* (Table 8) though very infrequently. Most of the auxiliary-type omissions were committed within main clauses (66,7%). The “main clause” presently denotes an independent clause, which stands on its own, whereas a “subordinate clause” is treated as a dependent clause, which cannot stand on its own and needs to be engaged with a main clause.

The auxiliary error frequencies on Table 8 may be better interpreted when an overview of all learner uses of auxiliaries is obtained from the textual data. Using the concordance program, all the occurrences of the modals and their negated forms were reached. A search for the word “*should*” revealed 126 hits. There were again 3 omission errors of “*should*”. A search for “*would*” produced 16 hits and there were 3 omissions of this modal. Individual searches for “*could*” and “*will*” gave only 3 hits and 27 hits respectively and there was one omission error of each of these modals. As a result, it can be argued that the uses of the modal auxiliaries “*should, could, would, will*” seemed to be largely unproblematic on the whole in the present data.

Table 8.

*Frequencies Regarding Omission of Verb Auxiliary and Corresponding Learner Uses at Both Class Levels*

	Total (correct & incorrect) use	
	n	n
<i>do</i>	3	28
<i>should</i>	3	126
<i>would</i>	3	16
<i>could</i>	1	3
<i>will</i>	1	27
<i>main verb</i>	1	-

No addition errors of auxiliaries were detected in the texts. However, misinformation errors comprised 89,4% of all verb errors. *Subject-verb agreement (GVN) errors* were the predominant verb subcategory emerged (Table 7). It consisted of 39,8% of all verb errors. GVN misinformation errors emerged twice more in Year 1 essays than in Year 3 essays. For other error types, the students committed misinformation errors in remarkably similar frequencies at two class levels. GVN errors are defined as “all errors of concord between a subject and its verb” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 23). Table 9 shows that plural verb-singular subject (PVSS) errors, a type of GVN error, such as “*It cause*”, formed the dominant type of all GVN errors (66,7%), especially done by Year 1 students (76,7% of Year 1

students' PVSS errors). Nonetheless, singular verb-plural subject (SVPS) errors, such as “*people who believes*” was not so high (33,3% of all GVN errors). Most of the GVN errors emerged in a main clause (62,2% of all GVN errors) whereas the rest occurred in a subordinate clause (37,8% of all GVN errors) some of which were within a relative clause. GVN errors mostly occurred in the realization of the predicate (i.e. within the verb phrase) in the main and subordinate clauses.

Table 9.

*Frequencies regarding Verb Number*

misinformation	Year 1		Year 3		total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
<u>Plural verb-singular subject</u>	23	76,7	7	46,7	30	66,7
within main clause	14	46,7	5	33,33	19	42,22
within subordinate clause	9	30	2	13,33	11	24,44
<u>Singular verb-plural subject</u>	7	23,3	8	53,3	15	33,3
within main clause	4	13,3	5	33,3	9	20
within subordinate clause	3	10	3	20	6	13,3
<u>total</u>	30	100	15	100	45	100
within main clause	18	60	10	66,7	28	62,2
within subordinate clause	12	40	5	33,3	17	37,8

GVNF errors (finite/non-finite forms, 20,4%, Table 7) followed the high occurrence of GVN (verb number) misinformation errors. GVNF errors mostly emerged within main clauses, as in “*Smoke cigarettes has a bad effect*”. Mostly the errors were within noun phrases, and the remaining were in verb phrase, adjective, adverb and prepositional phrases. Examples for each kind were provided briefly on Table 10 and in full sentence form in the qualitative analyses section afterwards.

Table 10.

*Frequencies Regarding Non-Finite/Finite Verb Forms*

misinformation	Year 1	Year 3	example
	n	n	
Present participle instead of past participle	4	0	naming \$named\$
Relative clause instead of gerund	2	1	who shouts \$shouting\$
Nominal use of bare infinitive	5	6	Smoke \$Smoking\$ cigarettes
Nominal use of to-infinitive	1	0	to leave \$leaving\$
Present participle instead of to-infinitive	0	1	for being \$to be\$
to- infinitive instead of relative clause	0	1	to have \$why they have\$
Nominal use of finite verb ins. of gerund	0	1	sells \$selling\$
Relative clause instead of to-infinitive	1	0	that they choose \$to choose\$
Total	13	10	

*Verb tense (GVT) errors* concerning verb tense use cover 16,8% of all verb errors in the data (Table 7). As Table 11 illustrates, the verb tense errors seem to vary across several tenses in English. However, the misuse of the Present Simple occurred much more than all other tense errors.

Table 11.

*Frequencies Regarding Verb Tense*

misinformation	Year 1	Year 3
	n	n
Future for Simple Past	2	0
Past Perfect for Present Perfect	0	1
Present Continuous for Simple	0	1
Present Perfect for Simple	1	0
Present Simple for Continuous	0	3
Present Simple for Present Perfect	1	0
Present Simple for Present Perfect Continuous	0	2
Present Simple for Simple Past (unreal)	4	0
Simple Past for Past Perfect	0	1
Simple Past for Present Perfect	0	2
Simple Past for Present Simple	1	0

GVAUX (auxiliary), GVV (verb voice) and GVM (verb morphology) errors were quite infrequent, consisting of respectively 6,2%, 5,3% and 0,9% of all verb errors (Table 7). Table 12 below lists the *GVAUX errors* of misinformation of at two class levels, which were generally different in Year 1 texts and in Year 3 texts.

Comparing the amounts of errors and all the learner uses of modal auxiliaries in the texts revealed that a search for “*can*” yielded 108 hits, but there were only 2 misinformation errors, with the corrected modal of “*should*”. A search for “*may*” yielded 30 hits, none of which was erroneous. There was only one misinformation error of “*could*” corrected as “*may*”. However, there was a single misinformation case of “*could*”. A search for “*may*” singly gave 24 hits, and “*might*” gave 6 hits. What can be concluded from all these modal auxiliary use frequencies is that the uses of the modal auxiliaries “*can, could, will, would, may, might*” seemed to be largely unproblematic on the whole in the present data.

Table 12.

*Frequencies Regarding Misinformation of Verb Auxiliary and  
Corresponding Learner Uses at Both Class Levels*

	n		Total (correct & incorrect) use n
<i>be for are</i>	1	<i>be</i>	103
<i>can for should</i>	2	<i>can</i>	108
<i>is for does</i>	1	<i>is</i>	134
<i>will for would</i>	2	<i>will/would</i>	43
<i>could for may</i>	1	<i>may/might</i>	30

Table 13 reveals that *verb voice (GVV) errors* concerning verb voice hardly emerged in the texts, a little more in Year 1 essays. There was only one case of *verb morphology (GVM) errors* in the data, which occurred in a third year student’s essay. It is provided in the next section of qualitative findings.

Table 13.

*Frequencies Regarding Verb Voice*

	Year 1	Year 3
	n	n
<hr/>		
misinformation		
Active instead of passive	3	1
Passive instead of active	1	1
<hr/>		
total	4	2
<hr/>		

As for the *qualitative* findings of verb errors, the corresponding examples and explanations were introduced from now on.

4.3.2.1. *Omission Errors of Verb Use*: The omission errors of verb use were only seen with the GVAUX (auxiliary) subcategory of verb errors. The following examples of learner sentences are presented as an illustration of omission errors of auxiliary use.

(32) *I ask myself and everybody this question: “Then, why (GVAUX) 0 \$do\$ people use these or why are these allowed to (GVV) use \$be used\$?” (3-225 AE)*

Example (32) above represents the omission of the auxiliary verb “do” in an interrogative sentence in the simple present tense. It is noticeable that the learner used the auxiliary “are” by fronting it to the correct position in the second part of the question after the conjunction “or”. Here is another example with a modal omission error.

(33) *Because one of his friends drank alcohol and went to (GA) the \$0\$ school. And may be he (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ make this as a behaviour. (3-262 AE)*

Example (33) involves the omission of the modal “would”, in accordance with the native speaker correction.

4.3.2.2. *Misinformation Errors of Verb Use*: The misinformation errors of verb use were seen with all the six subcategories of verb errors. On the basis of their frequency rates, they will be explained hereafter with their corresponding examples from the data in the order of GVN (verb number), GVNF (verb finite/nonfinite), GVT (verb tense), GVAUX (auxiliary), GVV (verb voice), and GVM (verb morphology).

GVN (subject-verb agreement) errors emerged in the form of PVSS (plural verb-singular subject) errors and of SVPS (singular verb-plural subject) errors. Each is now exemplified below.

Plural verb-singular subject: The students generally used the verb forms which accord with a plural subject whereas the subject was in the singular form. These cases include “are” and “have” as the main verb or the helping verb, as well as other verbs like “use”. Here are the relevant examples to PVSS type of GVN errors, with their explanations:

(34) *First, if a student (GVN) drink \$drinks\$ alcohol or (GVN) smoke \$smokes\$ cigarettes, he/she can die much (GADJCS) more earlier \$earlier\$. (1-105 AE)*

The main verbs “drink” and “smoke” in Example (34) lacks agreement with the singular subject “a student”. This is for the reason that, agreement of third person number between subject and verb in English requires a singular verb for a singular subject (e.g. Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990, p. 214).

(35) *Even in school, in university, we see someone who (GVN) use \$uses\$ them openly. (1-52 AE)*

(36) *Because everyone in this country (GVN) are \$is\$ living in freedom. (1-66 AE)*

In Example (35) above, the restrictive adjective clause which qualifies the indefinite pronoun “someone” includes the verb “use” in the plural form erroneously. Apparently, the learner might have meant the plural noun phrase “some people” instead of the singular “someone” in this context. Example (36) also contains a similar error, but this time with the subject pronoun “everyone”. These two examples suggest that the use of English indefinite pronouns such as *someone* and *everyone* may not yet have been mastered predominantly by the first year students.

Singular verb-plural subject: The students occasionally used the verb forms which accord with a singular subject whereas the subject was in the plural form. These cases include the verbs “is”, “has” and various others. SVPS cases are exemplified as follows.

(37) *Because of people who (GVN) smokes \$smoke\$, (GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) also affect \$are also affected\$ negatively. (1-46 AE)*

The verb “smokes” in the restrictive adjective clause is not in agreement with the plural subject “people” whereas a plural verb is required for a plural subject. It is noted in this example sentence that the main verb “affect” in the main clause agrees with the subject “we”, although it needs to be in the passive voice.

Other examples in the learner texts were similar to the following instance:

(38) *Those bad things (GVN) becomes \$become\$ to be regarded as necessary and good things. (3-294 AE)*

This sentence from a third year student’s essay also holds a SVPS error since the verb “becomes” should be used without the suffix *-s* in order to agree with the subject noun phrase “those bad things”, where the head noun is plural.



GVNF errors, defined as “involving non-finite/finite verb forms” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 24), are exemplified and explained as follows.

Present participle instead of past participle: Example (39) illustrates that the noun phrase “a big shopping market” was modified by a relative clause reduced into a present participle phrase. However, the reduced phrase is actually formed out of a relative clause which contains a passive form of a verb, namely “which/that is named Migros”. Such a relative clause needs to be reduced by deleting the relative pronoun and the auxiliary verb “be”, thus forming a past participle.

(39) *For example; in the campus of Anadolu University, there is a big shopping market (GVNF) naming \$named\$ Migros. (1-87 AE)*

Relative Clause instead of gerund: In Example (40), an existential *there*-construction includes the noun “objection” which was followed by a noun clause with a subordinator whereas it should have been followed by *to* plus the possessive pronoun and the gerund forms of the verbs “drink” and “smoke” as the objects of the preposition “to”.

(40) *In this case, there is not any objection (GVNF) that they drink \$to their drinking\$ alcoholic drinks and (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes. (1-83 AE)*

In Example (41), there are two independent sentences with a comma and the adverb “then” between them. However, adverbs do not combine independent sentences in English, as the coordinating conjunctions *and* and *but* do. Though, it is possible to continue the first sentence by reducing the second into a gerund phrase.

(41) *Secondly, (GWC) drunk \$drunken\$ students will participate in courses maybe in discussions, then (GVNF) they can effect \$thereby affecting\$ the fluency of the lesson. (3-222 AE)*

Nominal use of bare infinitive instead of gerund: In English, bare infinitives are not used as nouns, but gerunds are. In Example (42), there are two bare infinitives in the subject position of the subordinated sentence following “that” while they should have been in gerund form.

- (42) *As everyone (GVN) know \$knows\$ that (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ and (GVNF) drink \$drinking\$ alcohol are harmful to (GNC) health of us \$our health\$. (1-66 AE)*

To-infinitive instead of present participle: Example (43) contains “to smoke” after the affirmative use of the main verb “think”. Nonetheless, this verb is not followed by a *to*-infinitive unless it is used as “not think to do sth” to mean “to not consider doing something, especially when you later wish you had done it” (LDCE). The *to*-infinitive should have been replaced by the present participle form of the verb as an adverbial phrase with the subordinating conjunction “before”.

- (43) *So, these people should think twice (GVNF) to smoke \$before smoking\$. (1-85 AE)*

Present participle instead of to-infinitive: Example (44) includes the present participle “saving” whereas it should have been in *to*-infinitive form because the construction needs to be “useful to do something”. It also seems equally possible that “saving” was meant to follow the part “help them”, as in the initial GVNF error in the same sentence, but then the correct form still should have been a different form than the present participle; it needed to be a bare infinitive.

- (44) *So this precaution is not useful to help them (GVNF) being non-addictive \$abstain\$ or (GVNF) saving \$to save\$ other young people from being addictive. (3-260 AE)*

To-infinitive instead of relative clause: Example (45) contains the head noun “reasons” followed by the modifying verb “to have” and the object pronoun “them”.

The relative clause “why they have them” was offered as the correct or more possible form by the native speaker corrector on the basis of the context in the essay.

- (45) *According to (GDI) many of \$many\$ people who have bad habits there are many reasons (GVNF) to have \$why they have\$ them. (3-266 AE)*

Nominal use of finite verb instead of gerund: In Example (46), the finite verb “sells” was employed as a noun. However, the correct form is a gerund, “the selling”, preceded by “due to”<sup>7</sup> to form a meaningful complete sentence.

- (46) *But at some points, the (GVNF) sells \$selling\$ of alcoholic drinks and (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes, many students face some problems. (3-281 AE)*

Relative clause instead of to-infinitive: In Example (47), the noun “a right” should have been followed by a *to*-infinitive rather than a relative clause because the former modifies the noun while the latter selects the noun as its object, which is not the case in this sentence context.

- (47) *Everybody has (GA) 0 \$a\$ right (GVNF) that they choose \$to choose\$ whatever they want. (1-58 AE)*

GVT (verb tense) errors comprise “any misuse of tense or aspect” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 25). Here are presented the GVT examples from the texts.

Future for Simple Past: In Example (48), the auxiliary “would” was used with a bare form of the passive verb after it whereas the verb needed to be in the past tense in accordance with the first part of the sentence containing “would”.

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<sup>7</sup> In the tagged sentence Example (46), the native speaker’s corrective addition “due to” is not present since it was regarded as a lexical error and lexical errors were not tagged in the present study.

- (48) *Secondly, (GA) the \$0\$ people in the campus would care about themselves, if it (GVT) is \$was\$ feared that their health (GVT) **would be \$was\$** threatened. (1-80 AE)*

Past Perfect for Present Perfect: The verb tense of the relative adverb clause with the subordinator “why” in Example (49) was the past perfect while it was necessary to employ the present perfect tense because the activity takes place at the same time as the one in the main clause of the cleft sentence, but not before a past activity or event, a case which calls for the use of past perfect tense.

- (49) *It has been often a wonder to me for many years why man (GVT) **had produced \$has produced\$** alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. (3-225 AE)*

Present Continuous for Simple: In Example (50), the main verb after the modal “should” was formed in the present continuous tense as “be thinking” while it would be appropriate to use the present simple only, as “think”.

- (50) *They should (GVT) **be thinking \$think\$** that if they drink alcoholic (GNN) drink \$drinks\$, they will give harm... (3-214 AE)*

Present Perfect for Simple: The sentence in Example (51) was built in the present tense and therefore the tense of the verb in the relative clause modifying “the young” (which was corrected as “youngsters”) also needs to be in the present tense as “drink” in order to establish the tense agreement.

- (51) *When we think the possible problems, we can say that (GA) the \$0\$ young who (GVT) **drunk \$drink\$<sup>8</sup>** extensively can fight with other students or (GPP) he \$they\$ can even cause someone else’s death. (1-75 AE)*

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<sup>8</sup> This error also conforms to GVM and GVNF error categories. Only one is chosen here for convenience.

Present Simple for Continuous: In Example (52), the object relative clause after the verb “know” was used in the simple present while it should have been in the present continuous because the progressive form expresses the continuous nature of the action.

(52) *they may cause problems for teachers while talking under the influence of alcohol because they do not know what they (GVT) say \$are saying\$ while talking in a drunken way. (3-257 AE)*

Present Simple for Present Perfect: The main verb “give” in Example (53) was produced in the present simple tense, but another sentence was combined to the first with “and” and it is in the perfective aspect. Therefore, the verb “give” also needs to be in the present perfect tense for cohesion.

(53) *The government (GVN) give \$gives\$ (GVT) give \$has given\$ permission to the producers in order to produce harmful substances and at the same time the government (GVN) have \$has\$ been trying to take (GNN) precaution \$precautions\$ (GDO) it's \$their\$ consumption... (1-58 AE)*

Present Simple for Present Perfect Continuous: The two main verbs “drink” and “smoke” in Example (54) was used in the present simple, but the use of the adverb “recently” entails the use of a perfect tense with the main verb in English.

(54) *Recently many young people (GVT) drink \$have been drinking\$ alcoholic drinks and (GVT) smoke \$smoking\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. (3-260 AE)*

Present Simple for Simple Past (unreal): In Example (55), the *if*-clause was used in the present simple whereas it needs to be in the simple past in order to be in harmony with the auxiliary “would” in the main sentence.

(55) *Secondly, students who want to buy alcoholic drinks would buy alcoholic drinks outside if there (GVT) isn't \$was\$ a place where cigarettes and alcoholic drinks aren't sold. (1-106 AE)*

Simple Past for Past Perfect: In Example (56), the order of events was confused due to the wrong tense choice with “began”. This verb needs to be in the past perfect so as to express that it had happened (i.e. the concert had begun) before the past event of “drinking”.

(56) *The difference is that they had drunk before the concert began instead of drinking after the concert (GVT) began \$had begun\$. (3-244 AE)*

Simple Past for Present Perfect: The tense of the verb “destroy” in the subordinate clause should have been used in the present perfect tense in order to express a generalization, but not an event in the past.

(57) *I have always cursed them, because these harmful substances (GVT) destroyed \$have destroyed\$ many people's lives. (3-225 AE)*

Simple Past for Present Simple: The indefinite pronoun “noone” (i.e. “no one/no-one”) in Example (58) entails the use of present simple so as to be in agreement with the context and the other verb “assume” in the sentence.

(58) *Also they assume that of is there (GVN) were \$was\$ (GVT) were \$is\$ noone apart from themselves so, they can do whatever they want. (1-111 AE)*

*GVAUX (auxiliary) errors* are exemplified in Example (59) below. The modal verb “should”, which expresses obligation and logical necessity, was to be preferred in this sentence rather than “can”, which expresses ability, theoretical possibility or permission.

(59) *When people who are drinking alcohol disturb others in campus and give harm to the environment so there (GVAUX) can \$should\$ be some restrictions. (1-51 AE)*

*GVV errors* embrace “all errors where there is confusion of the passive and active voice” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 25). Example (60) is provided to illustrate verb voice errors. The main verb “affect” in the main sentence needs to be in the passive form because the pronoun “we” in the subject position is not the doer of the action but the object constituent.

(60) *Because of people who (GVN) smokes \$smoke\$ , (GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) also affect \$are also affected\$ negatively. (1-46 AE)*

*GVM errors* comprise “erroneous uses of existing verb forms” (Dagneaux et al., 2005, p. 24). The data consisted of only one instance of this category, which is introduced in Example (61).

(61) *Even if we know the harms of these things, we can (GVM) spent \$spend\$ a lot on (GPP) it \$them\$. (3-222 AE)*

The main verb of the sentence was preceded by the modal “can” and therefore was supposed to be in the bare infinitive form whereas it was used in the past participle form in the learner sentence.

**4.3.3. Noun Errors:** Noun errors are analysed in this section in terms of omission, addition and misinformation parameters, first quantitatively, and then qualitatively, with relevant examples and explanations.

With respect to the *quantitative* findings regarding noun errors, omission errors were considerably high (82,7% of all GN errors, Table 14).

*GNC (noun case) errors*, namely the incorrect uses of the saxon genitive, were commonly infrequent across the three parameters, as revealed on Table 14. Of the GNC errors, 77,8% clustered on the addition of the genitive. Nevertheless, *GNN (noun number) errors*, which refer to the omission or addition of the plural morpheme, were plentiful particularly in the form of omission of the plural morpheme (92,4%).

Table 14.

*Frequencies and Percentages of Noun Errors According to the Parameters*

Parameters	GN									
	GNC				GNN				general	
	total		parameter		total		parameter		total	parameter
	n	n	%	%	n	n	%	%	n	%
omission										
Year 1	1	1	11,1	1,6	24	61	92,4	98,4	62	82,7
Year 3	0				37					
addition										
Year 1	6	7	77,8	58,3	2	5	7,6	41,7	12	16
Year 3	1				3					
misinformation										
Year 1	0	1	11,1	100	0	0	0	0	1	1,3
Year 3	1				0					
total		9	100			66	100		75	100

For the *qualitative* analyses of the noun errors, the following examples are provided along with their explanations.

*4.3.3.1. Omission Errors of Noun Use:* For GNC (noun case) errors, the only instance of the omission of the genitive marker was presented in Example (62) below. In this example, the possessive 's, which would signify that the “habits” belonged to the “students”, was not added after the noun “students”. For such small formal details, the handwritten texts were carefully examined not to overlook any relevant issues.



(62) *Another reason can be that, we can not change (GNC) students \$students'\$ habits in the university. (1-87 AE)*

For GNN (noun number) errors, omission of the plural morpheme is exemplified below. Here, the noun “disease” was used in the singular form whereas it should have been in the plural form due to the preceding pronoun “lots of”, which inherently necessitates a plural noun after it.

(63) *It (GVN) cause \$causes\$ lots of (GNN) disease \$diseases\$ and it gives harm people who do not smoke. (1-46 AE)*

4.3.3.2. *Addition Errors of Noun Use:* Addition errors of GNC (noun case) category are exemplified below. In Example (64), there are two GNC addition errors. The first includes *of*-construction instead of the possessive pronoun. The *of*-construction is preferred in order to emphasize the last part of the phrase, but this is apparently not required in the context of this sentence. The second GNC error comprises the possessive inflectional ending in “young’s” although it was not required.

(64) *Even if we know the rules and all of us know (GNC) the harms of them \$their harms\$, we overlook our (GNC) young's \$young\$ being poisoned by them. (1-52 AE)*

The addition cases of GNN (noun number) errors are exemplified in Example (65). The noun phrase “university students” were to be in the singular form, without the plural suffix *-s*, because of the determiner “every”, which is always followed by a singular countable noun in English.

(65) *Moreover, I think that smoking cigarettes must be allowed to every university (GNN) students \$student\$ and there are not only strange situations. (1-83 AE)*

4.3.3.3. *Misinformation Errors of Noun Use:* The single misinformation error of GNC (noun case) errors occurred in a Year 3 essay, as provided below. Here, rather than the *of*-construction, the genitive inflection was needed since it was not necessary to emphasize the noun “people” according to the context of the essay.

(66) *We know that these things are harmful for (GNC) **the health of people** \$people's health\$ ... (3-229 AE)*

Now that we presented the analyses regarding noun errors, we turn to the last frequent error category, the pronoun errors, which surfaced in the present learner corpus.

**4.3.4. Pronoun Errors:** In this section, the analyses concerning the pronoun errors are presented in terms of omission, addition and misinformation parameters, first quantitatively, and then qualitatively accompanied by examples from the data.

Pronoun errors emerged in moderate but disproportionate amounts, and mostly in the form of unclear reference (GPU, 36,8% of all GP errors, Table 15) and personal pronouns (GPP, 29,8% of all GP errors). Misinformation errors, which comprised 89,5% of all pronoun errors and made especially by the first year students, surpassed omission and addition errors.

4.3.4.1. *Omission Errors of Pronoun Use:* Both of the omission cases of GPD (demonstrative pronoun) errors are introduced within Example (67) below. In both of these errors, the “two parts” of students are referred to. Therefore, we need to refer to them by using the demonstrative pronoun “those”, which is a deictic expression, before the relative clauses defining the student groups.

(67) *The moment this subject is in (GA) 0 \$the\$ agenda, the students are separated two parts as (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who use them and (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who (GVAUX) 0 \$do\$ not use them. (1-52 AE)*



Omission of the GPP (personal pronoun) errors is exemplified below. In Example (68), the verb “allow” requires an object complement following it, which was to be “them” in this sentence.

(68) *Therefore (GPI) anybody doesn't decide \$nobody decides\$ to allow (GPP) 0 \$them\$ or not. (1-58 AE)*

4.3.4.2. *Addition Errors of Pronoun Use:* The only case of GPP (personal pronoun) addition error is provided below. The need for removing the personal pronoun “they” in Example (69a) stems from the need to use a conjunction between the two sentences, as in the native speaker correction in (69b).

(69)

- a. *if selling and drinking alcoholic drinks be allowed in campus, Students can fight and quarrel, **they** can perform unpleasant behaviour with the effect of alcohol. (1-46 AE)*
- b. *If the sale and consumption of alcoholic drinks is allowed on campus, students may fight and quarrel, **and** behave badly in other ways under the effects of alcohol.*

4.3.4.3. *Misinformation Errors of Pronoun Use:* An example of a misinformation case of GPD (demonstrative pronoun) errors is presented below. Use of the pronoun “that” in Example (70) seems to be closer to the spoken discourse rather than written within the context of the sentence.

(70) *My second reason for (GPD) **that** \$this\$ is that they shouldn't be bad models to people if they are university students. (3-187 AE)*

The GPP (personal pronoun) misinformation errors are exemplified below. The previous sentence of the sentence containing the GPP error was also provided for the reader to detect the referent of the pronoun used after the verb “use”. The referent is

alcoholic drinks and cigarettes, and thus needs to be in the plural form as “them” in the subsequent sentence.

(71) *Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ are harmless according to university students because of their relaxing and enjoyable effects. People use (GPP) it \$them\$ and they relax. (1-58 AE)*

GPI (indefinite pronoun) errors only comprised misinformation errors, and they are exemplified below. Here, the indefinite pronoun “anybody” is followed by a negative construction. However, the correct version is formed by simply using “nobody” with an affirmative verb.

(72) *Therefore (GPI) anybody doesn't decide \$nobody decides\$ to allow (GPP) 0 \$them\$ or not. (1-58 AE)*

The case of GPF (reflexive/reciprocal pronoun) errors occurred only once as follows. The reflexive pronoun “themselves” in Example (73) was written as “theirselves”, apparently combining the reflexivity plural person suffix *-selves* with the possessive adjective “their”.

(73) *Upon this they can decide on to give harm (GPF) theirselves \$themselves\$ or stay undamaged. (3-214 AE)*

GPR (Relative/ Interrogative pronoun) errors are also of misinformation type in the data. Example (74) includes the subordinator “that”, which is used with adjective clauses to modify people and things. Nonetheless, the noun phrase being modified, namely “a public place”, is not the object of the modifying clause, and therefore it necessitates the use of “where”, which is used to modify a place.

(74) *(GA) 0 \$A\$ Campus is a public place (GPR) that \$where\$ everyone has the same rights. (1-56 AE)*

Finally, GPU (unclear pronominal reference) errors are also deemed as misinformation errors, as exemplified below. The previous sentence was also added before the sentence so that the referent of “they” can be inferred. It seems that this personal pronoun was used to mean “such people” in general who do the actions mentioned in the previous sentence, but since there is no previous mention of this generalizing noun, it is not possible to refer to it with a pronoun.

(75) *Sometimes (GPU) he \$a person\$ can't find money for alchocol or (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ and he can steal something and he makes himself miserable in front of everyone. (GPU) **They** \$Such people\$ become away from people in time and can't connect with them. (1-75 AE)*

As it was indicated at the beginning of this chapter, the errors of article use represented the greatest error category the present data. Therefore, article errors are hereafter detailed and illustrated by pertinent examples from the data.

#### **4.4. Environmental Descriptions of Article Errors**

For discovering the environmental patterns in the errors emerged, in response to Research Question 4, the article errors in the data were examined at three levels: syntactic level, semantic level and discourse level. At the syntactic level, the focus with erroneous noun phrases was on the grammatical category of number (i.e. countability) and on the noun phrases in existential and copulative constructions in specific where article errors appeared, as well as their associated definiteness features of being [+definite]. As a simplistic definition, articles are the initial part of noun phrases, appearing right before a noun, an adjective or a combination of adverb, adjective and noun (e.g. Parrott, 2000, p. 46). We can observe different environments for the presence and absence of an article in a noun phrase more clearly from Table 16 from Brinton (2000).

Table 16 demonstrates that a noun phrase can stand alone as a plural noun, a pronoun or a proper noun. Otherwise, it needs to have an article under certain conditions, as

in the plural form with or without a preceding adjective or adjective phrase and/or a following prepositional phrase.

Table 16.

*Expansions of Noun Phrase<sup>9</sup>*

NP →	N	<i>dogs</i>
	Det N	<i>the dogs</i>
	Det A N	<i>the large dogs</i>
	Det AP N	<i>the loudly barking dogs</i>
	Det N PP	<i>the dog in the yard</i>
	Det A N PP	<i>the ferocious dog behind the fence</i>
	Det AP N PP	<i>the wildly yapping dog on the sofa</i>
	Pro	<i>He</i>
	PN	<i>Goldy</i>

At the semantic level, the focus was on specificity, genericity and uniqueness features of the noun phrases. The discourse-level analyses examined the discourse features of the noun phrases adopting the familiarity taxonomy of Prince (1981, 1992), such as Brand-new and Inferrable.

The analyses were performed by the present researcher. The semantic-level and discourse-level analyses were also realized independently by a colleague with a PhD degree in the English Language Teaching field. Prior to independent analyses, the researcher and the colleague collaboratively overviewed the definitions, explanations and examples from the related literature as regards to the semantic-level and discourse-level analyses of the errors in the texts. Subsequently, they analyzed a group of errors again in collaboration. Finally, independent analyses were performed on the unanalyzed one third of all the errors in the data. The two independent analyses were compared and the results were found to be compatible on the whole,

<sup>9</sup> (Adopted from Brinton, 2000, p. 170) NP: noun phrase, N: noun, Det: determiner (including articles), A: adjective, AP: adjective phrase, PP: prepositional phrase, Pro: pronoun, PN: proper noun.

and 100% consistent for the semantic-level analyses. The minute differences in the discourse-level analyses of the two coders did not seem to be irreconcilable; full agreement was ensured with further negotiations on the analyses.

**4.4.1. Syntactic Level:** This section presents an account of the relations between the learners' errors of article use and countability of the noun phrases alongside which article errors occur, and two other constructions which create indefinite environments in English: existential and copulative constructions.

*4.4.1.1. Article Use and Countability:* The errors of article use were examined on the basis of countability of the immediate noun phrases they are in relation with. The analysis is carried out under three categories of [+singular] for singular count nouns, [+plural] for plural count nouns and [-singular] for mass nouns. A general look at the percentages pertaining to each of them indicated that the errors mostly emerged with count (singular and plural) nouns rather than mass nouns (Figure 9).

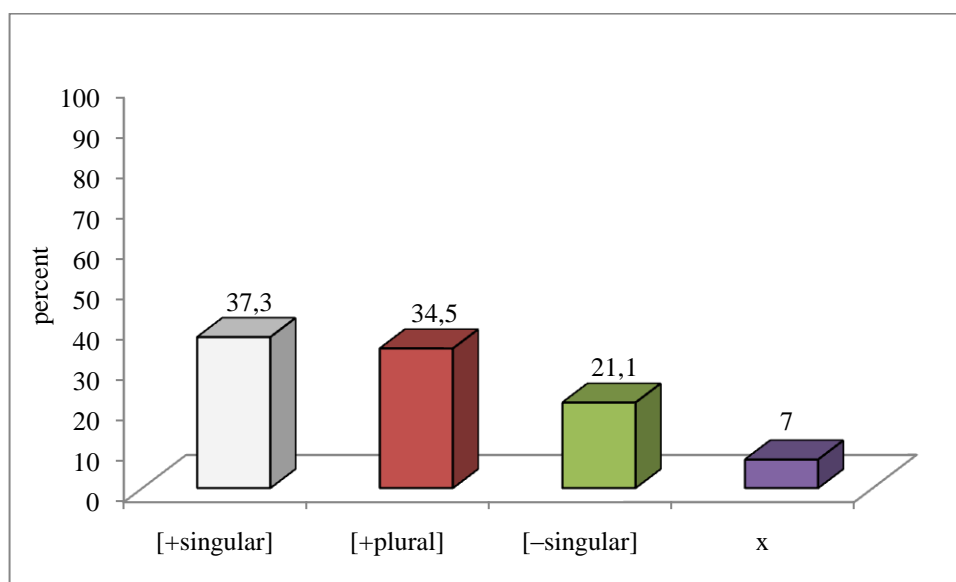


Figure 9. *Countability of the Noun Phrases with which Article Errors Occurred*

A small group (7%) of noun phrases (marked as “x” on Figure 9) was not included in the analysis since their head nouns were not used correctly as in Example (76) below, where “selling”, a gerund, is actually corrected as “sale”, a countable noun, by the



native speaker corrector. Similarly, in Example (77), we notice that “meadows”, a plural noun, is corrected as “on the grass”, which is a prepositional phrase.

(76) *For example; (GA) 0 \$the\$ selling of cigarettes and alcoholic drinks should be in limited times, maybe in the evening. (1-87 AE)*

(77) *They sit down (GA) 0 \$the\$ meadows, they drink their bears and then they go for their homes. (3-262 AE)*

Within this small group comprising 7% of article errors, there are 8 addition error cases where the noun phrase cannot be categorized in terms of countability. Half of these cover the noun phrases which are in the singular form but which are corrected as their plural forms or as another lexical item in the plural form (“youngsters” for “the young” in the essay 1-75 AE, “cigarettes” for “cigarette” in 3-257 AE and “finances” for “the economical condition” and the following example in 3-292 AE). Example (78) represents such a situation.

(78) *I think (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) university campus \$universities\$ shouldn't let them to be sold in its area. (3-292 AE)*

The remaining uncategorized cases in terms of countability were listed as below.

<i>learner use</i>	<i>native speaker correction</i>	<i>text code</i>
the drinkings	drinks	(1-52 AE)
the harmful effect of outside	harmful effects that may be caused outside	(1-58 AE)
the opposite	opposite	(3-244 AE)
the drinking alcohol	drinking alcohol	(3-310 AE)

The uncategorized instances given above include; the learner use of a present participle in the plural form as a noun (*the drinkings* in 1-52 AE), an adjective phrase (*the harmful effect* in 1-58 AE), a preposition as a noun (*the opposite* in 3-244 AE), and a present participle as an adjective (*the drinking alcohol* in 3-310 AE). The erroneous parts were either corrected as a plural noun phrase (*drinks* in 1-52 AE and *harmful effects* in 1-58 AE) or not corrected as another form of a noun phrase (in 3-

244 AE and 3-310 AE). Example (79) illustrates the former case of correction in the plural form and (80) the latter case of not correcting as another form of a noun phrase:

(79) *Even though (GDI) all \$any\$ defencence we don't want to see smoke or the bottles of (GA) **the** \$0\$ alcoholic (GVNF) drinkings \$drinks\$ in our university campüs. (1-52 AE)*

(80) *Because of the prohibition, lots of students were drinking alcoholic drinks just (GA) **the** \$0\$ opposite of the entrance of the 2 Eylül campus by ignoring the security guards. (3-244 AE)*

Results concerning each of the categories of singular, plural and mass noun phrases are explained under the parameters of omission, addition and misinformation types of errors, which are presently turned to.

As for the *omissions*, Figure 10 demonstrates that especially in [+singular] noun phrases “*the*” and “*a/an*” were widely omitted (28,9% of all 142 errors).

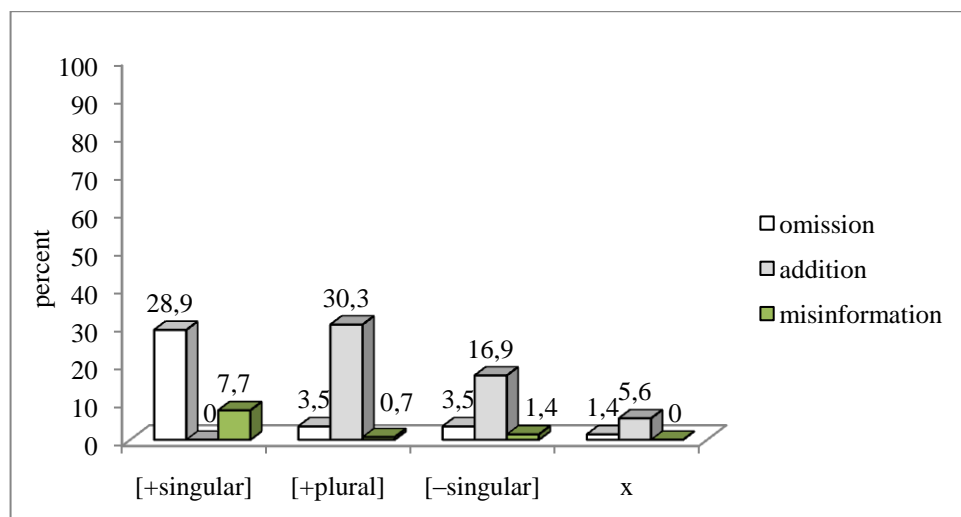


Figure 10. *Countability of the Noun Phrases with which Omission, Addition and Misinformation Article Errors Occurred*

In Example (81) below, the indefinite article “a” was omitted.

- (81) *One of them was drunk and he had (GA) 0 \$a\$ girlfriend with him. (1-111 AE) [+singular]*

The example above contains the singular noun “girlfriend” with no article accompanied whereas it needs to take “a”<sup>10</sup>. Slightly more than half of the article omission errors needed to take “the” for the corresponding noun phrases (n=30, Table 17), more than half of which were [+singular] (n=18). The definite article was omitted mostly in Subject noun phrases. Most of the definite and indefinite article errors occurred in a main clause.

Example (82) below is provided to illustrate a case where the definite article “the” was omitted in a [+plural] noun phrase. The noun phrase “packets” in this example calls for the definite article according to the context because it refers to a particular entity in association with “cigarettes”.

- (82) *Second, in the campus, students use alcohol and cigarettes and they throw away (GA) 0 \$the\$ packets or bottles to the environment. (1-111 AE) [+plural]*
- (83) *... because they are allowed to smoke in (GA) 0 \$the\$ open air. (1-56 AE) [-singular]*

In Example (83) above, the article “the” was omitted in a mass [-singular] noun phrase. There were 15 types and 31 tokens of such mass noun phrases with article errors in the data. Six of these types comprised 71% of all mass head nouns with errors. They were “*university, air, society, alcohol* (with three different spellings), *school,*” and *freedom*”.

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<sup>10</sup> So as to enable the reader to examine all the relations within context, all the learner essays are provided in Appendix I.

Table 17.

*Countability Features of Article Errors According to the Parameters*

article	countability	omission				addition				misinformation				general	
		n	parameter %	total n	GA %	n	parameter %	total n	GA %	n	parameter %	total n	GA %	total n	GA %
<i>the</i>	[+singular]	18	34			0	0			8	57,1			26	18,3
	[+plural]	5	9,4	30	21,1	43	57,3	72	50,7	1	7,1	11	7,75	49	34,5
	[-singular]	5	9,4			21	28			2	14,3			28	19,7
	x	2	3,8			8	10,7			0	0			10	7
<i>a</i>	[+singular]	23	43,4			0	0			3	21,4			26	18,3
	[+plural]	0	0	23	16,2	0	0	3	2,1	0	0	3	2,11	0	0
	[-singular]	0	0			3	4			0	0			3	2,1
	total	53	100	53	37,3	75	100	75	52,8	14	100	14	9,86	142	100

The remaining mass noun types with errors occurred only once in the data. Conducting a word search for all 31 mass nouns through all the texts via the concordancer, their frequencies were obtained. It was found that the head nouns *air* and *society* each occurred five times and four of each contained an article error. The remaining one correct use for each emerged in a different text than the erroneous ones. The four erroneous cases of *air* emerged in two Year 1 texts (1-46 AE and 1-56 AE), two in each. Similarly, the four erroneous cases of *society* occurred in two texts (3-225 AE and 3-266 AE), one in one text and three in the other. The erroneous uses of another mass head noun *school* surfaced three times out of eight uses in six texts. The uses of the remaining nine mass head nouns did not seem problematical.

As Figure 10 displays, there are 2 omission cases (1,4% of all errors) which cannot be classified as count or noncount in the original learner use (marked as “x” on Figure 10).

On the other hand, as for **addition errors**, the articles “*the*” and “*a/an*” were used unnecessarily in the plural count [+plural] noun phrases (*the*, 57,3% of all addition errors, Table 17) and [-singular] mass noun phrases (*the* 28% plus *a*, 4% of all addition errors). As it is the case in Example (84), both “universities” and “students” take “*the*” in the learner text for meaning to express general suggestions:

(84) *In (GA) the \$0\$ universities, this information should be told to (GA) the \$0\$ students. (1-66 AE) [+plural]*

Similarly, the noun “freedom” in the example below is used with “*the*” but it is again a general concept which does not call for definiteness.

(85) *In this subject, it should be allowed to sell alcoholic drinks and cigarettes because of (GA) the \$0\$ freedom in the campus. (1-106 AE) [-singular]*

The noun phrases with an error of addition of the definite article commonly appeared in main clauses, and mostly had either the subject/subject attribute, or object/object

attribute functions. The case with the indefinite article is again emerging in main clauses but in the adverbial function. As Figure 10 displays, there are 8 addition cases (5,6% of all errors) which cannot be classified as count or noncount in the original learner use.

Singular noun phrases comprised the majority of article *misinformation errors* (*the* 57,1% plus *a* 21,4% of all misinformation errors, Table 17). Our choice of articles is stated to depend on the kind of the following noun; “*a/an*” is used for introducing something new whereas “*the*” is used for referring to “common ground” (e.g. Parrott, 2000, p. 46). More commonly with singular noun phrases the learners misused “*the*” for “*a*” or less likely another determiner like “*some*”. Also they misused “*a*” for “*an*”, or vice versa, or “*a*” for “*the*” or another determiner. Most of the misinformation errors indicate the misuse of “*the*” rather than “*a*”, as in the following example.

(86) *So (GA) the \$a\$ ban on selling them in the campus would be useless. (1-80 AE) [+singular]*

In this example sentence, the noun “ban” could do with “*a*” rather than “*the*”, but the fact that the noun is defined by the prepositional phrase “on selling them” might have motivated the learner to use the definite article in this case.

The misinformation errors of the definite article chiefly appeared in main clauses and direct object noun phrases. All three cases of misinformation of the indefinite article in the data indicate the mis-selection of the indefinite article form. Here is an example:

(87) *And he may be (GVN) go \$goes\$ to his school as (GA) a \$an\$ alcoholic teacher. (YEAR 3-262 AE) [+singular]*

These indefinite article misinformation errors occurred within main clauses, two with the Adverbial function, as seen in the last example, and one with the Subject Attribute function.

*4.4.1.2. Article Use and Existential and Copulative Constructions:* The existential construction “*there is / are*” typically requires indefinite noun phrases (Abbott, 2006; Lyons, 1999; Robertson, 2000). The sentences containing at least one article error were examined for whether they have existential construction. One case was encountered in the data, where “*a*” is used with a mass noun, as follows.

(88) ... *thus there is (GA) a \$\$\$ confusion among the students in the campus. (I-III AE) [-singular]*

In Turkish, existential sentences can have a subject noun phrase which refers to a “class membership without number distinction” as in “*Beşte otobüs vardı* (There was/were a bus/buses at five)”, or “class membership with number distinction” as in “*Beşte bir otobüs vardı* (There was a bus at five)” (Tura, 1986, p. 166-168). The selection between the two depends on the speaker’s intent to select “a certain member of the class” (Tura, 1986, p. 168). The learner may have been influenced by this structure in her L1. The writer of Example (88) seems to express a verbal sentence such as “confusion is caused”, rather than non-verbal, a type of which is existential sentences. Furthermore, by using the indefinite article, the learner may have wished to “refer to one instance of a quality or state” as in “*A [sense of] relief came over me*” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 164).

As *there*-constructions are studied along with *have*-constructions, as done in the previous studies conducted by Robertson (2000), Ionin (2003) and Abbott (2006), the object of the verb “*have*” was investigated as well for definiteness. It was found that there are only six cases where an article error occurs (which equal to 17.1% out of 35 uses of “*have*” in all the texts). An example of *have*-construction with an article error of omission is as follows.

- (89) *In Turkey, (GA) 0 \$the\$ traditional view of such bad habits as drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes is not sharp enough to hinder people who have (GA) 0 \$a\$ tendency to them. (1-87 AE) [+singular]*

Example (89) above contains the count noun “tendency” to be used with an indefinite article after the *have*-construction.

As for the copulative (*to be* as the main verb of the sentence) construction, the other indefinite environment, there were nine cases with article errors in the data. Of these errors, seven were with singular noun phrases, as in this example:

- (90) *Seeing university students sitting on grass, drinking alcohol and smoking is really (GA) 0 \$a\$ bad example. (3-294 AE) [+singular]*

In this statement, no article is present preceding the predicate noun phrase “bad example” modifying the subject noun phrase. In fact, it needs to have an article or a determiner according to the noun phrase formation rules of English, being in the singular form. As stated in the previous page, the learner might have only indicated “class membership” (Tura, 1986, p. 184), under the effect of her native language Turkish. Tura (1986) gives the example of “*O genç adam doktor* (That young man is a doctor)”, where “the predicate NP does not have to show number agreement with the subject NP” being “nondefinite-nonreferential in status” (p. 184) and thus does not include the numeral *bir* (one) before *doktor*. As a result, the learner seems to establish no specific reference with the noun phrase “bad example” in Example (90), and, possibly therefore, she employed no articles for it.

**4.4.2. Semantic Level:** Now the semantic-level relations of noun phrases with article errors are examined, mainly in terms of specificity, genericity and uniqueness.

*4.4.2.1. Article Use and Specificity:* The noun phrases with which article errors occurred in the learner texts were examined in terms of being specific and non-specific. For this end, the frequencies of each case were counted, the percentages



were computed and the environmental factors that impinged on specificity were studied. This section was organized as covering four kinds of explanations: a) general comparisons between specific and non-specific uses, b) specific cases, c) non-specific cases, and d) ambiguous cases in terms of specificity and non-specificity correspondingly.

As a general picture of the noun phrases with article errors in the data in terms of specificity, Figure 11 displays that nearly one fifth of them have specific references (18.3%) and a much larger part of them have non-specific references (81,7%).

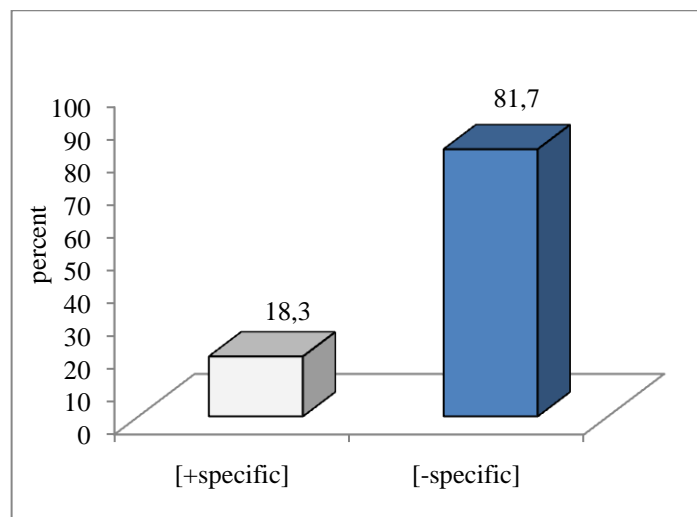


Figure 11. *Percentages of the Noun Phrases with Article Errors in Terms of Specificity*

For further illustration of general comparisons on the basis of specificity and non-specificity, Table 18 is formed with numbers and percentages of article omission, addition and misinformation errors, in definite noun phrases, that is [+def] NP, and indefinite noun phrases, that is [-def] NP, and their being specific or non-specific. The percentages were worked out by referring to the total amount of specific occurrences and non-specific occurrences on the horizontal basis.

Table 18.

*Frequencies and Percentages of Article Errors According to Definiteness and Specificity*

	omission				addition		misinformation				Total	
	[+def] NP		[-def] NP		[-def] NP		[+def] NP		[-def] NP			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
[+specific]	12	46,2	4	15,4	4	15,4	0	0	6	23,1	26	100
[-specific]	18	15,5	19	16,4	71	61,2	3	2,6	5	4,3	116	100
Total n	30		23		75		3		11		142	

As it can be seen on Table 18, most (46,2%) of [+specific] NPs with article errors included omission errors of the definite article. However, a greater amount (61,2%) of [-specific] NPs included addition errors of the definite article to indefinite NPs. It means that the definite article was omitted mostly with [+specific] NPs whereas it was generally erroneously added to [-specific] NPs to a greater extent. These two findings regarding omission and addition cases comprised the highest amounts of errors in terms of specificity and definiteness of NPs.

As for the remaining percentages shown on Table 18, the article omission rate with [+specific] indefinite NPs with article errors was 15,4% and this rate with [-specific] NPs with article errors was 16,4%. Misinformation errors with [+specific] indefinite NPs amounted to 23,1% of all [+specific] NPs with article errors. Addition errors of the definite article in [+specific] NPs emerged as 15,4%<sup>11</sup> of all [+specific] NPs with article errors. There were no [+specific] NPs with definite article errors of misinformation (0%).

In the following part, the findings related to [+specific] noun phrases on Table 18 are explained in terms of definiteness and countability, along with the environmental

<sup>11</sup> Three out of six cases of misinformation [-def NP] consist of the definite determiners like “some”. Therefore, they were not included in the percent of the misuse of *the*.

factors involved such as accompanying adjectives, by means of corresponding examples from the data.

Example (91) below illustrates an instance of the case of the *specific* noun phrases which lacked the required article.

(91) (GA) 0 *The* Second and last thing about the situation is about (GA) the alcoholic drinks. (1-85 AE) [+definite, +specific]

Example (91) above shows that the learner did not employ any articles where he used a noun phrase which is apparently specific according to the context. This is because he explained specific issues in sequence by writing “Second and last thing about the situation” and such ordering requires a definite article. The subsequent example below illustrates an indefinite article error which represents one of three misinformation errors out of six with indefinite and specific noun phrases (Table 18). These three cases are phonological errors, due to the allophonic complementary distribution between “a” and “an”.

(92) For instance, I am also (GA) an university student. (1-83 AE) [–definite, +specific]

The remaining three specific cases were the use of “the” for “a” presumably because of the specificity of the referents. The following example includes such an instance where head noun “ban” is described by the post-modifying phrase “on selling them”, which makes the noun specific.

(93) So (GA) the ban on selling them in the campus would be useless. (1-80 AE) [+specific]

Such specificity may have induced a tendency to select a definite article since specificity is generally frequent with definite noun phrases (Lyons, 1999, p. 172) but indefinite noun phrases are neutral in terms of specificity: “An indefinite singular

noun phrase may be used to denote a particular entity, or to speak of an arbitrary member of the class described by the noun phrase” (Lyons, 1999, p. 165). Therefore, indefinites can be specific or non-specific depending on the context of use.

On the other hand, specific noun phrases were also found including the addition errors of the definite article “*the*”. This is exemplified below.

- (94) *Because one of his friends drank alcohol and went to (GA) **the** \$0\$ school.*  
(3-262 AE) [+specific]

The learner who wrote this sentence apparently mentioned a particular school where a friend’s friend worked either as a teacher trainee or a teacher. Thus, it is a specific noun in this context. However, the writer did not use an adjective before the noun, like “same” which is compatible with a definite article, but he only referred to school “as a type of place”, which involves leaving out the article, as a similar case is explained in *Longman Dictionary of Common Errors* by Turton and Heaton (1996, p. 295). From another viewpoint, Close (1992) argues that the definite article is particularly not used in native discourse when talking about entities directly concerning us or ours but it is rather used “when we venture away from our point of primary concern” (p. 43). Close (1992) gives the following sentence articulated by educationalists whose primary concern is the school:

- (95) *Should moral education be given **at school** or **in the home**?*  
(Close, 1992, p. 43, bold added)

A majority of specific phrases with an article error in the data include erroneous uses (omission, addition and misinformation) of the definite article “*the*”. The definite article in English is generally associated with specificity by L2 learners because English does not have an article classification for specificity (Ionin, 2003, p. 79, 105; Snape et al., 2006, p. 132). Therefore, the present learners may also have associated definiteness with specificity.

As for the countability of the specific noun phrases with an article error, Figure 12 shows that singular noun phrases comprised the most frequent type (76,9% as the total of the percentages of [+singular] present in the groups of omission and misinformation).

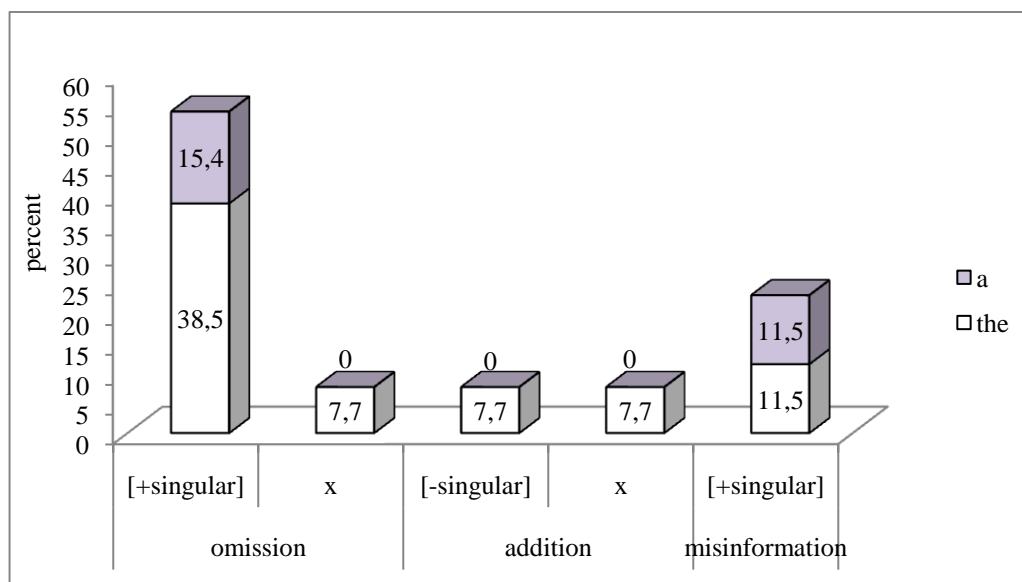


Figure 12. Percentages of Specific Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability

The case of singular specific noun phrases with an article error is illustrated in the following example.

- (96) (GA) 0 \$The\$ Second reason is about (GA) the \$0\$ religion of course. (1-85 AE) [+specific, +singular]

The first noun phrase in the example above lacks the required definite article whereas this article was needed as a result of the presence of the determiner “second”. This determiner indicates that there is one particular “reason” to be mentioned subsequently in the discourse, which renders the noun phrase specific.

Now, the findings related to non-specific [-specific] noun phrases are explained in terms of definiteness and countability, along with the environmental factors involved by means of matching examples occurred in the data.

Non-specific uses of noun phrases were quite widespread in the learner texts. An example sentence from our data can be as follows.

(97) *First, (GA) 0 \$a\$ campus is an (GWC) education \$educational\$ place that may consist of (GA) 0 \$a\$ primary and high school. (3-294 AE) [-specific]*

In Example (97), the writer seems to refer to no particular entities with the four noun phrases “*campus, education place, primary and high school*”. The high frequency of non-specific noun phrases in our texts can lead to the idea that non-specific use of noun phrases may be associated with our context. It may be one of the characteristics of the topic provided to the student writers in the research (i.e. taking stand on the issue of whether smoking cigarettes and drinking alcohol should be allowed on the university campus). The students were expected to write their personal opinions on the given topic and to justify their opinions with reasons. Their reasons may be developed from an assumption, value or belief with which they would like to persuade the reader(s). They would feel the need to present and discuss different opinions as well as state their own assumptions and evaluate them (as also expressed by Ramage, Bean & Johnson, 2009), as illustrated in following example:

(98) *Cocaine and heroin should be legalized because taking drug sales out of the hands of drug dealers would reduce street violence.*

(Ramage et al., 2009, p. 382)

In this sentence there are six noun phrases, one of which can be considered specific, “*the hands*”, while the rest seem non-specific noun phrases, i.e. “*cocaine, heroin, drug sales, drug dealers, street violence*”.

In addition, non-specific noun phrases with an article error included a greater majority of the erroneous uses of “*the*” (78,4% as the total of the percentages of the

definite article “*the*” in three groups) than specific noun phrases with an article error did (73,1%, Figure 10).

Here are two examples illustrating each non-specific definiteness case.

(99) *Moreover, it has a very bad effect on (GA) 0 \$the\$ brain. (1-46 AE)*  
[+definite, –specific]

The example above illustrates a non-specific but definite case of noun phrases with an article error. The noun “brain” in this example grammatically needs to take the definite article signalling that the entity denoted by the noun phrase is familiar to the reader. However, this familiarity is thought to stem from not being a particular entity but an “associative use” (Lyons, 1999, p. 4) of previously mentioned “people’s body” and general knowledge (see Appendix I for the essay text). Besides, the noun phrase is used as a singular generic, which requires “*the*” in English, and is acknowledged as “the most difficult generic form to account for” (Lyons, 1999, p. 187). In such generics, the noun phrase represents a class of individuals (i.e. entities) “which are treated as unique, therefore definite” (Lyons, 1999, p. 188).

(100) *So (GA) 0 \$a\$ university campus shouldn’t include any harmful things for students. (1-187 AE)* [–definite, –specific]

In this example of non-specific but indefinite noun phrase with an article error, the countable singular noun phrase “university campus” was used in very broad terms referring to no explicit campus and thus needed to be preceded by the indefinite article “*a*”.

On the other hand, addition errors of articles represent most of the non-specific noun phrase errors (61,2% as the total of the percentages of “*the*” and “*a*” in the addition group of Figure 12), as in the following example sentence:

(101) *In conclusion, any ban on the selling and using (GA) **the** alcoholic drinks and cigarettes would be useless. (1-80 AE) [-specific]*

In Example (101), the noun phrase “the alcoholic drinks” is assumed to denote a general concept and need not be definite since there is no particular referent which the reader is in a position to identify. The learner may have felt the need to use “*the*” due to the adjective “alcoholic”, which defines the referent noun phrase which is actually unspecified in the text. Close (1992, p. 44) maintains that “any adjective coming before the noun can justify the use of *the* if it enables us to identify the object without doubt”. Out of 75 addition error instances in our data, there are 13 addition errors of “*the*” (17,3%) with an adjective in the attributive position (Det \_\_\_\_\_ N, Brinton, 2000, p. 121) and 15 with a post-description of the noun phrase (20%) using for example an “*of*”-phrase or a relative clause, whose specificity can give reason for “the use of *the* before mass nouns or plural unit nouns” although it is not always the case (Close, 1992, p. 44-45).

Most of non-specific noun phrases with an article error consisted mostly the addition of the definite article and a few indefinite article additions. Ionin et al. (2003, p. 257) argued that “overuse of *the* with indefinites in L2-English is linked to specificity” but they stated that this overuse may also be with specific contexts where “the speaker attaches importance to a particular” entity in their data. Here is an example in (102a) from our data, illustrating this overuse:

(102)

- a. ... *because we are not **in the high school**, rules can not work here. (1-87 AE) [-specific]*
- b. ... *because we are not **at high school**, rules can not work here.*

In the abovementioned example (102a), the learner touches upon the place of “high school” in very general terms with reference to her text, and therefore the referent should have been in bare form with a different preposition, as displayed in the native speaker corrected version (102b).



A high rate of 90,3% of the definite article additions emerged with non-specific, mostly plural rather than mass, noun phrases. This widespread case is illustrated in Example (103).

(103) *In conclusion, any ban on the selling and using (GA) **the** alcoholic drinks and cigarettes would be useless. (1-80 AE) [-specific, +plural]*

Consequently, it was evident that overuse of “*the*” mostly appeared in indefinite non-specific contexts. However, overuse of “*the*” is generally predicted to arise in specific indefinite contexts for L2 learners languages whose first language does not cater for articles (Snape et al., 2006, p. 132).

Finally, there were three misinformation errors of “*the*” with definite noun phrases which were non-specific because they had no certain referents, as in the following example:

(104) *To drink alcoholic drinks or smoke (GNN) cigarette cigarettes is their own choice or way of life but they should care for others while enjoying (GA) **the** their desires. (3-257 AE) [-specific]*

How does it happen that the noun phrase is definite but the use of “*the*” is incorrect? In the example above, the noun “*desires*” should not be used with “*the*” but with “*their*”, which is another determiner that makes a noun phrase definite. However, still the noun phrase is non-specific. The noun phrases with other determiners than the article “*the*” or “*a*” are deemed as “complex noun phrases” (Lyons, 1999, p. 106).

Five misinformation errors occurred with non-specific indefinite noun phrases; they needed to take “*a*” instead of “*the*”, as in the following example:

(105) *Also, they cause (GA) **the** loss in terms of (GA) the national economy. (3-292 AE) [-specific]*

In this learner sentence, the noun “loss” was not mentioned before in the text; nor was a particular “loss” indicated. As a result, being countable and singular according to the context of the essay, this noun ought to have made indefinite.

As for the countability of the non-specific noun phrases with an article error, Figure 13 shows that plural noun phrases comprised the most frequent type (42,2% as the total of the percentages of [+plural] in three groups), as illustrated in the following example.

(106) *Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes are (GA) the \$0\$ actions which people should decide on to do or not. (3-214 AE) [-specific, +plural]*

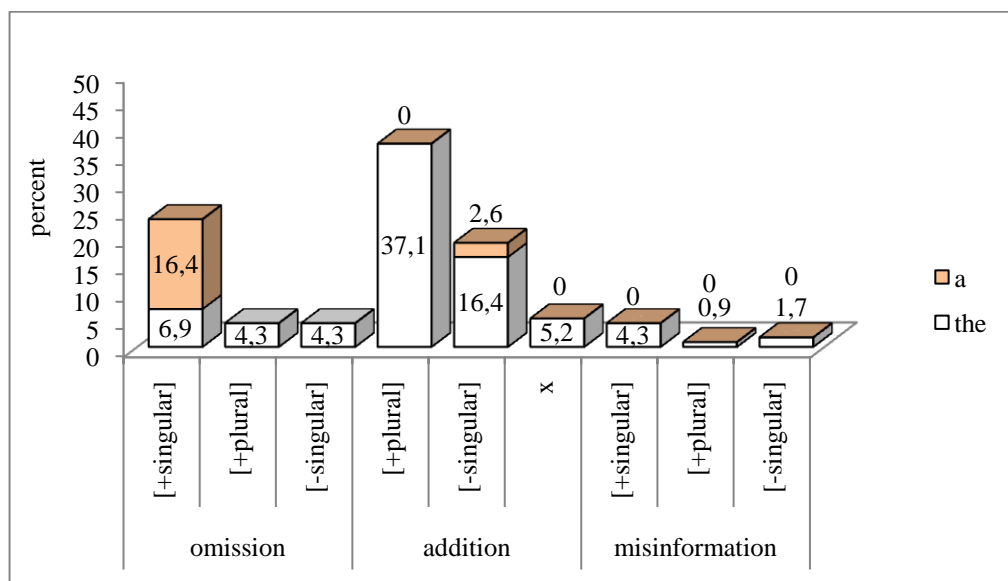


Figure 13. *Percentages of Non-Specific Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability*

A constant and arduous process of decision making all the time reigned from the very beginning of the analyses to the very last moment of writing up the findings. A considerable part of this process was coming to a decision on whether a discourse entity is unequivocally non-/specific or is ambiguous, according to the context. It is acknowledged that some noun phrases can be ambiguous between specific and non-specific readings. Similarly, there are some instances posing such ambiguity in our

data, according to the semantic-level analyses of the researcher and the inter-rater colleague. In Example (107) below, the noun phrase “environment” can be determined as specific by reading the whole text (Appendix I) since one can deem it is the environment a student is surrounded in the campus of Anadolu University. This item was labelled as [+specific]. Yet, from the semantic point of view, there is no “certain”, in Brinton’s terms (2000, p. 292), environment being mentioned in this sentence.

(107) *First of all, I think that there would not be allowed students or other people in the university campus to drink alcoholic drinks as much as they harm to people around them or (GA) 0 \$the\$ environment. (1-83 AE)*

Similarly, in Examples (108a) and (109a) below, what the “harmful effect” and “others” refer to is left to the reader’s general understanding, except for the fact that we know from the text the “effect” comes from “outside” the campus, and that “others” are the people surrounding smokers, like maybe the friends and family members. They can be considered non-specific since they refer to no specific group. The corrected version of (108a) by the native speaker is presented in (108b) below, and that of (109a) is in (109b).

(108)

- a. *Thus they protect themselves from **the harmful effect of outside**. (1-58 AE)*
- b. *Thus they limit **harmful effects that may be caused outside**.*

(109)

- a. *They are killing themselves day by day, and also they are doing a big harm to **the others** around them. (1-85 AE)*
- b. *They are killing themselves day by day, and also they are doing a great harm to **others** around them.*

The case of the noun “university” in Example (110a) below is in fact prevalent in the essays in general, in that the learners seem to swing between talking about the

concept of university in general and the university at which they are studying at the moment. The native speaker corrector informed that he made decisions on the corrections on the basis of the flow of each learner essay. In this example below, it is not clearly specified whether or not the learner wishes to denote particularly to her own university. The corrected version of (110a) by the native speaker is presented in (110b). From the corrected version, it seems that the native speaker interpreted the noun phrase in focus as non-specific, but not “in this university”.

(110)

- a. *This solution can be tried but we are **in the university** and everybody won't obey the rules, obviously. (1-87 AE)*
- b. *This solution can be tried but we are **at university** and not everybody would obey the rules, obviously.*

The situation in this noun phrase seems to be associated with Close's (1992) argument mentioned earlier in this section that the definite article is usually omitted when talking about entities of our main concern.

*4.4.2.2. Article Use and Genericity:* The noun phrases with which article errors occurred in the learner texts were studied in terms of being generic and non-generic. For this purpose in mind, the frequencies of each case were counted, the percentages were calculated and the environmental factors affecting genericity were explained. The organization of this section covers four kinds of information: a) general comparisons between generic and non-generic uses, b) generic cases, c) non-generic cases, and d) ambiguous cases in terms of genericity and non-genericity respectively.

When looked from a general perspective, Figure 14 shows that around one fifth (19%) of all the article errors emerged with generic noun phrases while a bigger amount of article errors occurred with non-generic noun phrases.

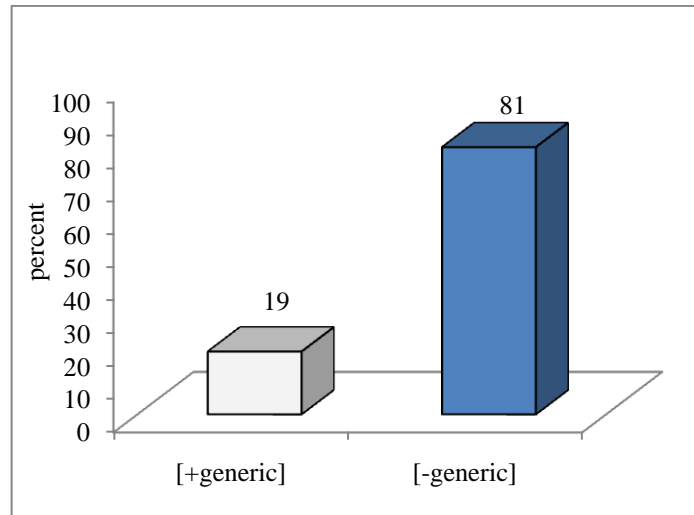


Figure 14. *Percentages of the Noun Phrases with Article Errors in Terms of Genericity*

**Generic** noun phrases typically require an indefinite article in English. There were no misinformation errors of article use with generic noun phrases. However, a majority (59,3%) of generic phrases with an article error involve addition of the definite article to a greater extent than omission errors, as evident from Figure 15. This finding is partly contrary to Snape et al.’s (2009) finding from the forced choice elicitation task conducted to pre-intermediate and advanced Turkish learners of English. They found a tendency to omit “*the*” in definite singular generic contexts whereas it was presently found that our participants underused “*the*” (i.e. omission errors, 7,4%, Figure 15) with singular definite generic noun phrases to a smaller extent. This difference may be attributed to the task difference used in the two studies. The following example is an illustration for the environment of addition errors of the definite article with a generic noun phrase:

- (111) *When we look at (GA) **the** \$0\$ countries that reached (GA) the \$a\$ modern contemporary status, we will see that they have overcome most of things. (3-310 AE) [+generic]*

In Example (111) above, the generic noun phrase is “countries that reached the modern contemporary status”, which includes a restrictive relative clause that describes the noun and signifies the whole set of countries that satisfy the

description. The example here bears a resemblance to the sentence (91a) given in Lyons (1999).

(112) *This kind of animal is a vertebrate.*

(Lyons, 1999, p. 191)

Here, the subject noun phrase embraces an *of*-genitive that is preceded by the noun phrase *this kind*, which describes *animal* and is definite.

As for the countability of the generic noun phrases in focus, Figure 15 demonstrates that most of these phrases were [+plural] noun phrases with a definite article addition error (37% of all generic NPs with errors), as was the case in Example (111) provided earlier. The indefinite article errors with generic noun phrases mostly occurred when the noun phrase is [+singular] (22,2% of all generic NPs with errors).

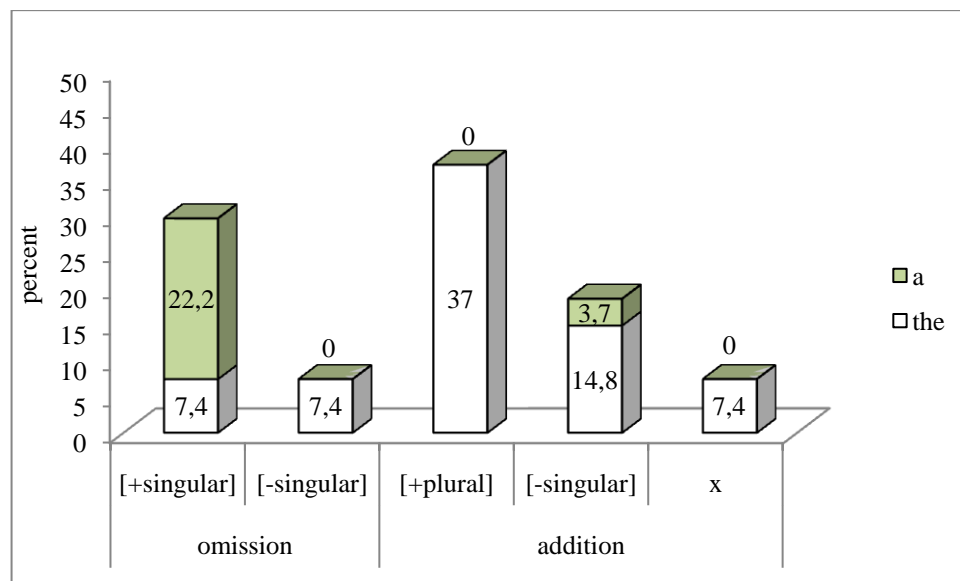


Figure 15. *Percentages of Generic Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability*

Our analyses also displayed that all generic nouns with an article error also had non-specific reading while only a part of non-specific nouns were categorized as generic (23,3%). An instance of generic, non-specific noun phrase with an indefinite article omission error is as follows:

(113) *To sell and drink alcoholic drinks should not be allowed in (GA) 0 \$a\$ university campus. (1-46 AE) [+generic, –specific]*

Reading the whole essay, we presume that the student intended to denote to the whole set of university campuses in Example (113), not a definite member or a group of them. Lyons (1999) explains that “an indefinite singular noun phrase can be ambiguous between generic and non-specific interpretations” and that “generic cannot be the same as non-specific”, providing the following example with specific, non-specific and generic readings: “*An Indian smokes a pipe every night*” (p. 186). The “Indian” under consideration may either be a particular person doing the action in the sentence habitually, or a different person doing this action every night, or “every” Indian, respectively, Lyons (1999) suggests.

Out of 17 generic uses of plural or mass nouns in our data, there were 15 instances of addition errors. Lyons (1999, p. 189) states that “plural and mass generics are typically indefinite”. That is to say, these types of noun phrases do not require any articles and can be deemed as indefinite because they do not have a definite article. The students chose to apply the definite article for these generic phrases, except one case with an indefinite article. The remaining two generic cases involve the use of the same mass noun phrase in the same essay, i.e. “open air”, where the absence of the definite article is identified as an omission error. This example is reintroduced below:

(114) *... because they are allowed to smoke in (GA) 0 \$the\$ open air. (1-56 AE) [–singular]*

*Non-generic* phrases with an article error mostly involved addition of the definite article to a greater extent than omission and misinformation errors, as was the case for genericity.

The example below contains an addition error of “*the*” with a non-generic use of the noun phrase “young people”. This noun phrase was apparently not pointing out young people as a whole class or mass but perhaps a part of them or at least those who use alcohol and cigarettes. This makes the referent non-generic.

(115) *The university campus (GVN) give \$gives\$ allowance to sell and drink alcohol or smoke cigarettes. But, they don't think that they harm (GA) the \$0\$ young people. (1-105 AE) [-generic]*

Article omissions surfaced as more than one third of all the non-generic noun phrase uses with article errors (37,4% as the total of the percentages of “*a*” and “*the*” in the omission group on Figure 15), as exemplified below.

(116) *Everybody has (GA) 0 \$a\$ right (GVNF) that they choose \$to choose\$ whatever they want. (1-58 AE) [-generic]*

In this omission example, the singular noun “right” requires an article and is a form of non-generic use since it is already described and thus limited in the subsequent part of the sentence, which invalidates a generic use. This example also illustrates an instance of the singular non-generic noun phrases with errors, which emerged as the most frequent type of countability among non-generic uses (n=44, 38,3% as the total of [+singular] noun phrase percentages of the use of “*the*” and “*a*” in three groups on Figure 16).



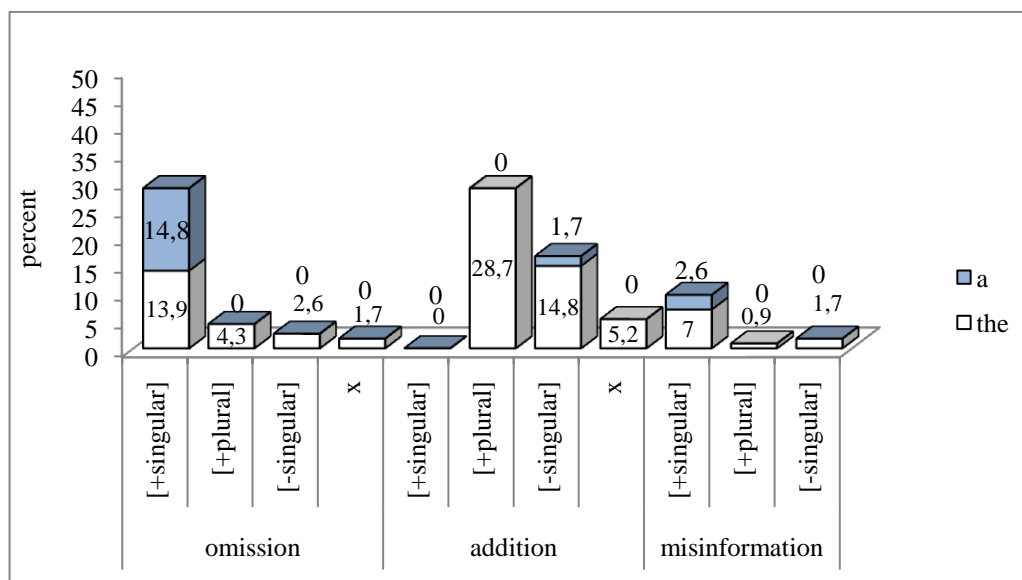


Figure 16. Percentages of Non-Generic Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability

A final result concerning non-generic noun phrases with errors was that non-generic uses of noun phrases were involved in all of the seven cases of the environments with “there”- and “have”-constructions, which is characteristically acceptable in English. It may indicate that the learners’ use of non-generic noun phrases with these constructions can be considered as appropriate only if they build up on their knowledge of the English article system and do not omit the required article, as happened in five cases out of seven.

4.4.2.3. *Article Use and Uniqueness*: Uniqueness and non-uniqueness features were examined in the noun phrases with which article errors occurred in the learner texts. The frequencies of each case and the percentages were obtained and the environmental factors influencing uniqueness were presented with examples from the data. This section was organized as: a) general comparisons between unique and non-unique uses, b) unique cases, and c) non-unique cases.

Regarding the relationship between the errors of article use and uniqueness on the whole, the learners’ errors were characterized most noticeably by widespread use of non-unique noun phrases which constituted 95,1% of all the noun phrases with article errors in the data (Figure 17).

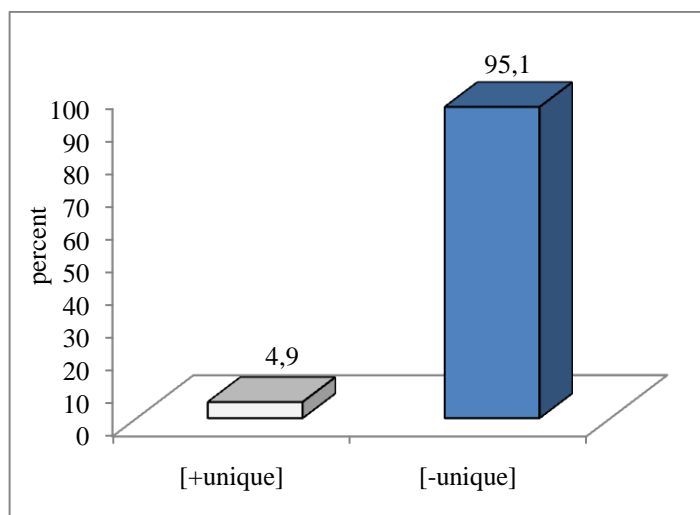


Figure 17. *Percentages of the Noun Phrases with Article Errors in Terms of Uniqueness*

The data consists of totally seven *unique* noun phrases with an article error in three learner essays. Of these phrases, three instances involved omission errors, three involved addition errors and one involved a misinformation error of miscellaneous types for definiteness. Lyons (1999, p. 12) argues that “indefinites are neutral with respect to uniqueness” while “*the* logically entails uniqueness with singular noun phrases”, as in the following example.

(117) *For example, during (GA) 0 \$the\$ last spring festival, drinking alcoholic drinks in the campus was prohibited. (3-244 AE) [+unique, +singular]*

As Lyons (1999, p. 8) argues, some noun phrases with adjectives like “*first, same, only*” are incompatible with “*a*”; namely we should use these adjectives with the article “*the*”. However, Example (117) above includes such a noun phrase used with the adjective “*last*” but the noun phrase lacks the required definite article.

On the other hand, Example (118) below shows that the noun “*school*” was intended to refer to a potential school which had to exist somewhere but this time it is a unique mass noun whereas Example (119) presents a singular referent, unique according to the semantic context of the essay (though the person may in fact have more than one

girlfriend). These cases can be explained by Lyons (1999, p. 8), who expresses that “uniqueness can appear where the referent is hypothetical, potential, or in the future”.

(118) *Because one of his friends drank alcohol and went to (GA) **the** \$0\$ school.*  
(3-262 AE)

(119) *One of them was drunk and he had (GA) **0** \$a\$ girlfriend with him.* (1-111 AE)

As displayed on Figure 18, the most outstanding amount of unique nouns with errors is the addition of “the” with mass [–singular] noun phrases (28,6% of all unique phrases). This was the case in Example (118) above. In this example sentence, the noun “school” was considered as unique within the context of the essay, because a particular school was cited. Despite this aspect, it was deemed necessary to use it in the bare form without an article according to the rule mentioned in the section of Article Use and Specificity expressing that referring to a place in general entails removing the article.

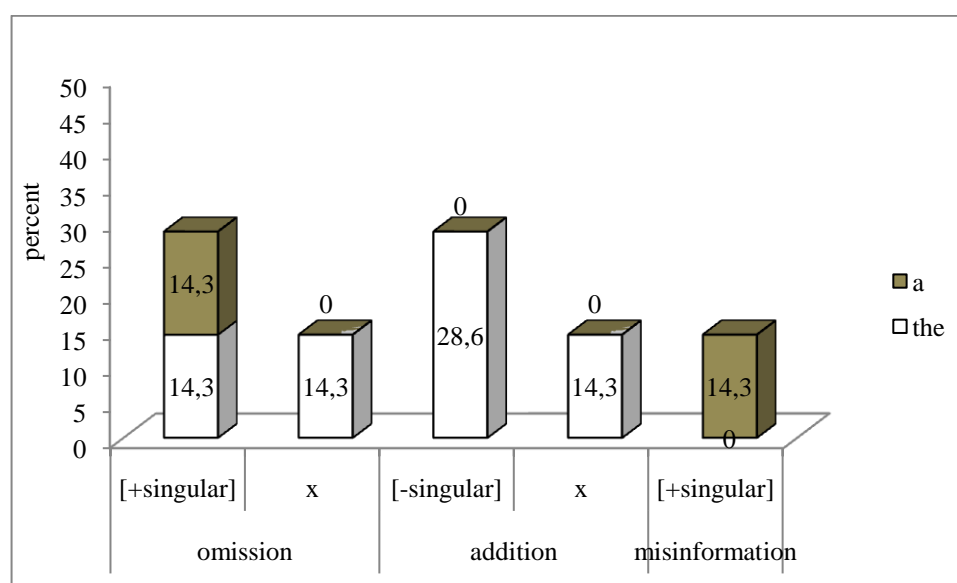


Figure 18. *Percentages of Unique Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability*

A focus on the *non-unique* noun phrases with article errors (n=135) revealed that “*the*” was frequently overused (51,1% of all the non-unique phrases with addition errors) while “*a*” was mostly underused (16,3%) among the non-unique noun phrases with article errors.

The example below presents a case of addition with a non-unique noun phrase.

(120) (GA) *The \$0\$ students coming to the university know how to behave what to do or where to do (GPP) 0 \$it\$ . (3-310 AE) [-unique, +plural]*

From the noun phrase “students coming to the university”, we are able to pick the ones concerned among all other students, such as those students attending to the primary or secondary education. This semantic aspect of the noun phrase makes it unique but it is erroneous to make the noun phrase definite by the use of “*the*” when stating a general assumption as the one above.

(121) *Alcoholic drinks and cigarettes are really popular among (GA) the \$0\$ teenagers as well as (GA) the \$0\$ grows-ups. (1-85 AE) [-unique, +plural]*

Example (121), too, includes two instances of non-unique noun phrases both of which undergo addition errors of the use of the definite article. However, the referents of the two noun phrases are not the only ones that satisfy the description used, and this state should have been signalled by the non-use of the definite article “*the*”. In the omission case of Example (122) below, the noun phrase “limited budget” does not refer to a one-and-only budget, which denotes its non-uniqueness. Nevertheless, it is a countable and singular noun that calls for a preceding indefinite article due to the *have*-construction in the sentence.

(122) *First, students have (GA) 0 \$a\$ limited budget, but still they spend much money. (1-111 AE) [-unique, +singular]*

A case of misinformation errors, comprising 9,6% of all non-unique noun phrases, appears in Example (123) given below. The “place” being stated in the sentence does not represent a particular, sole place but a general term to refer to the institution of university. It seems probable that the learner chose to make the noun phrase “place of cultural development” definite because of the post-modifying *of*-phrase.

(123) *I don't agree with prohibiting selling and drinking alcohol in the university campus. If this system comes to the university which is (GA) **the** ~~sa~~ place of cultural development, this will take the country back to past years, not forward. (3-310 AE) [-unique, +singular]*

With respect to the countability of non-unique noun phrases with article errors, singular and plural non-unique noun phrases emerged in equal rates, each consisting of 36,3% of all non-unique phrases with an article error (percent calculated as the total of the percentages of [+singular] 12,6; 16,3; 5,9 and 1,5; and of [+plural] 3,7; 31,9 and 0,7 on Figure 19). A total of mass (that is [-singular]) noun phrases makes 21,5% of all non-unique NP errors (3,7; 14,1; 2,2 and 1,5 on Figure 19). These percentages overall may suggest that countability of the noun phrases may not be an effective factor on the non-uniqueness of the noun phrases with article errors.

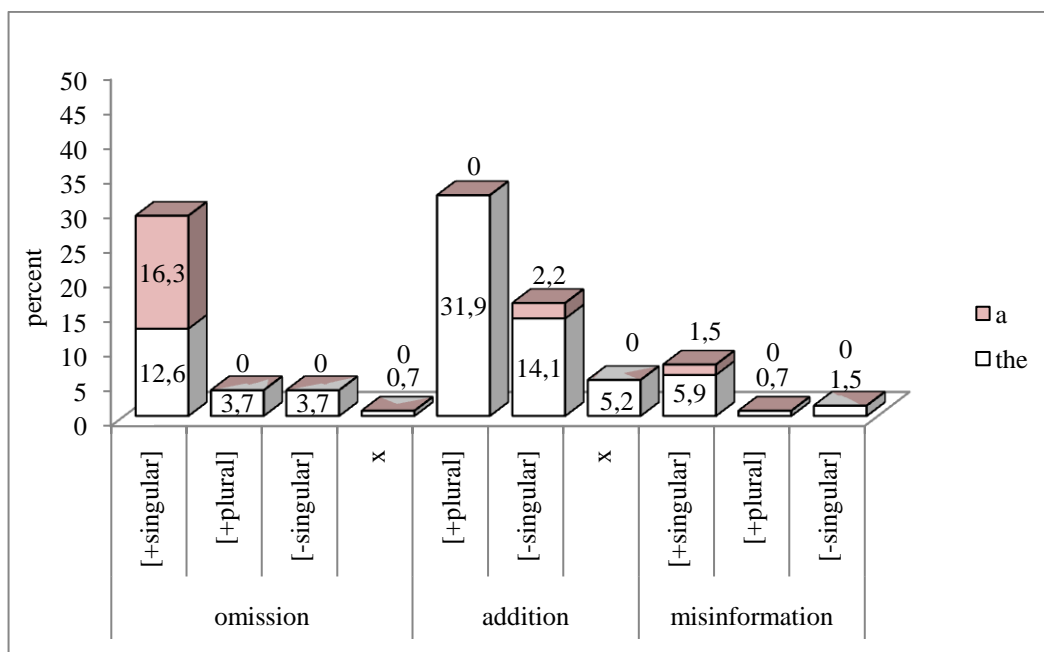


Figure 19. Percentages of Non-Unique Noun Phrases with Errors According to Countability

Another finding with the non-unique noun phrases with article errors was that they appeared in all of the existential *there*-constructions, *have*-constructions and copulative constructions in the data, which is a typical case for the English language. Here are two examples, one of a *have*-construction (124) and one of a copulative construction (125) from the data, where the learners omitted the indefinite article with a non-unique noun phrase.

(124) *First, students have (GA) 0 \$a\$ limited budget, but still they spend much money. (1-111 AE) [-unique, +singular]*

(125) *So, drinking alcohol and smoking in the campus should not be (GA) 0 \$a\$ problem. (3-213 AE) [-unique, +singular]*

The noun phrases “limited budget” and “problem” are non-unique because each of them is not the only instance in the world and the context covers a general topic in each case.

**4.4.3. Discourse Level:** Discourse level analyses sought to find out whether information status had any influence on the learners' article choice. Around 70% of the noun phrases with article errors represent either Brand-new (BN, 35,2%) or Inferrable (I, 34,5%) entities rather than Hearer-old (Ho, 16,2%), Evoked (E, 9,9%) or Unused (U, 4,2%) entities (Figure 20). The proposed explanations in the discourse-level analyses and their alternatives are explained hereafter.

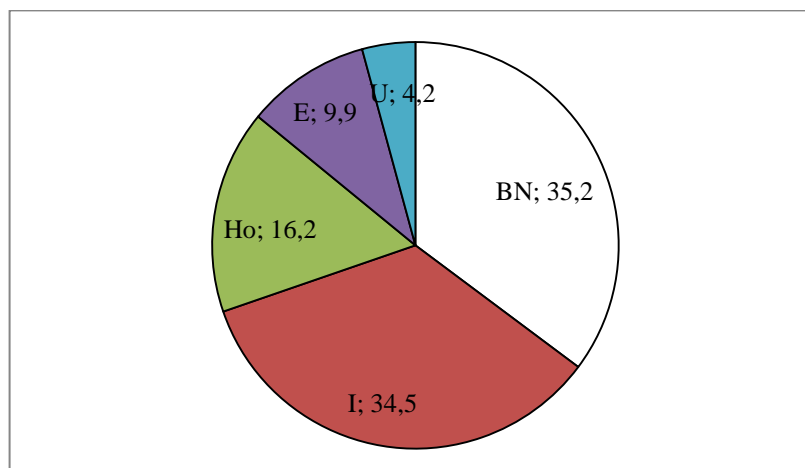


Figure 20. *Percentages of the Noun Phrases with Article Errors at Discourse Level*

The most common discourse feature found in the texts, i.e. **Brand-new** entities, correspond to Brand-new (BN), Brand-new anchored (BN<sub>A</sub>), and Brand-new + attribute (BN+A) types. During the analyses, three cases (6%) were identified as Brand-new as well as Inferrable from different angles. Prince (1981, p. 242) states that “the types of inferences needed for the Inferrables are mostly culture-based” and that attributing discourse features to entities is “relative to the speaker’s hypotheses about the hearer’s belief-set”. Here is an example representing the abovementioned case.

(126) *Firstly, when some university students smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ or drink alcohol, (GA) the \$0\$ others can be affected in a bad way. (1-107 AE)*

The noun phrase “others” in Example (126) is not Evoked since it was not mentioned in the text earlier. Nor it is Inferrable from another linguistic entity in the text. It is not Unused or Hearer-old, either, from the assumed shared familiarity between the

writer and the reader. It can possibly be recognized as an entity which is unexplained and newly introduced in the text. Prince (1981, p. 246) argues that for informal conversational discourse there is a “tendency to reserve subject position for NPs at the higher end of the scale”, namely for the most familiar ones<sup>12</sup>. Additionally, sentences generally have two parts as topic (given information) and comment (new information): “The *topic* represents what the sentence is about” and generally occurs sentence-initially, but “*comment*” denotes to “what is said about the topic” and usually occurs after the topic, born out of the topic’s assumed familiarity to the reader (italics added, Lyons, 1999, p. 227). In Example (126), the noun “others” given in the subject position is probably considered as familiar to the writer since there is a possibility of the reference of a certain group of students within his environment. Therefore, “others” seems to be made definite with the intention of highlighting an expected familiarity from the reader.

More than half (58%) of Brand-new entities having erroneous noun phrases are Brand-new alone while the remaining are anchored and/or have attributes along them. The sole example of a Brand-new anchored entity with an attribute is as follows.

(127) *Students of our university are too (GWC) relax \$relaxed\$ to ignore (GA) the \$0\$ other people (GPR) that \$who\$ are around them. (1-111 AE)*

In Example (127), the attribute attached to the head noun “people” is “other” and the anchor to which the head noun is linked is the clause following it. The referent of the noun phrase is introduced in the text for the first time but it contains an anchor which is not itself Brand-new and therefore gives information about the new entity.

**Inferrable** entities surfaced as many as the number of Brand-new entities in the texts. Prince (1981, p. 245) explains that there are more Inferrable entities than Unused ones in most texts, as is the case in the data of the present study. More than half of

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<sup>12</sup> The scale for assumed familiarity used by Prince (1981, p. 245) is formed as the following (from the most familiar to the least familiar): Evoked / Situationally Evoked > Unused > Inferrable > Containing Inferrable > Brand-new anchored > Brand-new.



the Inferrables were Containing Inferrables, where the inference is drawn from the noun phrase itself. Here are two examples, one Inferrable (128) and one Containing Inferrable (129), which are explained subsequently.

(128) *Second, in the campus, students use alcohol and cigarettes and they throw away (GA) 0 \$the\$ packets or bottles to the environment. (1-111 AE)*

(129) *University is a different world in human life. After being educated for years under (GA) 0 \$the\$ control of both parents and teachers, university is seen a place where everything can be done. (3-213 AE)*

Example (128) consists of the Inferrable noun phrase “packets or bottles” whose reference can be deduced from, or whose antecedent is, the previously-mentioned noun phrase “alcohol and cigarettes”. Thus, the phrase necessitates a definite article to signal such familiarity, but the student omitted it and treated the noun phrase as Brand new. In Example (129), the noun phrase “control of both parents and teachers”, the reference of the noun “control” is deduced from the following *of*-phrase which immediately describes it (cf. “associative phrases” in Robertson, 2000, p. 146). The students used such attributes in nine instances (18,4%) of all Inferrable entities, one of which follows:

(130) *I believe that smoking cigarettes should be allowed (It's already allowed, what am I claiming?), while alcoholic drinks shouldn't be within (GA) the \$0\$ easy reach of students. (3-259 AE)*

Example (130) displays that “easy” is the attribute of the head noun “reach”. This noun is Inferrable, containing a descriptive *of*-phrase that explains it; namely it is called a Containing Inferrable. There is an addition error in this example because of the use of “*the*” with the uncountable set-phrase “*within (easy) reach of something*”.

This set-phrase is actually used with a place name as in this sentence: “*The beach is within easy reach of the hotel*”<sup>13</sup>.

The last two examples may indicate that learners are still at the stage of trial and error in terms of the use of articles due to discourse properties and semantic, syntactic properties. Both of the noun phrases in (129-130) are inferrables that may require the definite article. However, because of the presence of an uncountable set phrase in (130), the definite article should not be used.

Noun phrases which are identified as **Hearer-old** emerged as the third discourse feature in frequency. As a reminder, Hearer-old expressions refer to non-pronominal phrases whose referents are assumed to be familiar to the reader by the writer and also were mentioned earlier in the text, as different from Unused entities. Four (17,4%) of the Hearer-old phrases contain an attribute. The following example is presented together with its preceding sentence so that the previous-mention noun phrase can also be noticed (note the bold-type tagged phrase as Hearer-old):

(131) *if so, (GPU) they \$smokers\$ can smoke comfortably and without giving any harm to (GPU) all of us \$those around them\$ and to (GA) 0 \$the\$ air. Also (GPU) it \$smoking\$ pollutes (GA) 0 \$the\$ air, it (GVN) cause \$causes\$ (WO) to smell our clothes, even our hair \$our clothes and even our hair to smell\$. (1-46 AE)*

In the above instance of an omission error, the noun “air” is uncountable and grammatically requires the definite article, but also from the discourse perspective, it has to be assumed familiar to the reader from general knowledge and thus be made definite. However, the learner may have encoded this noun as a mass noun and did not use an article with it. Consequently, it can be stated that in relation to some underlying semantic and textual concepts like genericity and assumed familiarity, acquisition of definite articles has not been completed yet.

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<sup>13</sup> The sentence was adopted from the entry of “reach” in the online dictionary of LDOCE (retrieved in April 1, 2010).

Only one of every ten noun phrases with an article error was identified as *Evoked* but for most of these cases, both Evoked and Hearer-old interpretations seemed sensible. Let us examine the following example:

(132) *Thirdly, smoking and drinking is a way of comforting (GA) the \$0\$ students.*  
(1-110 AE)

In the essay from which Example (132) was taken (see Appendix I for the whole text), the noun “students” appeared several times; four times in general sense, four times with descriptors meaning to denote especially to the non-specific smoker/drinker students, and twice as specific students familiar to the writer. Being from the second group, the noun phrase “the students” in the example above can be deemed as both Evoked, since such students have already been mentioned in the text, and Hearer-old, since the reader can be expected to imagine university students from his or her general knowledge. Maybe this certain group of students led the writer to use the definite article.

*Unused* noun phrases, which came up rarely (n=6) in the data, have undergone such hesitation during the analysis as well, regards to alternatively being Hearer-old.

(133) *(GA) The \$0\$ students in (GA) a \$0\$ university should be mature enough, they should know how to behave.* (1-51 AE)

In Example (133), the noun “university” can refer to an Unused expression because it did not appear earlier as it is and can be assumed to be known to the reader, but likewise it also seems to be possibly accepted as Hearer-old since it may be thought as partially mentioned before within the phrase “university campus”.

#### **4.5. Discussions**

This research study focused on the syntactic errors that emerged in the argumentative essays of ELT students. Its focal point in error description was determined as the

frequent errors emerged in the data. Henceforth, discussions of the findings will be presented on the basis of the research questions restated below.

1. What types of syntactic errors are produced by Turkish speaking ELT students in their English argumentative essays?
2. Is there a significant difference in the syntactic errors according to:
  - 2.1. the class level?
  - 2.2. the error type?
3. How can the frequent types of errors be described in terms of the parameters of:
  - 3.1. omission,
  - 3.2. addition and
  - 3.3. misinformation?
4. How can the most frequent type of error be described at:
  - 4.1. syntactic,
  - 4.2. semantic and
  - 4.3. discourselevels?

The finding that we observed widespread errors of article use gives support to Master's (2002) argument related to the English article system. He remarks that the article system forms "a notoriously complex aspect of English grammar that may cause the most advanced non-native speaker of English as a second or other language (...) to make errors even when all other elements of the language have been mastered" (p. 331). His explanations regarding the non-native language learners' difficulty to acquire the English article system also bears inferences about our participants' evidenced difficulties with the English article system, even at the advanced class level.

(...) the article system stacks multiple functions onto a single morpheme, a considerable burden for the learner, who generally looks for a one-form-one-function correspondence in navigating the labyrinth of any human language until the advanced stages of acquisition.

(Master, 2002, p. 332)

The difficulty of a lack of one-to-one correspondence between the form and the function of English articles as mentioned by Master (2002) may be prominent when the first language of the learner is Turkish, which accommodates no definite article. As many other scholars, Montrul (2000) stated that learners' errors can be originating from their L1, as was also subscribed to in the behaviourist view of language learning. More to the point, Stehle (2009) advanced that the stages of article acquisition are at variance based on features in the learner's L1 rather than being universal. Jaensch and Sarko (2009) similarly expressed that, performing better than the Japanese learners of German, the Arabic learners of English may have "transferred the semantics of the definite article in the L1, to that of the L2 of English" (p. 47). Japanese is "a language without articles" whereas Syrian Arabic "a language with an overt marker for definiteness, but not for indefiniteness" (p. 33). By the same token, Master (1997) proposed learners' L1 as a decisive effect on the use of English articles. In Turkish, not definiteness but specificity is determined by the use of accusative case marking and the numeral "one", *bir*. According to Göksel and Kerslake (2005) and other scholars studying the characteristics of Turkish language, a noun phrase can be interpreted as definite when these two conditions are met at a minimum: "(i) the absence of an indefinite determiner (...)", and "(ii) accusative case marking where the noun phrase is functioning as direct object" (2005, p. 371). Göksel and Kerslake exemplify marking of definiteness in Turkish through the sentence given in Example (134), where "all three of the noun phrases are definite".

(134) {Garson} {temiz tabak-lar}-ı {masa}-ya koydu.

waiter clean plate-PL-ACC table-DAT

*'The waiter put the clean plates down on the table.'*

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 371)

There are cases where noun phrases are inherently definite in Turkish. These cases are "the proper names of people, places and institutions, most pronouns such as personal and demonstrative pronouns, and noun phrases that include one of the definite determiners such as *bu* (this), as used in *bu oda* (this room)" (p. 371-372).

Two other interrelated findings about article use were that more omission errors of articles were made by the first year students (as was done by the low ability level Polish learners of English in Ekiert's study in 2004) and that more addition and misinformation errors were made by the third year students. These findings can lead to the possible explanation that the students may have neglected or shunned using articles at the outset but have gradually challenged their use with ever-increasing trials. These results are backed by the statement of Dulay et al. (1982, p. 155) saying that "omission errors are found in greater abundance and across a great variety of morphemes during the *early* stages of L2 acquisition" and that they make more misinformation and addition errors of grammatical morphemes in later stages, with more language exposure. In a similar vein, Ekiert (2004) found a greater amount of addition errors of the definite article by intermediate-level Polish learners of English, compared to those with a low proficiency level.

The finding that third year students made more use of "*the*" instead of "*a*" was probably for the reason that they coded the related noun phrases as conveying old information in their discourse models. They may have assumed the addressee, as most probably the researcher herself, to be already acquainted with the concepts they would be writing about. Actually these misinformation errors were mostly coded as Inferrables during the discourse level analyses, rather than Hearer-old. Prince (1992) clarifies that the category of formally definite noun phrases (i.e. definites in form) corresponds well with Hearer-old entities, but some formally definite noun phrases can introduce entities not assumed to be known to the hearer.

Another finding with the misinformation errors of "*the*" was that they occurred with noun phrases which were commonly in direct object function rather than subject in the third year level texts. Namely, the learners attempted to give a definite-referential status for the direct object NPs which needed to be indefinite in the relevant context. Thus, a mismatch was observed between the use of the definite article and the discourse features and functions of the corresponding entities. Regarding the functions of the referents in the utterance, Prince (1992) notes that

“subjects tend to be definite and tend to represent (discourse-) old information” (p. 2). Consequently, the learners seemed to achieve coding old information in subject phrases but they may not yet have mastered coding new information in direct object phrases.

The errors involving verb use were most frequent in subject-verb agreement (GVN). Izumi et al. (2005) also found that half of the errors were in the grammar category, but a considerable part of the grammatical errors included subject-verb disagreement, as exemplified below.

(135) *it (GVN) cause \$causes\$ lots of bad events (1-46 AE)*

In Example (135), the main verb “cause” lacks the present tense 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular inflection *-s*. L1 influence may be explanatory for the high-pitched rate of such errors in subject-verb agreement. In Turkish, the L1 of all the student participants, and in English, their FL, agreement morphemes may appear under different circumstances. The following examples can be useful here as an illustration.

(136) *Ahmet hiçbir şey yap-ma-dı.*  
Ahmet nothing do-NEG- PAST  
‘Ahmet hasn’t done anything at all.’

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 128)

The example in Turkish, with a third person singular subject has an empty slot for person agreement inflectional morpheme after the temporal structure *-D(t)* because “Turkish does not have overt marking of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular on predicates” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 128). Nonetheless, in the following example, person agreement inflectional morpheme may be used, or omitted when the null subject pronoun “they”, *onlar*, is used overtly. However, “Where a 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural subject is not expressed by an overt noun phrase, and the referents are animate, plural marking of the predicate is obligatory” (Göksel and Kerslake (2005, p. 129).

(137) Bodrum’a git-ti-ler.

Bodrum- DAT go- PAST-3PL

‘They’ve gone to Bodrum.’

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 129)

The indicators of person agreement in the corresponding statements in English, however, reveal a distinct case. Namely, the subject-verb agreement in Example (136) has been established by using the more marked auxiliary “has” while in Turkish there is no overt person marker. On the other hand, in Example (137), the auxiliary used is in the unmarked form, “have” whereas in Turkish a person marking suffix *-l(A)r* is used.

Besides, the present data comprised verb errors due to the inappropriate tense choice. These errors were observed in 13 essays (38,2% of all texts). The writers of these essays generally seemed to overgeneralize the use of Simple Present Tense to other present tense forms such as Present Perfect, Present Continuous and Present Perfect Continuous. It may lead to the considerations that these errors have resulted from the lack of detailed knowledge on the usage differences between various tense forms, or the learners’ avoidance strategies stemming from a possible knowledge gap. Additionally, by using the present simple tense on the whole, the learners may have tried to compensate their insufficient knowledge of the perfective aspect in English, which finds its expression in the past tense verbal suffixes *-DI* and *-mİş* in Turkish (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 331).

The finding that statistical computations indicated no significant difference between the two class levels of students in terms of the amounts of syntactic errors each group made can perhaps be ascribed to the view that they are all still passing through the trial-and-error phases trying out their hypotheses in order to “gain experience” (Eggen & Kauchak, 1997, p. 305; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 106). As Ellis (1995, p. 119) expresses, learner language is variable, and we cannot assert firmly that a learner knows a target structure that s/he used correctly, or that a learner does not know a target structure if s/he used it incorrectly. For Ellis (1995), what can ultimately be argued is that the learner is in the development process with a partial



knowledge of the target language form. Supportive evidence for the abovementioned finding was available in the study conducted by Çokal and Ruhi (2006) on the issue of the interlanguage demonstrative systems. They first reported their assumption that the increase in exposure to English would involve improved linguistic performance but they sometimes found higher inappropriate usage in later years of learning English. In the fill-in-the-blank, multiple-choice test (with *it*, *this* and *that* alternatives) the 4th year students used *that* inappropriately in place of *this* to a greater extent than other proficiency groups on the whole.

The omission of the plural morpheme with countable nouns (a type of GNN-noun number errors) was another widespread finding, particularly among the third year students, as illustrated in the following examples.

(138) *lots of disease* (1-46 AE)

(139) *their liver* (3-214 AE)

(140) *we are not child* (3-262 AE)

(141) *smoke cigarette* (3-257 AE)

An explanation to this can be “backsliding”, which is “a reversion to a previous state of interlanguage” (Widdowson, 1990, p. 18). Additionally, seemingly a reasonable account can be the case of the effect of the learners’ L1, Turkish. The case in Example (138) containing “lots of”, that is *bir çok* in Turkish, can be explained by the statements of Göksel and Kerslake (2005), who express that “[w]here certain quantifying determiners (like *çok*, *fazla*, *birkaç*) are used in a noun phrase, the head noun is always left in the singular form” (p. 166). The case is exemplified as in the following phrase:

(142) *kaç kişi* ‘how many people’

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 166)

In Example (142), the Turkish question word *kaç*, “how many”, is followed by *kişi* in the singular form, not in the plural form as *kişiler*, whose equivalent is “people” in

English. This structure in Example (142) is parallel to some extent to that in Example (138), which contains the determiner “lots of”. As for the remaining examples presented subsequently, their possible Turkish equivalents can be mentioned for comparison. Namely, Example (139) can be expressed either with a plural or a singular head noun, as *onların ciğeri/(onların) ciğerleri*, depending on the context of use. This optionality in the choice of the singular or the plural form in the learner’s mother tongue may have caused the singular use of the head noun “liver” after the 3rd person plural possessive pronoun “their” in Example (139). Generally the bare singular form is preferred in Turkish for the reason that plurality is given in possessive pronoun “their”. Similarly, Example (140) can be expressed as *(biz) çocuk değiliz*, again with a bare singular noun *çocuk* so as to create a generic status while the corresponding English sentence is formed with a plural noun “children” resulting from the plural subject pronoun “we”. Example (141) is expressed as *sigara içmek* with a bare singular noun *sigara*. In Turkish, this phrase is considered as a set phrase and as part of this set phrase *sigara* is considered as a generic noun used in the bare form. However, in English, it is not treated in this format though it is still a set phrase. *Cigarette* is a countable noun and it needs an article. Countable nouns are characteristically required to be used either in the singular form with an article or a determiner preceding it (*a/the/this cigarette*), or in the plural form (*cigarettes*) in English.

The small amount of errors regarding pronoun use comprised the unclear referents of the pronouns. As a general explanation which may account for most of the frequent errors in the data, we may recall that the essays are the students’ spontaneous, mostly uncontrolled products, except for the topic and the length. The participants were given enough time to write their essays and they had already gained the habit of doing revisions, so it is expected that they have already revised their essays. However, when we consider some of the essays it is most probable that some students may not have taken their time to revise what they produced. Nevertheless, writing should be seen basically as a process which engages preparation, drafting and revision. This progressive aspect of writing needs to be strongly emphasized in FL teaching.

Robertson (2000, p. 157) found that the definite article omission can be expected with references whose “definite article is pragmatically redundant” because “the information encoded in the article is highly recoverable from the context”. The learners most probably believed that the senses of the noun phrases would by and large be evident to the reader from the context provided in their essays. Since the reader would strongly be the researcher herself who presented the topic for them to write about and who would assumingly be acquainted with the potential issues to be mentioned, the meanings would easily be conveyed to her even if they were not concerned much about the article use.

As it has already been stated, word order (WO) errors in the essays were not in high frequencies. The reason for this could be the very distinct properties of the two languages, Turkish and English, as pointed out by an anonymous member (participant at ABLA 2008) upon the presentation of the preliminary results of the current study (Yalçın, 2008). The “sentence formation rules” (Turan, 2004, p. 161) in Turkish are distinct from those in English. Namely, the unmarked word order in Turkish is “*subject-(object-)predicate* (SOV) in verbal sentences and *subject – predicate* in nominal sentences” (Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 388). However, in English, the main verb of a sentence typically stands right after the subject which is followed by an object (SVO). That WO errors, and also errors with existential and copulative constructions, are not so frequent may be attributed to the long years of formal instruction of English, from a hopeful point of view; the linguistic parameters related to the word order may have already been set correctly in most of the learners’ minds by that time. Another possibility was that they may have avoided some syntactic structures where they felt trapped in the word order. Feldman et al. (2008) hypothesized that learners may avail themselves of error-avoidance strategies from time to time.

Omission errors of articles were widespread in singular noun phrases but not in plural and mass noun phrases (cf. p. 90), which can be attributed to the optionality in

the use of modifiers for Turkish noun phrases, the only obligatory constituent being the head noun.

(143) *oda* ‘the **room**’

(144) *büyük bir oda* ‘a large **room**’

(145) [*Mustafa'nın çalışma odası olarak kullandığı*] *oda*  
‘the **room** that Mustafa uses as a study’

(Göksel & Kerslake, 2005, p. 162)

The example noun phrases in Examples (143-145) from Turkish language represent the cases of how nouns can either stand alone or take modifiers when they are definite, indefinite and singular.

Misinformation errors with indefinite noun phrases included the use of “*the*” instead of “*a*” in non-specific environments (cf. p. 105). Since the misinformation errors occurred very infrequently, we believe that a satisfactory discussion cannot be articulated. Our finding gives partial support to Ionin et al. (2003). They expressed that L1-Korean learners of English overused “*the*” in indefinite contexts, but mainly for specific singular contexts rather than non-specific, with one exceptional case of “denial of speaker knowledge”. They explained that this surprisingly frequent use of “*the*” with a specific indefinite may have been a product of “partitivity effect”, as stated in the following explanation:

The unexpectedly high overuse of *the* in (14) [singular non-specific indefinite (denial of speaker knowledge)] among the L1-Korean speakers may have resulted from a partitivity effect induced by the phrase ...*I don't know which one* in this context (where the use of *which one* implies the existence of a contextually salient set).

(Ionin et al., 2003, p. 253)

Returning to our own finding, the misinformation of “*the*” generally occurred with singular indefinite non-specific nouns (p. 106) in the texts. It may be speculated that the learners have an espoused theory that English noun phrases can be used in

singular form either with an article or in bare (i.e. articleless) form, and if so, this should commonly be “*the*”. It is supposed that the theory may have originated from the unmarked nature of the definite article and its highly frequent use in the English language (Master, 2002, p. 332).

Additionally, a majority of specific phrases with an article error in the data included erroneous uses of the definite article “*the*”. The definite article in English is generally associated with specificity by L2 learners. This is because English does not have an article classification for specificity (Ionin, 2003, p. 79, 105; Snape et al., 2006, p. 132). In addition, Turkish learners of English language may be inclined to encode specificity by using the definite article *the*, and non-specificity by dropping it. Thus, they made abundant errors of definite article use in this context. They may be using overgeneralization strategy since they have not acquired the use of the definite article “the”.

Article errors were mostly found with the generic-plural nouns and non-generic-singular nouns. Probably the learners tend to use the definite article with plural generic nouns for one of two reasons: either due to the presence of, for example, a restrictive relative clause describing the noun, or again because they may adhere to using *the* for different reasons as mentioned above. The generic uses of noun phrases with the definite article are addition errors of *the* with either plural or mass nouns. Addition errors with both generic and non-generic nouns emerged to a greater extent than omission and misinformation errors. Although a restrictive relative clause, or *of*-genitive, restricts the meaning of a plural noun to some extent, the entities being referred to may correspond to all the members in the world that satisfy the description present in the whole noun phrase.

With non-generic singular nouns, the learners tend to omit either definite or indefinite article. This may be explained by the uses of both bare non-generic and generic in Turkish, as in the following examples.

(146) *İşçiler apartmanı bir günde boyadılar.*

‘**The workmen** painted the building in one day.’ [-generic]

(147) *Aslan* yattığı yerden belli olur.

‘You can tell **a lion** from where he dwells’<sup>14</sup>. [+generic]

(Turkish proverb)

Example (146) contains the Turkish noun phrase *işçiler*, which is used as non-generic and specific in this sentence, with no articles or any other determiners. Likewise, Example (147) includes *aslan* in the generic sense again with no articles or determiners. These uses in the learners’ L1 may be a decisive factor in the article omissions in the following example sentences from the data.

(148) *Moreover, my friends and I went to (GA) 0 \$a\$ concert in 2 Eylül campus.*  
(3-244 AE)

(149) *so (GA) 0 \$the\$ universit authority should take all precautions in order to hinder these bad possibilities.* (3-266 AE)

In Example (148), the specific noun “concert” lacks the indefinite article while the noun “*universit authority*” (learner spelling, which means “university authority”) in Example (149) lacks the definite article. The explanations for these examples based on the learners’ L1 also seem to be convincing as for the discourse level findings. A majority of the noun phrases with article errors represent either Brand-new or Inferrable entities, both of which are discourse-new uses of noun phrases (cf. p. 118). Most of Inferrable uses comprise omission errors of “*the*”, which indicates a lack in the use of “*the*”, once more, this time for entities which appear for the first time in discourse.

Concerning the potential sources of the article errors found in the present investigation, several assumptions can be proposed based on arguments on the findings from the corpus data. One source can be the learners’ lack of attention to

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<sup>14</sup> This proverb is used in the meaning that “a person’s character shows itself from his surroundings” (from the Wikiquote website: [http://en.wikiquote.org/wiki/Turkish\\_proverbs](http://en.wikiquote.org/wiki/Turkish_proverbs))

the target forms in the input. That is, learners may have not yet processed adequately the information or meaning value conveyed by a definite article above all.

VanPatten (2002) suggests in his “principles of input processing” (p. 758) that the meaning of a sentence/utterance is processed before its form. Namely, learners are inclined to attend to the content words first, and the lexical items before grammatical ones. Since it is neither a content word nor a lexical item, the definite article seems to be a good candidate to be ignored in the input. VanPatten underlines that learners need to establish “form-meaning connections in the input” (p. 798). One of the reasons that make learning the articles difficult for the learners is that there is no one-form-one-meaning relationship in the article use (Master, 2002).

On the other hand, learners may not see a “communicative value” (VanPatten, 2002, p. 760) in the use of the definite article; they may not be able to infer what this article is meant to communicate, and therefore they may not acquire - or “intake” - how it is used. Nevertheless, it also seems likely that the definite article *the* may be a prototypical example of the English script from the viewpoint of the learners, which makes the writing more “English-like” or “English-ish” in their eyes. The likelihood of wishing to sound more English, and thus overgeneralizing the definite article use, may account for the high rates of addition errors in the data.

Though we did not set out to investigate native language influence, or to seek explanations for the surfacing learner errors from different perspectives, the discussions above compelled us to touch upon these debatable and thorny issues. What’s more, the results led us to notice that relations involving specificity, genericity, uniqueness and discourse features of the noun phrases with errors in the data could have revealed further explanations. Still, the issues can lead to future studies which may confirm or disprove them.

## 5. CONCLUSION

This chapter is composed of a concise summary of the present research, including the major findings emerging in the study, of conclusions drawn from the results attained, of implications for language teaching and teacher education, of limitations of the research, and of suggestions for studies to be administered in the future.

### 5.1. Summary of the Research

This study aimed at shedding light into FL teaching and teacher training fields by means of identifying the syntactic error types in ELT student essays, finding out whether there was a difference in the errors according to the class level and the error type, and describing the frequent errors on the basis of the parameters of omission, addition and misinformation, and of their syntactic, semantic and discourse environments. With this aim in mind, it sought answers to the following research questions:

1. What types of syntactic errors are produced by Turkish speaking ELT students in their English argumentative essays?
2. Is there a significant difference in the syntactic errors according to:
  - 2.1. the class level?
  - 2.2. the error type?
3. How can the frequent types of errors be described in terms of the parameters of:
  - 3.1. omission,
  - 3.2. addition and
  - 3.3. misinformation?
4. How can the most frequent type of error be described at:
  - 4.1. syntactic,
  - 4.2. semantic and
  - 4.3. discourse  
levels?



Setting out from these research questions, the following points have been made as a consequence of the analyses performed.

The answers to the abovementioned research questions were investigated by quantitative and qualitative means. The quantitative aspect was reflected on several occasions. The first was that the syntactic errors in the essays were quantified, aggregated and tabulated on the basis of frequencies and percentages. Second occasion was that the identified errors of the two groups of students, that is year 1 and year 3 students' texts, were compared to one another using a statistically valid and reliable test (the Mann-Whitney U test). Last but not the least occasion was that the detected error types in the data were once more compared so as to arrive at findings related to the potential differences between their numbers of occurrences by embarking on the statistical analysis of another test called Kruskal-Wallis test. Still the frequency counts and percentages were over again employed for the quantitative descriptions of errors of omission, addition and misinformation.

This study has demonstrated that Turkish speaking ELT students' argumentative essays commonly included error types of article use, verb use, noun use and pronoun use as well as less frequently occurring error types of determiner use, adjective use, adverb use, word class, and word order. This finding shaped the answer to the first research question posed in the research.

The first sub-part of the second research question examining the existence of any significant difference between the Year 1 and Year 3 levels in the study was not statistically supported. The comparison was performed on the basis of the main types of errors, like verb use, but not the subcategories, like verb tense. The reason why the subcategories could not be compared was their generally low frequencies within themselves to perform statistical calculations with.

The second sub-part of the second research question examining the existence of any significant difference among the identified nine error types was partially supported.

The difference was found merely between the frequency of article errors together with verb errors and all other types of errors in the data. In other words, the numbers of errors in the article use and verb use were significantly different from the numbers of the remaining types of errors. This was the information needed for the detailed analysis of the frequent error types emerging in the learner data, which would constitute the answer to the next research question of the study.

The surfacing article errors and verb errors were described in terms of the parameters of omission, addition and misinformation. These parameters were adopted from Dulay et al.'s (1982) Surface Structure Taxonomy, which is aimed to mirror in what ways the language learners use the target structures erroneously. The major findings for article use were that the most recurrent pattern with article errors was addition on the whole while omission was prevalent specifically in the indefinite article use. More to the point, the mostly omitted English article was the indefinite article "a" when it was needed with a singular noun, and the most redundantly used article was the definite article "the" when it was needed with a plural noun or a mass noun. In addition, the infrequent errors of misinformation - precisely the use of an article instead of another article or another determiner like "their" - emerged generally as the misuse of the definite article "the" with a singular noun. Besides, the main findings for verb use were that the prevailing parameter employed for description was misinformation, and the highest number of errors surface as the errors made in subject-verb agreement.

Finally, the article errors, which comprised approximately as large as one third of all the syntactic errors, were described at syntactic, semantic and discourse levels. The widespread redundant use of the definite article "the" was discovered to be occurring generally in [-specific], [+generic] plus [+plural], and [-unique] noun phrases and in the noun phrases which were newly introduced in the discourse. The extensive omission of the indefinite article "a" took place commonly in [-specific], [-generic], and [-unique] noun phrases, and again in the noun phrases which were newly introduced in the discourse. Furthermore, the misuse of the definite article "the" as a replacement for another article or determiner was observed in [-specific], [-generic],

and [-unique] noun phrases and in the noun phrases which were yet again newly introduced in the discourse as either a brand-new or inferrable entity.

Last but not the least, the research studies performing analyses of L2 learners' article use (e.g. Ekiert, 2004; Ionin, 2003; Ionin, et al., 2003; Izumi & Isahara, 2004; Izumi et al., 2005; Trenkic, 2008) employed either a ready learner corpus like NICT JLE, or administered tightly controlled activities such as forced choice elicitation tests, or short texts like dialogues or isolated sentences with (or without) empty slots to be completed with a definite, indefinite or zero article. On the other hand, the present study conducted analyses on the self-constructed learner corpus data directly from the current student population in focus and under certain circumstances controlling the variability of the data such as the students' L1, FL background, and class levels. This has been estimated to increase the validity of the findings obtained from the essay data.

## **5.2. Conclusion**

What can be concluded from the findings of the present research is that the present learners need to develop their linguistic knowledge of English in the areas of articles and subject-verb agreement, and in the use of the definite article in English in particular. The learners seem to be in need of developing their awareness of the use of an article with a noun phrase when its referent is mentioned for the first time or for subsequent times in the text. This need also applies to the cases when the writer assumes that the reader can infer the meaning either from the existence of a pre- or post modifier as in the example of “under (GA) 0 \$the\$ control *of both parents and teachers*” (from the essay no. 3-213 AE), or from his or her general or speaker-assumed knowledge. The students' target language productions seem to be partly influenced by their native language, namely Turkish. This conclusion was evidenced by comparable examples from the learner corpus data collected in the present research and from the literature on the Turkish language. A further influence seemed to be the learners' internal processes in the forms of overgeneralization, espoused theories and avoidance.

### 5.3. Implications for Language Teaching and Teacher Education

The study can be claimed to be significant for different populations and in various directions, as listed underneath.

- FL teaching and FL teacher training fields are informed about the syntactic properties of the learners' written productions within the scope of the study. The finding that ELT students attending to their third year in the faculty did not do better than those attending to their first year may take effect in language teaching content when "selecting, sequencing and weighing the items to be taught" as suggested by Kennedy (1998, p. 274).
- Adult English language learners can benefit from the information of the errors encountered in their peers' writing. The learners can notice the erroneous forms provided to them when they are engaged in an assortment of form-focused activities. Pursuing activities centring on learner errors may assist increasing metalinguistic as well as linguistic awareness of the learners, primarily of the ELT students.
- The present findings can be beneficial in preparing course materials in accordance with current learner needs. The materials can be prepared by focusing on a choice of different linguistic aspects, such as grammaticality judgement activity sheets.
- It is also felt that the investigation bore fresh fruit for the new ambitious research studies to be administered with the use of computerized learner corpora. On account of the processes of the present methodology, computerizing the learner corpus, tagging the errors in focus, adding their target language corrections and concordancing for conducting the needed analyses have been the strengths of the present study.

- For the error tagging and further analysis processes, the researcher and the native speaker corrector's working separately on the whole caused ambiguities. These ambiguities emerged in determining the error tags and the semantic and discourse level features. A closer collaboration between the error annotator and the native speaker corrector would be leading to clearer tagging, that is, fewer ambiguities in choosing the appropriate tags for the errors, and interpreting the different levels of relations.
- The global approach used in this study to investigating Turkish ELT students' syntactic errors in their argumentative essays has been beneficial in terms of illuminating all the relevant areas of difficulty as well as the widespread errors indicating the common areas of difficulty across the two class levels. The difficulty of acquiring the English article system is a widely accepted problem of EFL learners in general, as evidenced in the present study, too. Nonetheless, this study implies that there are some other common drawbacks in the learners' interlanguage, such as subject-verb disagreement, unclear pronominal reference and errors with using the plural morpheme. Conducting research on these difficulty areas plus the semantic and discourse relations between the noun phrases with article errors are due henceforth.

#### **5.4. Limitations in the Research**

The present research can be argued to overcome most of the limitations of traditional EA methods. Firstly, this study comprised the collection of a learner corpus which is made up of homogeneous learner data collected systematically from Turkish L1 ELT students attending to the same department at the same time period. Secondly, the present data were collected from two different class groups of learners with a two-year gap to observe the developmental aspect, rather than a static picture of L2 learning. Thirdly, the learner corpus data were analysed thoroughly by the researcher and a native speaker, and error tags were assigned by the use of clearly defined error categories.

Still, it is always essential to mention the limitations of the research study conducted in order that future research studies take measures for prospective outcomes. The error identification phase of error analysis was completed in collaboration with one native speaker corrector. This may have affected the identifications and corrections of the errors, and thus the tagging process, as argued by Barlow (2005, p. 340) as well. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005, p. 59) also underline that there can be different linguistic forms of “reconstructions” (cf. Corder, 1981, p. 37; Ellis, 1995, p. 57, namely native speaker-corrected versions) of learner sentences, and they add that there may be some “dispreferred forms” in reconstructions. This is stated to be a situation which entails “subjective judgements of acceptability”. As for the native speaker’s reconstructions, Corder (1981, p. 37) maintains that they are like “translations” into the foreign language and that EA resembles to CA from this viewpoint, comparing pairs of utterances, which renders “interpretation” of learner statements a decisive factor for the whole analysis process. This factor is profoundly significant, as Corder (1981, p. 38) explains, when we cannot find the opportunity to consult the learner for his or her intentions during writing. Accordingly, the collaboration of the researcher with more than one native speaker is suggested for further studies.

The present study also draws on the native speaker’s interpretations of learners’ written statements. These “plausible interpretations” (Corder, 1981, p. 38), nevertheless, are based on the “form and (...) linguistic and situational context” of the learner’s statements, as Corder (1981, p. 38) stands for. He maintains that even making sense of speech in our native language is subject to our predictions of the speaker’s intended meanings, and that, accordingly, the interpretations of the native speaker on the “form and context” of learner statements entail the native speaker’s knowledge of the learner and of the learner’s knowledge of the language. He informs that this is why the interpretations are called “plausible” and the consequent native speaker corrections as “plausible reconstructions” (p. 38).

As mentioned in the literature review chapter, avoidance is one of the proposed weaknesses of traditional EA studies. Nevertheless, it is argued that we can dispose

of this limitation by examining comparable native speaker texts. For the present study, it was not possible to collect such equivalent data, which had to possess the characteristics of being produced by the same age group, in the written mode, representing a single genre, and at parallel length. Yet, if collected, such data would help compare and contrast different structures employed in language learner data in order to discover which ones were avoided. Such information may have yielded helpful suggestions on FL teaching practices.

Another issue is that traditional EA was criticized for being restricted to what the learner cannot do. The present study only aimed to cover up the learner errors. Therefore, the learners' correct uses of challenging structures was not dealt with for the present work. Finally, the data were elicited from 8794-word learner essays, which is a sub-corpus of a larger project funded by TÜBİTAK. If there had been a more comprehensive corpus, this study could have been generalized to wider populations.

### **5.5. Suggestions for Future Research**

The purpose of the present study was to collect information on the syntactic errors of the ELT students in their written productions with reference to error types, error frequencies and error descriptions in order to illuminate FL teaching and teacher training fields about these concerns and to be a starting point for further studies, having a computerized learner corpus within reach. Discovering the learners' avoidance behaviour and reasons in their written work, explaining the sources of errors or making judgements pertaining to the seriousness of errors were not within the scope of the present study. Hence, these themes of enquiry can yield to rewarding research in the ELT field.

The circumstances and possible origins of the current findings can be examined further by collecting more data from a comparable learner corpus and comparing the findings with those emerged in the present study. In addition, collecting and

analysing larger data can verify or disprove the present findings and add other dimensions like proficiency.

“Since the use of learner corpora is a new development, many of the results must be regarded as preliminary until a wider range of learner corpora are available for analysis, covering a range of proficiency levels and a number of L1-L2 combinations.”

(Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 336)

Now that no significant difference was encountered between the performances of the two class levels in the present study, a further descriptive study can be designed comparing the participants' grade point averages and their performance in this study. The proposed study might aim to investigate a potential relationship between the students' academic success in ELT department and their syntactic errors.

The findings of the present study revealed that a majority of the syntactic errors were made within main clauses. On the other hand, most of the auxiliary (GVAUX) omissions and a part of subject-verb agreement (GVN) errors were committed within subordinate clauses to a greater extent than other error categories. The circumstances and possible origins of this finding can be examined further as the focus of a future research which would collect more data from a comparable corpus.

Learner corpora are very rich data sources and merit deeper investigation with the latest technological advances for different learner groups and learning settings. The FL teacher researchers can further analyse a choice of aspects of the findings obtained in this research. Namely, they may wish to re-utilize the learner corpus data by attending to the same or different problematic features of learner language which they noticed themselves at some stage in their classroom practices. The research can be acknowledged as a preliminary work to determine on what structures to conduct in-depth analyses predominantly. They can expand the data, for increasing its generalization or in case of some other necessity, by collecting a larger number of texts from comparable students under similar conditions to those present in this study.



In addition, the computer error editor program UCLEE can be utilized for detecting the frequencies and environments of typical linguistic productions of learners, such as overused or underused lexical items, or grammatical forms such as “can”. The present findings can be compared to authentic texts in a native speaker corpus for language learners’ noticing and awareness of the target language forms. Such a study can shed light into the instruction for the needed target vocabulary items and grammar points.

In a future replication of the present study it may be worthwhile to consult the participants from whom the data were collected, for eliciting their *authoritative interpretations* (Corder, 1981, p. 37-38) of the erroneous sentences in their own texts. These interpretations are expected to guide error corrections and provide clues for the potential sources of syntactic errors. Such collaboration with the learner writers can be realized by way of different qualitative research methods, such as conducting interviews after formulating relevant questions to be asked *a priori* or in a completely unstructured, informal way, to explore various possible origins of the non-targetlike forms in the learners’ productions.

## APPENDICES

## APPENDIX I. Argumentative Essays

1-46 AE

### IT SHOULD BE BANNED

It is a fact that alcohol is a kind of narcotic substance. As we all know it has many harms to people's body and health. Moreover, it has a very bad effect on brain. It is said that alcohol reduces brain and kills cells. Furthermore, it cause lots of bad events and these events affect all of us negatively. Also smoking cigarettes is not a good thing. Smoke cigarettes has a bad effect for all of us, too. It cause lots of disease and it gives harm people who do not smoke.

To sell and drink alcoholic drinks should not be allowed in university campus. Because, campus is the place to which lots of students come to learn good thing. Students want to be in peace in campus. if selling and drinking alcoholic drinks be allowed in campus, Students can fight and quarrel, they can perform unpleasant behaviour with the effect of alcohol. Because if a person drinks alcohol he or she can not control himself or herself, can not know how to behave. if selling alcoholic drinks in campus is allowed, students who do not use alcohol even want to buy and try it with the effect of friends. As a result, to sell and drink alcoholic drinks should be banned in campus because of many negative effects.

Smoke cigarettes in campus should not be allowed in campus because as we all know it is a harmful thing moreover it can give harm to people who do not smoke cigarettes. Because of people who smokes, we also affect negatively. There should be some places or rooms for smoking cigarettes. if so, they can smoke comfortably and without giving any harm to all of us and to air. Also it pollutes air, it cause to smell our clothes, even our hair.

In conclusion, to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus should not be allowed so we can live more happily and healthy, we can live in peace in campus.

1-51 AE

## RESTRICTIONS

We are living in a world full of restrictions. In fact it is the same case in campuses. I think it shouldn't be banned to sell and drink alcohol and smoke cigarettes, in university campus.

Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes are something which are personal. Every one of the person has the right whether to drink – smoke or not. There is only one point when they should be banned. When people who are drinking alcohol disturb others in campus and give harm to the environment so there can be some restrictions. The students in a university should be mature enough, they should know how to behave.

In universities the ages of students are over 18, so they have the logic of life. In some way or another they come there with difficulties. After coming university they want to relax (I think they're certainly right). Because passing the university exam is not an easy one. So without any harm they can do whatever they want in the campus. Even if drinking alcohol is banned I can see lots of students in campus drinking alcohol on the grasses. And this is not something to fear. Smoking cigarette also can not be banned but in some places they can be made restrictions. For example in buildings it should be banned but in campus it shouldn't.

All in all we should be accustomed to living with these restrictions, because they're parts of our lives.

1-52 AE

#### DEFEND WITH CLEAR BRAINS

Cigarette and alcohol are the international problems. In every country we hear that there are some rules about the places and the age limit to buy them. In Turkey for example, if you are more than 18, you can buy alcohol/cigarette. Even if we know the rules and all of us know the harms of them, we overlook our young's being poisoned by them. Besides this, some factors encourage youngs to use these poisons. For instance these factors that they see their best actors', actresses' or anyone's, who they see as a model to themselves, smoking cigarette or drinking alcohol. And youngs reach these poisons easily or hardly to be like these people.

Even in school, in university, we see someone who use them openly. Fortunately in our campus there is a special place, room for people who want to smoke. This is a good rule. Because I can say I've a smoke allergy.

My point which I defend is that both of them, especially alcoholic drinking shouldn't be used/sold in university campus. Because they are harmful for brain cells and the university's job is to improve goodly the brains of students. So allowing to sell and use them is an absurd thing.

The moment this subject is in agenda, the students are separated two parts as who use them and who not use them. Even though all defence we don't want to see smoke or the bottles of the alcoholic drinkings in our university campus.

1-56 AE

It shouldn't be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in university campus because of one reason: university campus is a public and official place so it is rudeness to do these acts. Imagine that you are drinking wine in the school. Is it right? So it isn't wise to separate university campus from other public places. I see university students drinking alcohol bought from Migros in the shadows of trees. They get drunk and do unacceptable acts. The same thing is right for cigarettes. Campus is a public place that everyone has the same rights. We sit on grasses and people near us begin to smoke. We are disturbed by their smokes but can not do anything because they are allowed to smoke in open air. Not just in open air but in faculties, they smoke in corridors. No one does anything to prevent them even if it says on warnings that smoking cigarettes is banned. They have a smoking room but they don't smoke there. So building a smoking room is not a solution. The only solution is banning the selling and drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes and punishing those who do not obey this rule.

1-58 AE

People's right

Selling or drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking are a widespread problem in the world. The government give permission to the producers in order to produce harmful substances and at the same time the government have been trying to take precaution it's consumption also. Therefore anybody doesn't decide to allow or not. Everybody has right that they choose whatever they want. The university students should be taken into consideration as an adult because they can decide whichever is useful or harmful for them.

Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarette are harmless according to university students because of their relaxing and enjoyable effects. People use it and they relax. In this way, they don't give harm to other people to solve their problems. They can reach the solution on their own. However this pleasure are temporary. Also they are addictive. As I said, anybody even if the government doesn't have the right to tell us what we can or what we can not consume. They should be sold and this fact doesn't bother others.

Drinking and smoking are optional. People can use them because the government allow to produce it. But people should determine their own bound. Selling and drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes should be allowed. If they can not buy them from campus, they will buy them from outside. The best solution is that students should buy them from campus and consume them in the campus. Thus they protect themselves from the harmful effect of outside.

1-66 AE

I think, it should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus on limited. Because everyone in this country are living in freedom. So, if someone want to drink or smoke, he/she can do it freely.

But, although there are so freedom, inside places, closed areas are not suitable to smoke. As everyone know that smoke and drink alcohol are harmful to health of us. In the universities, this information should be told to the students. But any obligation can harm to students who are between 20-30.



1-75 AE

Alcohol and cigarette is harmful which purpose it is smoked or drunk. They always threaten our life. Whenever we see someone drinking or smoking, we feel away from them and even some of use can be afraid of them. Extensive usage of them can create lots of problems. As you see there are lots of harms of them. So they shouldn't be used in university campus not to meet any problem.

When we think the possible problems, we can say that the young who drunk extensively can fight with other students or he can even cause someone else's death. Because, he isn't conscious at that time. Sometimes he can't find money for alchocol or cigarette and he can steal something and he makes himself miserable in front of everyone. They become away from people in time and can't connect with them. They become unsocial and alone day by day.

Whatever happens, alcohol and smoking should be banned in university campus, especially in closed areas. Otherwise; we'll have to face with some difficult problems. So we should take precautions for it in a short time.

1-80 AE

BANS SEEM BETTER, BUT...

Using and selling alcohol and cigarettes has always been a problem in our society. There has been debates whether they should allow it or not. I think, it should be allowed to sell and using alcohol and cigarettes in the university campus.

First of all, alcoholic drinks and cigarettes are all available outside the campus so it should be allowed in the campus, too. Because if a person wants to buy and use it, nobody can prevent him doing so. So the ban on selling them in the campus would be useless.

Secondly, the people in the campus would care about themselves, if it is feared that their health would be threatened. Because they are not children, who can't do on their own, they have passed an exam to come here and passed some obstacles so they are aware of what is harmful for their health. And if they use it knowing this, it would be their own problem. It is up to free will and nobody can decide what other people must do or not. Because we live in a free world. The ones who don't use it may prevent themselves when it comes to their health. They may get away from the areas in which people smoke.

Thirdly, if it is feared that the ones who are drunk in campus may cause problems, it is useless again because they may drink outside then may come into campus and disturb the others. But if they can get alcohol and cigarette in the campus in a controlled way, the security can observe them and there won't be any disturbance. You can't know who is drunk in the first look, but if you observe you can understand easily.

In conclusion, any ban on the selling and using the alcoholic drinks and cigarettes would be useless. And if there would be a ban like this, many people who smoke and drink alcohol or not would argue about it and there wouldn't be a peaceful campus. So just let them do what they want, but in a controlled way, of course.

1-83 AE

All the people have some rights in their lives. These people can utilize these rights which have been given to them wherever or whenever they are. Among these people who have rights, of course there are university students. Although some people disagree that university students must not drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus because they are harmful, to drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes are sin, I believe that it should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus because there would not be allowed to drink as much as students could harm to people around, university students have enough conscious about how much to drink or smoke and they are all over 18-year.

First of all, I think that there would not be allowed students or other people in the university campus to drink alcoholic drinks as much as they harm to people around them or environment. The reason of it is that there are so many security employees who have rights to warn people who drink much and do necessary things. So that if students don't drink as much as they become drunk, they can drink whenever they want. Moreover, I think that smoking cigarettes must be allowed to every university students and there are not only strange situations.

Second, university students are among the most educated and conscious people. They know what and how much of it is harmful and beneficial to themselves. I believe that they don't pass over the limit. In this case, there is not any objection that they drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes.

Finally, Not only university students but also all people who are over 18-year have right to drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes. Nobody can limit their right. Whatever, wherever and whenever they want, they can do. For instance, I am also an university student. I know that I have this right; however, I don't want to use this right, but I can use.

In conclusion, it should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus. All the students are over 18-year, they have enough conscious to know what is harmful to them and there are security officials who warn students that pass over the limit. So there is not any strange situation; however, I don't say that all university students should drink and smoke, of course.

1-85 AE

Alcoholic drinks and cigarettes are really popular among the teenagers as well as the grows-ups. Those who use one of them or both have their own reasons why they do so, at least they say so. However we all know that these two are both unhealthy for us and also, alcoholic drinks are forbidden for us according to our precious religion. So, it should never be allowed to sell alcoholic drinks or smoke cigarettes in the university campus.

Firstly, to tell the truth, nowadays, the number of those starting to smoke have been going up and the total number of smokers have been rising, too. This kind of people often ignore the conditions they might be in in the future. They are killing themselves day by day, and also they are doing a big harm to the others around them. So, these people should think twice to smoke. Moreover, by selling cigarettes, we help those people poisonous both themselves and us. This might be for the fact that they are modelling the others. Cigarettes must be forbidden no matter what!

Second and last thing about the situation is about the alcoholic drinks. My first reason is about the people's possible reactions after they drink. They may lose control of themselves and behave rudely. They may also do worse things, even the things one cannot think. Second reason is about the religion of course. We are all Muslims and our religion forbids us to drink alcoholic drinks. This is a must, so everyone must stick to it in this way or another.

All in all, people should stop using or selling those bad things on account of both religion and our health. I personally recommend that something be done at once or else our precious life will not be precious anymore. Let's take the necessary steps before it is too late.

1-87 AE

### BAN ON BAD HABITS: ARE WE IN HIGH SCHOOL?

Smoking cigarettes and drinking alcoholic drinks in the campus is very common nowadays. Although every person is responsible for himself or herself and university has places where smoking is allowed, there are a lot of students who drink and smoke in the places where it is not allowed. However, there are several reasons why selling of such things as cigarettes and alcoholic drinks allowed in the campus.

In Turkey, traditional view of such bad habits as drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes is not sharp enough to hinder people who have tendency to them. Most of the population, which includes university students, smoke or drink.

First of all, one reason can be that people who works in the campus earn money from students who smoke or drink. For example; in the campus of Anadolu University, there is a big shopping market naming Migros. They earn money from students but mostly from students who have bad habits. University can ban selling such things but students can find a way to it. They can buy what they want from outside and get them into the university maybe in their bags.

Another reason can be that, we can not change students habits in the university. However, there should be some strict rules for them. For example; selling of cigarettes and alcoholic drinks should be in limited times, maybe in the evening. This solution can be tried but we are in the university and everybody won't obey the rules, obviously.

As you see, there is not much we can do about the selling of cigarettes or alcoholic drinks in the campus because we are not in the high school, rules can not work here. Therefore, the university should make some places where students can smoke or drink in order not to disturb the others who don't have such habits.

1-105 AE

### NO ALCOHOL OR CIGARTTES!

Alcohol and cigarettes are sweeping for the economy of the whole world lately. The university campus give allowance to sell and drink alcohol or smoke cigarettes. But, they don't think that they harm the young people. They only think their profit maximization. The sell and utilization of them shouldn't be allowed in university campus.

First, if a student drink alcohol or smoke cigarettes, he/she can die much more earlier. Because, they affect their heath badly. At the end of this situation, the universities have to lose the bright brains which improve the world at a great pace. They drive you in an incurable disease, and you have to continue your life with a disease towards death. Finally, both of them get you unheathy.

Next, it results in aging earlier. In other words, you get seen older because of the effects of alcoholic drinks and cigarettes. This spoils your self-confidence through wrinkle of your faces. People, without self-confidence, cannot be productive and creative enough. All in all, it get you die and age much more earlier. Therefore, all is considered, it shouldn't be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus.

1-106 AE

University is a different place from other education centres in that it gives more freedom to its students. And so, students do most of what they want because of this freedom. However there are some controversial subjects that should be discussed such as drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes in the university campus. In this subject, it should be allowed to sell alcoholic drinks and cigarettes because of the freedom in the campus.

First, as we said, there are more freedom in the campus than other education places and so there should be some facilities and opportunities for the university students which differs them from other students. One of these opportunities or facilities can be drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes in the campus. But this facility should be planned very carefully as it may cause some problems in the campus. For example, selling alcoholic drinks and cigarettes should be sold at certain times and at limited quantities. By doing so we can decrease the rate of problems in this situation.

Secondly, students who want to buy alcoholic drinks would buy alcoholic drinks outside if there isn't a place where cigarettes and alcoholic drinks aren't sold. In fact, this may cause some problems as we limit the freedom of the students in the campus. Also, by opening some centres which sell alcoholic drinks and cigarettes, we can contribute to the university economy.

In conclusion, we shouldn't forget that university is a place where freedom lives. So there should be some signs of this freedom such as drinking alcohol. And, this should be done under law.

1-107 AE

Since the university students pass the university exam with difficulty, they are in luckies among the youngers, so they should know this privilege very well. Therefore, I strongly believe that these university students should not be allowed to sell and drink and smoke cigarettes in the university campus for many reasons.

Firstly, when some university students smoke cigarette or drink alcohol, the others can be affected in a bad way. Or, allowing them to sell these harmful materials also encourage students to buy them. So selling and drinking should not be allowed in the university campus.

Secondly, when they drink and smoke, they have some health problems such as lung cancer, astym or cirrhosis, and throat cancer. Also they give harm their environment. So, most students become both active and passive smoker.



1-108 AE

Students come to university to be free of restrictions and want to live as they want. Some students may exaggerate this and can be alcoholic but prohibition of selling alcohol in the campus doesn't prevent them from drinking it. Some people may think that campus will be safer but it shouldn't be forgotten that they can come into campus after they drink or they can buy alcoholic drinks out of campus and drink them in the campus. Namely, it would be no use forbidding them, it would just cause university to seem conservative. It is the same case with smoking. University students are in an age to make their own decisions. If they have bad habits you can do nothing but to inform them of the harms which they already know. So both of them should be allowed.

1-110 AE

Students have some bad habits such as smoking and drinking. It is better if they don't have but if you want to do nothing can prevent them from doing so. Hence students should be allowed to smoke and drink in the university campus.

Firstly, they do whatever they want. Lots of students smoke and drink in the campus. Smoking can not be forbidden in any way, because cigarette is a need like bread, water for many students nowadays. It is also forbidden in our dormitory, but no one obey the rule. I see lots of students smoking in the rooms.

Secondly, drinking also can not be forbidden. To prevent students from drinking in the campus, the president of the university forbade Migros to sell the alcoholic drinks. On the other hand, this way has no use. In that I see lots of students drinking in the campus. I think they get their drinks outside the campus.

Thirdly, smoking and drinking is a way of comforting the students. Students are alone in this city. They have nobody to take care of them. They are responsible of themselves. Therefore they will see no forbidden or permission. They will do whatever they want.

Consequently, students have a free life at the university. They think that they are all an individual and they have rights of themselves. Therefore it is unnecessary not to permit them to drink or smoke.

1-111 AE

## HARMFUL HABITS

Students of our university are too relax to ignore the other people that are around them. They are accustomed to live free. Also they assume that of is there were noone apart from themselves so, they can do whatever they want. Anymore, alcohol and cigarettes are so ordinary that everybody uses them everywhere, in schools, in the streets, etc... These harmful habits should be banned in the university campus to me because of three reasons, such as, students spend their money for these harmful things, campus becomes dirty and students can argue or fight with eachother when they use alcohol.

First, students have limited budget, but still they spend much money. Besides these big expenses, they have a habit of using harmful things like alcohol and cigarettes. For this reason, they have no money and they have to want money from their family. Poor people send money to their children without knowing for what children spend their money. So using alcohol and smoking cigarettes should be banned in the campus.

Second, in the campus, students use alcohol and cigarettes and they throw away packets or bottles to the environment. So, our nice campus looks dirty. Using alcohol and cigarettes, students both damages themselves and the environment that they liven in. To look better and attractive everytime, alcohol and cigarettes have to be banned in the campus.

Finally, students who drink alcohol in the campus might be angry, and these students can fight eachother, thus there is a confusion among the students in the campus. Forexample, three days ago, there was fighting between two boys in the campus. One of them was drunk and he had girlfriend with him. Another boy looked at his girlfriend and because of this reason they fought. However; if the boy hadn't been drunk, they could not have fought. They can reach an agreement by talking. As a result, to eliminate or decrease these fighting, using alcohol should not be allowed in the campus.

In conclusion, using alcohol and smoking cigarettes damages people. Especially they are used in campus, they can cause more serious problem among the students. Alcohol and cigarettes should be banned in the campus due to some reasons like; spending extra money, having a dirty campus and fighting among the students.

3-187 AE

University means freedom for many students. They want to do anything they want in the campus. One of them is smoking and alcoholic drinks. In my opinion, it shouldn't be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus and I have some reasons for that.

First, alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes are very bad things in terms of health. And university campuses shouldn't be a place which helps you use these things. If we come to university to improve ourselves mentally, and if university campus is a place in which you can improve yourself in many ways, it shouldn't help you harm yourself. For example all of my friends have come to university to get a job; to improve themselves, not to give harm to their health. So university campus shouldn't include any harmful things for students. They shouldn't be allowed to sell or use in the campus.

My second reason for that is that they shouldn't be bad models to people if they are university students. Primary school or secondary school students take us as models, so we shouldn't be a bad model for them. Otherwise, they may want to use these things if they are allowed in the campus.

Anyway, it shouldn't be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the campus.

3-195 AE

### FREEDOM IN CAMPUS LIFE

It should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus. It is everyone's own choice whether to drink, smoke or not. The people in the campus should be free to do so for several reasons. The people in the university are adults and the environment in the university should allow everyone to be free.

Everyone in the university are all grown-up individuals and are able to make their own decisions. So they should decide whether drinking alcohols, smoking cigarettes are true or not. If they want to smoke they do. It can't be prevented by imposing some rules to them. The presence of rules means nothing if someone want to do something. But if a person believes in the rules and agrees with them, they obey. This is because they wish, believe and agree, not because of the presence of the rules.

Another point is that the university environment should be free. Everyone should be able to do what (s)he wants without disturbing others. Similarly people can drink or smoke in the campus without disturbing others. Prevention of selling alcoholic drinks or smoking is not a fair rule so the enviroment of campus or university isn't democratic. In a democratic environment there should be place to everyone from different ideas, backgrounds, beliefs.

In conclusion it's necessary for the environment of university to let the people make their own choices and provide a democratic environment. It's not sensible to prevent smoking cigarettes, selling and drinking alcoholic drinks in the campus.

3-213 AE

### DRINKING AND SMOKING IN CAMPUS

University is a different world in human life. After being educated for years under control of both parents and teachers, university is seen a place where everything can be done. Since, there is no family or teacher pressure on students. Students decide everything themselves, whether their decisions are true or not.

This freedom sometimes makes students do abnormal things. Some people think drinking and smoking as one of these abnormal things and claim that it should be banned to drink alcohol and smoke cigarettes in the campus. However, I totally disagree with that idea. Since, a university student is mature enough to decide what's good and what's bad for him. People shouldn't decide for a university student. Besides, students may feel bad sometimes. In these times, alcohol or cigarette may be like a medicine for them. In such a situation, students drink a little alcohol or smoke a few cigarettes. If they aren't sold in the campus, what would they do? Therefore, I think that alcohol and cigarette should be sold in the campus and students should be allowed to use them.

In conclusion, I think that people should respect university students' decisions. So, drinking alcohol and smoking in the campus should not be problem.

3-214 AE

### PERSONAL CHOICE

Alcoholic drinks and cigarettes are exactly harmful for health. But, if it is asked whether their usage should be forbidden in the university campus, or not. I say that it shouldn't because drinking and smoking is a personal choice.

Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes are the actions which people should decide on to do or not. In a university campus, there are people who can evaluate things they do. They can think of being healthy and unhealthy. Upon this they can decide on to give harm themselves or stay undamaged. They should be thinking that if they drink alcoholic drink, they will give harm to their liver and if they smoke cigarettes, they will damage their lungs. It is just like attending classes. It is up to you. If you come, you win, you learn and if you don't, you lose. You give harm to you in another way.

A person between 18-22 should use their brain appropriately, and evaluate his/her behaviour correctly and decide on the best one.

In conclusion drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes in the university campus needn't to be forbidden. People in the university have personal choices so they are free to choose to be healthy or unhealthy.

3-222 AE

Millions of people around the world drink alcohol and smoke cigarettes, nowadays. This means a lot of money is spent for these products. Even if we know the harms of these things, we can spend a lot on it. Because of their harms, I think it should be banned to sell and drink alcoholic and smoke cigarettes in the university campus.

Firstly, if it is allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks in the campus, students can easily reach the alcohol and drink. So, when they are drunk, they can give harm to the other students.

Secondly, drunk students will participate in courses maybe in discussions, then they can affect the fluency of the lesson.

Finally, when it is allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the campus. This will be a chance to start drinking or smoking for non-smoker and non-drinkers.

As a conclusion, it should not be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes because it affects the security of non-drinker and non-smokers and will be a problem in the courses.



3-225 AE

It has been often a wonder to me for many years why man had produced alcohol and cigarette. I have always cursed them, because these harmful substances destroyed many people's lives. I don't see any sense in consuming these.

Today, it is known by nearly everybody, even by the consumers, that alcoholic drinks and smoking destroy our health, psychology and economy. They don't have any benefit and consuming them is called as a gradual suicide. Every year, a lot of traffic accidents, murders, divorces and some other crimes are committed by the users of such substances, because these affect the people's actions in a very negative and destructive way.

Bearing all these in mind, I ask myself and everybody this question: "Then, why people use these or why are these allowed to use?" It is probably because of the problems people have about their personality, psychology and social life.

When I think all of these, I wish at least the people who constitute the intellectual part of the society not use them. These people are aware of many things and they should be positive models for the people, especially the children. As university students are among the intellectual class and as universities are the most distinguished places of education, university students and lecturers shouldn't use alcoholic drinks and cigarette. Even if they use, they shouldn't consume these in the university campus. Therefore it shouldn't be allowed to sell these substances in the campus; because it will be like an encouragement. Also, seeing students who drink alcohol and smoke is a very negative and bad sight. These people cause some problems and do disruptive and immoral behaviours with the effect of the alcohol and this is a shame for a university. So, it should be banned to sell these in the university campus.

3-229 AE

### ALCHOLIC DRINKS AND SMOKING

The answer of this question is very flexible, I think. Because, when I think about the people who have such kinds of habits, it will be very unfair to forbid it in an environment where people have ability to take their decisions about their lives. People are free to do everything they like at the age of university time, so if they want to drink alcohol, there is no need to forbid the selling of such things.

On the other hand when we think about the people who don't use such things, I can say that it shouldn't be allowed. Because, these things give harm not only the users but also the people around them. Yes, we can say that people are free to make their own choices but they should do it without giving harm to others.

The other way that we can answer this question is its effects on people. We know that these things are harmful for the health of people and to sell these things in an environment where there are too many youngs shouldn't be appropriate in terms of being a bad example for them.

As a result we can say that there is no single answer to this question because of having different sides. But I personally think that it should be allowed because if they want to use these things in spite of their side-effects it is their choices, and to forbid it will be meaningless.

3-244 AE

### PROHIBITION IS NOT A GOOD SOLUTION

In today's world, drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking are such common habits that millions of people in the world either drink alcohol or smoke or both. Due to the problems they can cause, it is not allowed to consume alcoholic drinks and smoke in some areas for public safety, public health and for public peace which I also find essential. However, in my opinion, it should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus and there are some reasons for it.

First of all, forbidden things are always attracting for people especially for the young. Such prohibition only direct them to disobeyance. Also, I think it is contrary to personal liberty in one respect. Thirdly, prohibition is not a good solution. For example, during last spring festival, drinking alcoholic drinks in the campus was prohibited. However, it wasn't difficult to find a beer to drink because it was being sold in secret. Moreover, my friends and I went to concert in 2 Eylül campus. Because of the prohibition, lots of students were drinking alcoholic drinks just the opposite of the entrance of the 2 Eylül campus by ignoring the security guards. The difference is that they had drunk before the concert began instead of drinking after the concert began.

I think instead of forbidding, different ways should be tried in general to prevent such bad habits. People should be informed about how smoking and consuming alcohol are harmful for their health and how harmful for the people around them.

3-257 AE

### NO ALCOHOL OR SMOKE IN CAMPUS

It was last semester when one of my friends came and sat near me after the break. He seemed ok when I first looked at him, but when he came nearer, there came a disgusting smell before him. This was the smell of alcohol along with the cigarette. So I had to change my seat and sat on the other corner of the classroom in order not to smell him. Moreover, it was not only me that was disgusted from this smell but the whole class. When I asked him where he got the alcoholic drinks, he said he could buy them in the university campus which shocked me. Therefore alcoholic drinks and cigarettes shouldn't be allowed to sell in the university campus because it is undesirable for others who do not drink alcoholic drinks or smoke cigarettes and drunken students cause problems in lessons.

It is said that ones freedom ends up when the other's begins, therefore while some students think that they are free to drink alcoholic drinks or smoke cigarette in the university campus, they are not actually as long as they disturb others. The smell of the alcohol and the cigarette is very undesirable for those who are not used to them. So to not to allow to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in the university campus may prevent this violation of freedom.

Furthermore, when it is allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarette in the university campus, it is easy to buy for those who are used to them and when for example students love alcoholic drinks before they come to the lessons, they may cause problems for teachers while talking under the influence of alcohol because they do not know what they say while talking in a drunken way. Therefore, in order to make it hard to reach alcoholic drinks, it may be a solution to not to allow alcoholic drinks sell and drink in the campus.

Students are free to do what they want to do in the campus but they should be careful of their actions unless they want to disturb others. To drink alcoholic drinks or smoke cigarette is their own choice or way of life but they should care for others while enjoying the desires. At least, by not allowing to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarette, it may be prevented to disturb other students' freedom who are not used to those.

3-259 AE

First of all, I think I need to differentiate between the purchase of alcoholic drinks and smoking cigarettes. Because, my answer changes depending on the item. I believe that smoking cigarettes should be allowed (It's already allowed, what am I claiming?), while alcoholic drinks shouldn't be within the easy reach of students.

To begin with, I will try to explain why I think that smoking cigarettes should be allowed. University students, on the whole, unfortunately are addicted to smoking. If they aren't allowed to smoke, they will smoke anyway, but stealthily. So, it would be futile to prohibit smoking on the campus. Anyway, university students are adults, we can't expect them to abide by an unreasonable prohibition. Smoking hurts the smokers, if they choose to smoke. So, in order not to cause inconvenience to non-smokers, smoking should only be allowed in certain places. (e.g. smoking rooms, in the open air), not in places where the non-smokers will be at a disadvantage. But, unfortunately, even in our Education Faculty, smokers feel free to smoke in corridors. I feel choked when I walk in the corridor full of poisonous smoke. Smokers should be reminded to smoke where they are allowed to do. Otherwise, banning "smoking" is not a logical act.

I believe that "smoking" can't be compared to "drink alcoholic drinks". So, I am in the opinion that drinking alcoholic drinks shouldn't be sold and drunk on the campus. To illustrate this point, I want to give an example. On our concert days at ikieylül campus, there is a so-called "alcohol ban", but, students drink large amounts of alcohol during the concerts and they make me feel so uncomfortable. I don't drink, but others drink and cause people inconvenience. I have no joy during those times. And, there are so many people on the campus who are badly influenced by the drunkards. There are primary school students on the campus and they shop in the same market where people buy drinks. They are close to on the lawns who drink nearby. So, I believe "drinking" should be banned.

3-260 AE

### Unconscious Encouragement for Addictiveness

Recently many young people drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarette. This problem is current in mid schools high schools and universities. It is especially common in universities as students are away from their family and taste independence. Certainly there should be precautions for this problem. But forbidding them in the university campus is not a solution or even a precaution. There're many reasons to not forbid alcoholic drinks and cigarettes in university campus but three reasons stand out.

Firstly, forbidden thing is always attractive to humankind. If we forbid them in university campus addictives will be aggressive and they will be in a tendetion to use them much more than ever; to prove the fact that they are independent and they can do whatever they want although you forbid them.

Secondly, forbidding them in university campus is not a solution as they can bring them from outside. It is not forbidden to take them in to university campus. So this precaution is not useful to help them being non-addictive or saving other young people from being addictive. If a young person wants to do smt. the worst solution is forbidding him/her I think.

Lastly drinking alcoholic drinks or smoke cigarette is a matter of preference. You can't change this preference by forbidding them as an authority. Instead of helping them to change this preference you'll unconsciously encourage it. Every young person wants respect to his/her decisions. Whatever they are. But if you try to take them under your authority in an unrespectful manner this will be nothing more than encouraging addictiveness.

In short forbidding alcoholic drinks and ciggarettes in university campus is not a solution to this problem although it seems a direct solution. Instead of forbidding there may be efficient conferances, seminars or different activities for being non-addictive. There should be obligatory lessons about addictiveness and, how to give up. Special funds which would help students to be non-addictive should be composed in universities. Lastly there should be addictiveness departments in university hospitals and psychichology services. These are some suggests that you can do instead of forbidding it. These will make a long way to go to the solution but certainly more direct than forbidding them.

3-262 AE

I think that it should be allowed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke. It is not effect all the people around the campus. And all the students have a free will to decide whether they drink or not. Also we are individual and adults, we are not child. We can dedicide what we should do.

Also I should say that in the summer alot of students drink alchol near the Migros. But I have not seen any of them cause any conflict in the campus. They sit down meadows, they drink their bears and then they go for their homes. So it doesnt matter for me selling of alcoholic drinks in the campus.

I want to tell you one of my conversation with one of my friends who is at Ankara, Gazi University. He thinks that alcholic drinks shouldn't be allowed to sell in the campus. Because one of his friends drank alcohol and went to the school. And may be he make this as a behaviour. And he may be go to his school as a alcoholic teacher. Because this reason, alcohol should not be sold in campus he thinks. But I said that it depens on us to drink or not. Your friend is not child so everybody does not behave as him.

So I say that alcohol and smokes can be sold, it does not effect us.

3-266 AE

According to many of people who have bad habits there are many reasons to have them. For instance, they smoke cigarettes because they have a very stressfull life or they drink alcoholic drinks because they have to forget something or some situation. However they never accept that they are weak people and they hide from their problems by using them. This situations are the same for all of them but where they smoke or drink is different. For example common places like university campuses is not suitable places for these bad habits, because there are so many people in these places and people who use cigarette or alcohol haven't right to disturb others, so sell and drink alcohol and smoke in the university campus shouldn't be allowed. When we look at their bad effects on people who use them and others.

Firstly this habits show that these people are antisocial characters and try to find people who alike them and make a group with other smoker or alcoholics. Instead of being accepted by the society this behaviour takes away them from the society, because these habits are unacceptable and unwanted for the society. Secondly, a campus should be a secure place for the students. Especially people who drink alcohol behave unconsciously and this disturbs many of students. Lastly selling cigarette and alcohol create so suitable basement for all these bad events. Students who use them buy these type of products easily. This means a very clear invitation for all problems related to them.

In summary, like every common places, university campuses should be protected bad effects of using alcohol and smoke cigarettes, so universit authority should take all precautions in order to hinder these bad possibilities.



3-281 AE

SHOULD BE ALLOWED or NOT?

University is a place where everything comes to us free and normal. University campus has the best known and memorable part in every university student, too. Many facilities and activities are done for the students in the campus. They benefit from them. But at some points, the sells of alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes, many students face some problems. If the university is a place where the students are free and do their behaviours freely and tell their thoughts to other students or the administration of the university, this should also be allowed. In another point, I can say that a university student is the person who controls himself and behaves according to every kind of situation. If every student knows himself well and obeys other rules of the school, there will be no problem. He can drink his alcohol or smoke his cigarettes in a normal way. If the person knows himself, he drinks according to his limitation. There is no relation with the legal rules, I think. If something is normal in other places of the world, the campus must not be the out of these places.

It's related with the freedom of the people to buy alcoholic drinks or cigarettes. So, it shouldn't be banned in the university campus.

3-292 AE

### ALCOHOL AND CIGARATTE IN CAMPUS

Alcoholic drinks and cigarettes have been very widespread among the young especially in recent years. That university campuses, too, have begun to allow them to be sold in their areas is one of the most important reasons of that is. It means that universities are giving harm to the young in an indirect way. Since alcoholic drinks and cigarette are harmful for both health and economical situation, I think the university campus shouldn't let them to be sold in its area.

First of all, alcohol and cigarette both damage the health of the young. Cigarette might cause heart attack in very young ages and kill you earlier. Similarly, alcohol might result in the loss of conscious and that may sometimes be the reason that will kill you in a very young age in a very immediate time. Also, both of them are supported to cause cancer, a disease which has unfortunately no way of cure. Finally, both of them get you look older physically.

Of course, they not only damage the health of the young, but they are also harmful in terms of financial condition. The university students might experience the lack of money in some conditions when they spend their money on those harmful things. Also, they cause the loss in terms of national economy because the young, who are the most important elements for the future of the nation, spend their time not for producing things but for directing themselves to such harmful habits.

In conclusion, the university campus shouldn't let the alcoholic drinks and cigarette be sold because they are harmful for both the health and the economical condition.

3-294 AE

Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes becomes common gradually. It's possible to see an adult or even a child drinking alcohol or smoking cigarette on a corner. People started to decrease this consumption. There are adds on screens, on the packages. However there are also people who believes drinking alcohol and smoking is up to them. Some of them are university students. Nevertheless, there are 2 important reasons for alcohol and cigarette not to be sold in university campus.

First, campus is an education place that may consist of primary and high school. Seeing university students sitting on grass, drinking alcohol and smoking is really bad example. Children may think this situation to be normal and tend to behave in this way. Moreover, there are some odd students who want them to drink and smoke. Those odd university students make children taste those bad addictions deliberately.

Second, the ones who has just come to the campus as a university student feels that s/he has to behave like this to be a real student. Many students who hadn't tasted those bad things before tends to be addicted to them. Those bad things becomes to be regarded as necessary and good things.

Nobody denies that it's their right to consume alcohol or smoke but this No consumer can say that they are good. Therefore for a university student it should be a duty to be a good example for the public.

3-310 AE

### UNIVERSITY WHICH IS FULL OF FREEDOM

Nowadays, everybody can smoke cigarette and drink alcohol in Turkey. Especially the atmosphere in the university campus is full of freedom. They can be harmful for our health, but they should be sold and drunk freely.

Universities are known to be a constitution educating people who will help the country's development and take the standards to the international status. By hindering the selling and drinking alcohol or smoking cigarette, we will destroy the freedom.

The students coming to the university know how to behave what to do or where to do. So, they are mature enough to decide on his/her own. If the drinking alcohol or smoking cigarette are banned legally, they can do these things outside the university campus when they want. To ban on smoking or drinking alcohol means that they don't know how to behave in this free campus.

When we look at the countries that reached the modern contemporary status, we will see that they have overcome most of things. There isn't too much forbid to obey. The rules exist only when necessary.

I don't agree with prohibiting selling and drinking alcohol in the university campus. If this system comes to the university which is the place of cultural development, this will take the country back to past years, not forward. University students should decide whether they drink or smoke or not.

APPENDIX II: Descriptions of the Students in the Study and Number of Words in  
Their Essays

class level	student number	age	gender	number of words in the student's essay
1	46	20	F	339
1	51	19	F	241
1	52	21	F	250
1	56	19	F	202
1	58	21	F	249
1	66	19	F	94
1	75	19	F	184
1	80	18	F	352
1	83	19	M	405
1	85	19	M	310
1	87	19	F	314
1	105	19	M	200
1	106	19	M	263
1	107	20	F	132
1	108	19	F	138
1	110	19	M	235
1	111	21	F	380
3	187	20	F	224
3	195	20	F	260
3	213	21	F	210
3	214	21	F	206
3	222	21	M	181
3	225	21	F	302
3	229	21	F	246
3	244	21	F	262
3	257	21	F	416
3	259	20	F	346
3	260	21	F	371
3	262	21	F	232
3	266	23	F	286
3	281	21	F	217
3	292	20	M	277
3	294	20	F	238
3	310	20	F	232



## APPENDIX IV. Handwritten Learner Essay Sample

1-51 AE

### RESTRICTIONS

We are living in a world full of restrictions. In fact it is the same case in campuses. I think it shouldn't be banned to sell and drink alcohol and smoke cigarettes in university campus.

Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes are something which are personal. Every one of the person has the right whether to drink or smoke or not. There is only one point when they should be banned when people who are drinking alcohol disturb others in campus and give harm to the environment so there can be some restrictions. The students in a university should be mature enough they should know how to behave.

In universities the ages of students are over 18, so they have the logic of life. In some way or another they come there with difficulties. After coming university they want to relax. I think they're certainly right. Because passing the university exam is not an easy one. So without any harm they can do whatever they want in the campus. Even if drinking alcohol is banned I can see lots of students in campus drinking alcohol on the grasses. And this is not something to fear. Smoking cigarette also can not be banned but in some places the can be made restrictions. For example in buildings it should be banned but in campus it shouldn't.

All in all we should be accustomed to living with these restrictions, because they're parts of our lives.

## APPENDIX V. Native Speaker Corrected Learner Essay Sample

1-51 AE

### RESTRICTIONS

We are living in a world full of restrictions. In fact it is the same case in (on university) campuses. ...., in (on) university campus (campuses) .....

..... When people who are drinking alcohol disturb others in (on) campus and give harm to the environment so there can (should) be some restrictions. The students in a (Students at) university should be mature enough, they should (and) know how to behave.

In universities (At university) the ages of students are (age of students is generally) over 18, so they have the logic (some understanding) of life. .... After coming (arriving at) university they (students) want to relax (I think they're ceartinly right (and I support this viewpoint). Because (because) passing the university exam is not an easy one. So without any harm (as long as they bother no-one else) they can do whatever they want in the (on) campus. Even if drinking alcohol is banned I can see lots of students in campus drinking alcohol on the grasses (whilst sitting on the grass on campus). .....



## APPENDIX VI. Tagged Learner Essay Sample

1-51 AE

### RESTRICTIONS

We are living in a world full of restrictions. In fact it is the same case in campuses. I think it shouldn't be banned to sell and drink alcohol and smoke cigarettes, in university campus.

Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes are something (GVNF) which are personal \$personal\$ (GPI) something which are personal \$personal things\$. Every one of the person has the right whether to drink - some or not. There is only one point when they should be banned. When people who are drinking alcohol disturb others in campus and give harm to the environment so there (GVAUX) can \$should\$ be some restrictions. (GA) The \$0\$ students in (GA) a \$0\$ university should be mature enough, they should know how to behave.

In universities the ages of students are over 18, so they have (GA) the \$some\$ logic of life. In some way or another they come there with difficulties. After coming university (GPU) they \$students\$ want to relax (I think they're certainly right). Because passing the university exam is not (GWC) an easy one \$easy\$. So without any harm they can do whatever they want in the campus. Even if drinking alcohol is banned I can see lots of students in campus drinking alcohol on the grasses. And this is not something to fear. Smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ also (GVAUX) can \$should\$ not be banned but in some places the can be made restrictions \$restrictions can be made\$. For example in buildings it should be banned but in campus it shouldn't.

All in all we should be accustomed to living with these restrictions, because they're parts of our lives.

APPENDIX VII. Concordance Tables

GA (Article Use)

"the"-omission

1	nd health. Moreover, it has a very bad effect on	(GA) 0 \$the\$	brain. It is said that alcohol reduces brain and	1-46	AE
2	rm to (GPU) all of us \$those around them\$ and to	(GA) 0 \$the\$	air. Also (GPU) it \$smoking\$ pollutes (GA) 0 \$t	1-46	AE
3	) 0 \$the\$ air. Also (GPU) it \$smoking\$ pollutes	(GA) 0 \$the\$	air, it (GVN) cause \$causes\$ (wO) to smell our c	1-46	AE
4	s an absurd thing. The moment this subject is in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	agenda, the students are separated two parts as	1-52	AE
5	do anything because they are allowed to smoke in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	open air. Not just in (GA) 0 \$the\$ open air but	1-56	AE
6	d to smoke in (GA) 0 \$the\$ open air. Not just in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	open air but in (GA) 0 \$the\$ faculties, (GPU) th	1-56	AE
7	en air. Not just in (GA) 0 \$the\$ open air but in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	faculties, (GPU) they \$people\$ smoke in (GA) 0 \$	1-56	AE
8	0 \$the\$ faculties, (GPU) they \$people\$ smoke in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	corridors (GADVO) Not just in open air but in fa	1-56	AE
9	ks as much as they harm to people around them or	(GA) 0 \$the\$	environment. The reason of (GPP) it \$this\$ is t	1-83	AE
10	ts but also all people who are over 18-year have	(GA) 0 \$the\$	right to drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigare	1-83	AE
11	rs. Cigarettes must be forbidden no matter what!	(GA) 0 \$The\$	Second and last thing about the situation is abo	1-85	AE
12	worse things, even the things one cannot think.	(GA) 0 \$The\$	Second reason is about (GA) the \$O\$ religion of	1-85	AE
13	ed \$should be allowed\$ in the campus. In Turkey,	(GA) 0 \$the\$	traditional view of such bad habits as drinking	1-87	AE
14	ould be some strict rules for them. For example;	(GA) 0 \$the\$	selling of cigarettes and alcoholic drinks shoul	1-87	AE
15	d be no use forbidding them, it would just cause	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university to (GVV) be seem \$seem\$ conservative.	1-108	AE
16	ents spend their money for these harmful things,	(GA) 0 \$the\$	campus becomes dirty and students can argue or f	1-111	AE
17	s use alcohol and cigarettes and they throw away	(GA) 0 \$the\$	packets or bottles to the environment. So, our n	1-111	AE
18	university to improve ourselves mentally, and if	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university campus is a place in which you can im	3-187	AE
19	conclusion it's necessary for the environment of	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university to let the people make their own choi	3-195	AE
20	human life. After being educated for years under	(GA) 0 \$the\$	control of both parents and teachers, university	3-213	AE
21	ersity campus, there are people who can evaluate	(GA) 0 \$the\$	things they do. They can think of being healthy a	3-214	AE
22	o forbid it in an environment where peoples have	(GA) 0 \$the\$	ability to take their decisions about their life	3-229	AE
23	tion is not a good solution. For example, during	(GA) 0 \$the\$	last spring festival, drinking alcoholic drinks	3-244	AE
24	gh you forbid them. Secondly, forbidding them in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university campus is not a solution as they can	3-260	AE
25	outside. It is not forbidden to take them in to	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university campus. so this precaution is not use	3-260	AE
26	t forbidding alcoholic drinks and ciggarettes in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university campus is not a solution to this prob	3-260	AE
27	cause any conflict in the campus. They sit down	(GA) 0 \$the\$	meadows, they drink their bears and then they go	3-262	AE
28	lcohol and (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes, so	(GA) 0 \$the\$	universit authority should take all precautions	3-266	AE
29	n. If every student knows himself well and obeys	(GA) 0 \$the\$	other rules of the school, there will be no prob	3-281	AE
30	. Also, they cause (GA) the \$a\$ loss in terms of	(GA) 0 \$the\$	national economy because the young, who are the	3-292	AE

"the"-addition

1 there (GVAUX) can \$should\$ be some restrictions. (GA) The \$0\$ students in (GA) a \$0\$ university should be m 1-51 AE  
2 NS (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ and alcohol are (GA) the \$0\$ international problems. In every country we h 1-52 AE  
3 nce we don't want to see smoke or the bottles of (GA) the \$0\$ alcoholic (GVNF) drinkings \$drinks\$ in our un 1-52 AE  
4 these acts. Imagine that you are drinking wine in (GA) the \$0\$ school. Is it right? So it isn't wise to sepe 1-56 AE  
5 that they choose \$to choose\$ whatever they want. (GA) The \$0\$ university students should be taken into cons 1-58 AE  
6 in the campus. Thus they protect themselves from (GA) the \$0\$ harmful effect of outside. 1-58 AE  
7 e harmful to (GNC) health of us \$our health\$. In (GA) the \$0\$ universities, this information should be told 1-66 AE  
8 universities, this information should be told to (GA) the \$0\$ students. But any obligation can harm to stud 1-66 AE  
9 we think the possible problems, we can say that (GA) the \$0\$ young who (GVT) drunk \$drink\$ extensively can 1-75 AE  
10 g them in the campus would be useless. Secondly, (GA) the \$0\$ people in the campus would care about themse 1-80 AE  
11 nk outside then may come into campus and disturb (GA) the \$0\$ others. But if they can get alcohol and (GNN) 1-80 AE  
12 In conclusion, any ban on the selling and using (GA) the \$0\$ alcoholic drinks and cigarettes would be use 1-80 AE  
13 c drinks and cigarettes are really popular among (GA) the \$0\$ teenagers as well as (GA) the \$0\$ grows-ups. 1-85 AE  
14 popular among (GA) the \$0\$ teenagers as well as (GA) the \$0\$ grows-ups. Those who use one of them or both 1-85 AE  
15 , and also they are doing (GA) a \$0\$ big harm to (GA) the \$0\$ others around them. So, these people should t 1-85 AE  
16 cond and last thing about the situation is about (GA) the \$0\$ alcoholic drinks. My first reason is about th 1-85 AE  
17 annot think. (GA) 0 \$The\$ second reason is about (GA) the \$0\$ religion of course. We are all Muslims and ou 1-85 AE  
18 vening. This solution can be tried but we are in (GA) the \$0\$ university and everybody won't obey the rules 1-87 AE  
19 holic drinks in the campus because we are not in (GA) the \$0\$ high school, rules can not work here. Therefo 1-87 AE  
20 cigarettes. But, they don't think that they harm (GA) the \$0\$ young people. They only think their profit ma 1-105 AE  
21 their heath badly. At the end of this situation, (GA) the \$0\$ universities have to lose (GADJCS) the bright 1-105 AE  
22 o sell alcholic drinks and cigarettes because of (GA) the \$0\$ freedom in the campus. First, as we said, the 1-106 AE  
23 should be some facilities and opportunities for (GA) the \$0\$ university students which (GVN) differs \$diff 1-106 AE  
24 y cause some problems as we limit the freedom of (GA) the \$0\$ students in the campus. Also, by opening some 1-106 AE  
25 Since (GA) the \$0\$ university students pass the university exam 1-107 AE  
26 e (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ or drink alcohol, (GA) the \$0\$ others can be affected in a bad way. Or, allo 1-107 AE  
27 esident of the university forbade Migros to sell (GA) the \$0\$ alcoholic drinks. On the other hand, this way 1-110 AE  
28 dly, smoking and drinking is a way of comforting (GA) the \$0\$ students. Students are alone in this city. Th 1-110 AE  
29 ant. Consequently, students have a free life at (GA) the \$0\$ university. They think that they are all (GNN 1-110 AE  
30 iversity are too (GWC) relax \$relaxed\$ to ignore (GA) the \$0\$ other people (GPR) that \$who\$ are around them 1-111 AE  
31 use more serious (GNN) problem \$problems\$ among (GA) the \$0\$ students. Alcohol and cigarettes should be ba 1-111 AE  
32 money, having a dirty campus and fighting among (GA) the \$0\$ students. 1-111 AE  
33 pus should be free to do so for several reasons. (GA) The \$0\$ people in the university are adults and the e 3-195 AE  
34 cessary for the environment of university to let (GA) the \$0\$ people make their own choices and provide a d 3-195 AE  
35 nking alcholic drinks and smoking cigarettes are (GA) the \$0\$ actions which people should decide on to do o 3-214 AE  
36 ersity campus needn't to be forbidden. People in (GA) the \$0\$ university have personal choices so they are 3-214 AE  
37 drinks in the campus, students can easily reach (GA) the \$0\$ alcohol and drink. So, when they are drunk, t 3-222 AE  
38 . So, when they are drunk, they can give harm to (GA) the \$0\$ other students. Secondly, (GWC) drunk \$drunke 3-222 AE  
39 Today, it is known by nearly everybody, even by (GA) the \$0\$ consumers, that alcoholic drinks and smoking 3-225 AE  
40 he people who constitute the intellectual part of (GA) the \$0\$ society (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ not use them. These 3-225 AE  
41 ny things and they should be positive models for (GA) the \$0\$ people, especially (GA) the \$0\$ children. As 3-225 AE  
42 itive models for (GA) the \$0\$ people, especially (GA) the \$0\$ children. As university students are among th 3-225 AE  
43 uptive and immoral behaviours with the effect of (GA) the \$0\$ alcohol and this is a shame for a university. 3-225 AE  
44 y flexible, I think. Because, when I think about (GA) the \$0\$ people who have such kinds of hobits, it (GVA 3-229 AE

45 of students were drinking alcoholic drinks just (GA) the \$0\$ opposite of the entrance of the 2 Eylül campu 3-244 AE  
46 (GVAUX) 0 \$do not\$ disturb others. The smell of (GA) the \$0\$ alcohol and (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cig 3-257 AE  
47 rrp others. The smell of (GA) the \$0\$ alcohol and (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ is very undesira 3-257 AE  
48 udents love alcoholic drinks before they come to (GA) the \$0\$ lessons, they may cause problems for teachers 3-257 AE  
49 ng?), while alcoholic drinks shouldn't be within (GA) the \$0\$ easy reach of students. To begin with, I will 3-259 AE  
50 people on the campus who are badly influenced by (GA) the \$0\$ drunkards. There are primary school students 3-259 AE  
51 effect all the people around the campus. And all (GA) the \$0\$ students have a free will to decide whether t 3-262 AE  
52 in the summer alot of students drink alchol near (GA) the \$0\$ Migros. But I have not seen any of them cause 3-262 AE  
53 use one of his friends drank alcohol and went to (GA) the \$0\$ school. And may be he (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ make 3-262 AE  
54 ers\$ or alcoholics. Instead of being accepted by (GA) the \$0\$ society this behaviour (WO) takes away them \$ 3-266 AE  
55 iour (WO) takes away them \$takes them away\$ from (GA) the \$0\$ society, because these habbits are unacceptab 3-266 AE  
56 these habbits are unacceptable and unwanted for (GA) the \$0\$ society. Secondly, a campus should be a secur 3-266 AE  
57 Secondly, a campus should be a secure place for (GA) the \$0\$ students. Especially people who drink alcohol 3-266 AE  
58 too. Many facilities and activities are done for (GA) the \$0\$ students in (GA) the \$0\$ campus. They benefit 3-281 AE  
59 activities are done for (GA) the \$0\$ students in (GA) the \$0\$ campus. They benefit from them. But at some p 3-281 AE  
60 cigarettes, many students face some problems. If (GA) the \$0\$ university is a place where (GA) the \$0\$ stud 3-281 AE  
61 ems. If (GA) the \$0\$ university is a place where (GA) the \$0\$ students are free and do their behaviours fre 3-281 AE  
62 ng to his limitation . There is no relation with (GA) the \$0\$ legal rules, I think. If something is normal 3-281 AE  
63 or both health and economical situation, I think (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) university campus \$universities\$ should 3-292 AE  
64 re also harmful in terms of financial condition. (GA) The \$0\$ university students might experience (GA) the 3-292 AE  
65 ettes\$ be sold because they are harmful for both (GA) the \$0\$ health and (GA) the \$0\$ economical condition. 3-292 AE  
66 hey are harmful for both (GA) the \$0\$ health and (GA) the \$0\$ economical condition. 3-292 AE  
67 heir\$ consumption. There are adds on screens, on (GA) the \$0\$ packages. However there are also people who ( 3-294 AE  
68 who will help the country's development and take (GA) the \$0\$ standards to the international status. By hin 3-310 AE  
69 ttes\$ , we will destroy (GA) the \$our\$ freedom. (GA) The \$0\$ students coming to the university know how to 3-310 AE  
70 ough to decide on (GDO) his/her \$their\$ own. If (GA) the \$0\$ drinking alcohol or smoking (GNN) cigarette \$ 3-310 AE  
71 w to behave in this free campus. when we look at (GA) the \$0\$ countries that reached (GA) the \$a\$ modern co 3-310 AE  
72 of things. There isn't too much forbid to obey. (GA) The \$0\$ rules exist only when necessary. I don't agre 3-310 AE

"the"-misinformation

1 s the ages of students are over 18, so they have (GA) the \$some\$ logic of life. In some way or another they 1-51 AE  
2 it \$them\$ , nobody can prevent him doing so. So (GA) the \$a\$ ban on selling them in the campus would be us 1-80 AE  
3 This was the smell of alcohol along with (GA) the \$a\$ cigarette. So I had to change my seat 3-257 AE  
4 e but they should care for others while enjoying (GA) the \$their\$ desires. At least, by not allowing to sel 3-257 AE  
5 er point, I can say that a university student is (GA) the \$a\$ person who controls himself and behaves accor 3-281 AE  
6 you earlier. Similarly, alcohol might result in (GA) the \$a\$ loss of (GWC) conscious \$consciousness\$ and t 3-292 AE  
7 GA) The \$0\$ university students might experience (GA) the \$a\$ lack of money in some conditions when they sp 3-292 AE  
8 money on those harmful things. Also, they cause (GA) the \$a\$ loss in terms of (GA) 0 \$the\$ national econom 3-292 AE  
9 g (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ , we will destroy (GA) the \$our\$ freedom. (GA) The \$0\$ students coming to t 3-310 AE  
10 n we look at (GA) the \$0\$ countries that reached (GA) the \$a\$ modern contemporary status, we will see that 3-310 AE  
11 If this system comes to the university which is (GA) the \$a\$ place of cultural development, this will take 3-310 AE



"a"-omission

1	drink alcoholic drinks should not be allowed in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. Because,	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is	1-46 AE
2	owed in	(GA) 0 \$the\$	university campus. Because,	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is the place (GPR) to which \$where\$ lots	1-46 AE
3	d drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus because of one reason: univers	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is a public place (GPR) that \$where\$ ever	1-56 AE
4	le acts. The same thing is right for cigarettes.	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is a public place (GPR) that \$where\$ ever	(GA) 0 \$a\$	right (GVNF) that they choose \$to choose\$ whatev	1-56 AE
5	s\$ to allow (GPP) 0 \$them\$ or not. Everybody has	(GA) 0 \$a\$	right (GVNF) that they choose \$to choose\$ whatev	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus not to meet any problem. when	1-58 AE
6	s of harms of them. So they shouldn't be used in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus not to meet any problem. when	(GA) 0 \$a\$	sin, I believe that it should be allowed to sell	1-75 AE
7	olic drinks and smoke cigarettes (GVN) are \$is\$	(GA) 0 \$a\$	sin, I believe that it should be allowed to sell	(GA) 0 \$a\$	tendency to them. Most of the population, which	1-83 AE
8	es is not sharp enough to hinder people who have	(GA) 0 \$a\$	tendency to them. Most of the population, which	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. First, if a student (GV	1-87 AE
9	and utilization of them shouldn't be allowed in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. First, if a student (GV	(GA) 0 \$a\$	limited budget, but still they spend much money.	1-105 AE
10	ther when they use alcohol. First, students have	(GA) 0 \$a\$	limited budget, but still they spend much money.	(GA) 0 \$a\$	girlfriend with him. Another boy looked at his g	1-111 AE
11	in the campus. One of them was drunk and he had	(GA) 0 \$a\$	girlfriend with him. Another boy looked at his g	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus shouldn't include any harmful	1-111 AE
12	themselves, not to give harm to their health. So	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus shouldn't include any harmful	(GA) 0 \$a\$	problem.	3-187 AE
13	alcohol and smoking in the campus should not be	(GA) 0 \$a\$	problem.	(GA) 0 \$a\$	concert in 2 Eylöl campus. Because of the prohib	3-213 AE
14	ld in secret. Moreover, my friends and I went to	(GA) 0 \$a\$	concert in 2 Eylöl campus. Because of the prohib	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus but three reasons stand out. F	3-244 AE
15	ot to\$ forbid alcoholic drinks and cigarettes in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus but three reasons stand out. F	(GA) 0 \$a\$	child so everybody does not behave as him. So I	3-260 AE
16	drink or not depends on us\$. Your friend is not	(GA) 0 \$a\$	child so everybody does not behave as him. So I	(GA) 0 \$a\$	suitable basement for all these bad events. stud	3-262 AE
17	igarettes\$ and alcohol (GVN) create \$creates\$ so	(GA) 0 \$a\$	suitable basement for all these bad events. stud	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. First, (GA) 0 \$a\$ campus is a	3-266 AE
18	hing comes to us (GWC) free \$freely\$ and normal.	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus has the best known and memorab	(GA) 0 \$a\$	cigarette on a corner. People (GVT) started \$hav	3-281 AE
19	dult or even a child drinking alcohol or smoking	(GA) 0 \$a\$	cigarette on a corner. People (GVT) started \$hav	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. First, (GA) 0 \$a\$ campus is a	3-294 AE
20	d (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ not to be sold in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	university campus. First, (GA) 0 \$a\$ campus is a	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is an (GWC) education \$educational\$ place	3-294 AE
21	be sold in	(GA) 0 \$a\$	campus is an (GWC) education \$educational\$ place	(GA) 0 \$a\$	primary and high school. Seeing university stude	3-294 AE
22	ducation \$educational\$ place that may consist of	(GA) 0 \$a\$	primary and high school. Seeing university stude	(GA) 0 \$a\$	bad example. Children may think this situation t	3-294 AE
23	on grass, drinking alcohol and smoking is really	(GA) 0 \$a\$	bad example. Children may think this situation t			

"a"-addition

1	\$ be some restrictions. (GA) The \$0\$ students in	(GA) a \$0\$	university should be mature enough, they shou	(GA) a \$0\$	confusion among the students in the campus. F	1-51 AE
2	hese students can fight eachother, thus there is	(GA) a \$0\$	confusion among the students in the campus. F	(GA) a \$0\$	medicine for them. In such a situation, stude	1-111 AE
3	hol or (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ may be like	(GA) a \$0\$	medicine for them. In such a situation, stude			3-213 AE

"a"-misinformation

1	they want, they can do. For instance, I am also	(GA) an \$a\$	university student. I know that I have this r	(GA) a \$an\$	age to make their own decisions. If they hav	1-83 AE
2	me case with smoking. University students are in	(GA) a \$an\$	age to make their own decisions. If they hav	(GA) a \$an\$	alcoholic teacher. Because this reason, (wo)	1-108 AE
3	. And he may be (GVN) go \$goes\$ to his school as	(GA) a \$an\$	alcoholic teacher. Because this reason, (wo)			3-262 AE

## GV (Verb Use)

### GVN-misinformation (PVSS)

1	l reduces brain and kills cells. Furthermore, it	(GVN) cause \$causes\$ lots of bad events and these even	1-46 AE
2	garettes has a bad effect for all of us, too. It	(GVN) cause \$causes\$ lots of (GNN) disease \$diseases\$	1-46 AE
3	(GPU) it \$smoking\$ pollutes (GA) 0 \$the\$ air, it	(GVN) cause \$causes\$ (WO) to smell our clothes, even o	1-46 AE
4	ven in school, in university, we see someone who	(GVN) use \$uses\$ them openly. Fortunately in our campu	1-52 AE
5	idespread problems\$ in the world. The government	(GVN) give \$gives\$ (GVT) give \$has given\$ permission t	1-58 AE
6	l substances and at the same time the government	(GVN) have \$has\$ been trying to take (GNN) precaution	1-58 AE
7	hem \$alcohol and tobacco\$ because the government	(GVN) allow \$allows\$ (GVV) to produce \$to be produced\$	1-58 AE
8	pus on limited. Because everyone in this country	(GVN) are \$is\$ living in freedom. So, if someone (GVN)	1-66 AE
9	(GVN) are \$is\$ living in freedom. So, if someone	(GVN) want \$wants\$ to drink or smoke, he/she can do (G	1-66 AE
10	can do (GPP) it \$so\$ freely. But, although there	(GVN) are \$is\$ so freedom, inside places, closed areas	1-66 AE
11	sed areas are not suitable to smoke. As everyone	(GVN) know \$knows\$ that (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ and (GV	1-66 AE
12	, to drink alcoholic drinks and smoke cigarettes	(GVN) are \$is\$ (GA) 0 \$a\$ sin, I believe that it shou	1-83 AE
13	nowadays, the number of those starting to smoke	(GVN) have \$has\$ been going up and the total number of	1-85 AE
14	s\$ been going up and the total number of smokers	(GVN) have \$has\$ been rising, too. (GDD) This \$These\$	1-85 AE
15	of the whole world lately. The university campus	(GVN) give \$gives\$ allowance to sell and drink alcohol	1-105 AE
16	) 0 \$the\$ university campus. First, if a student	(GVN) drink \$drinks\$ alcohol or (GVN) smoke \$smokes\$ c	1-105 AE
17	st, if a student (GVN) drink \$drinks\$ alcohol or	(GVN) smoke \$smokes\$ cigarettes, he/she can die much (	1-105 AE
18	e productive and creative enough. All in all, it	(GVN) get \$gets\$ you die and (GVN) age \$ages\$ (GPP) 0	1-105 AE
19	ugh. All in all, it (GVN) get \$gets\$ you die and	(GVN) age \$ages\$ (GPP) 0 \$you\$ much (GADJCS) more earl	1-105 AE
20	freedom in the campus. First, as we said, there	(GVN) are \$is\$ more freedom in the campus than other (	1-106 AE
21	lowing them to sell these harmful materials also	(GVN) encourage \$encourages\$ students to buy them. So	1-107 AE
22	t is also forbidden in our dormitory, but no one	(GVN) obey \$obeys\$ the rule. I see lots of students sm	1-110 AE
23	ree \$freely\$ . Also they assume that of is there	(GVN) were \$was\$ (GVT) were \$is\$ noone apart from them	1-111 AE
24	everyone to be free. Everyone in the university	(GVN) are all \$is a\$ grown-up (GNN) individuals \$indiv	3-195 AE
25	s a\$ grown-up (GNN) individuals \$individual\$ and	(GVN) are \$is\$ able to make their own decisions. So th	3-195 AE
26	. The presence of rules means nothing if someone	(GVN) want \$wants\$ to do something. But if a person be	3-195 AE
27	especially for the young. Such prohibition only	(GVN) direct \$directs\$ them to disobeyance. Also, I th	3-244 AE
28	\$would\$ make this as a behaviour. And he may be	(GVN) go \$goes\$ to his school as (GA) a \$an\$ alcoholic	3-262 AE
29	selling (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ and alcohol	(GVN) create \$creates\$ so (GA) 0 \$a\$ suitable basement	3-266 AE
30	alcohol or smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$	(GVN) are \$is\$ banned legally, they can do these thing	3-310 AE

GVN-misinformation (SVPS)

1	o do not smoke cigarettes. Because of people who	(GVN) smokes \$smoke\$ , (GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) al	1-46 AE
2	Alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$	(GVN) is \$are\$ harmful which purpose it is smoked or d	1-75 AE
3	has always been a problem in our society. There	(GVN) has \$have\$ been debates whether they should allo	1-80 AE
4	First of all, one reason can be that people who	(GVN) works \$work\$ in the campus earn money from stude	1-87 AE
5	ities for (GA) the \$0\$ university students which	(GVN) differs \$differ\$ them from other students. One o	1-106 AE
6	rtly. using alcohol and cigarettes, students both	(GVN) damages \$damage\$ themselves and the environment	1-111 AE
7	conclusion, using alcohol and smoking cigarettes	(GVN) damages \$damage\$ people. Especially they are use	1-111 AE
8	y that it shouldn't because drinking and smoking	(GVN) is \$are\$ a personal choice. Drinking alcoholic dr	3-214 AE
9	r example common places like university campuses	(GVN) is \$are\$ not suitable places for these bad habbi	3-266 AE
10	Drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes	(GVN) becomes \$become\$ (GVT) becomes \$are becoming\$ (w	3-294 AE
11	\$0\$ packages. However there are also people who	(GVN) believes \$believe\$ drinking alcohol and smoking	3-294 AE
12	deliberately. Second, (GPI) the ones \$those\$ who	(GVN) has \$have\$ just come to the campus as (GNN) a un	3-294 AE
13	(GNN) a university student \$university students\$	(GVN) feels \$feel\$ that (GPP) s/he \$they\$ has to behav	3-294 AE
14	udents who hadn't tasted those bad things before	(GVN) tends \$tend\$ to be addicted to them. Those bad t	3-294 AE
15	\$tend\$ to be addicted to them. Those bad things	(GVN) becomes \$become\$ to be regarded as necessary and	3-294 AE

GVNF-misinformation

1	ly. Also smoking cigarettes is not a good thing.	(GVNF) Smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes has a bad effect for	1-46 AE
2	nned in campus because of many negative effects.	(GVNF) Smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes in campus should not	1-46 AE
3	ing alcohol and smoking cigarettes are something	(GVNF) which are personal \$personal\$ (GPI) something wh	1-51 AE
4	efend is that both of them, especially alcoholic	(GVNF) drinking \$drinks\$ shouldn't be used/sold in univ	1-52 AE
5	e smoke or the bottles of (GA) the \$0\$ alcoholic	(GVNF) drinkings \$drinks\$ in our university campus.	1-52 AE
6	o \$them\$ or not. Everybody has (GA) 0 \$a\$ right	(GVNF) that they choose \$to choose\$ whatever they want.	1-58 AE
7	le to smoke. As everyone (GVN) know \$knows\$ that	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ and (GVNF) drink \$drinking\$ alch	1-66 AE
8	VN) know \$knows\$ that (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ and	(GVNF) drink \$drinking\$ alchol are harmful to (GNC) hea	1-66 AE
9	health. And if they use (GPU) it \$such products\$	(GVNF) knowing this \$knowingly\$ , it would be their own	1-80 AE
10	limit. In this case, there is not any objection	(GVNF) that they drink \$to their drinking\$ alcoholic dr	1-83 AE
11	y drink \$to their drinking\$ alcoholic drinks and	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes. Finally, Not only un	1-83 AE
12	around them. So, these people should think twice	(GVNF) to smoke \$before smoking\$. Moreover, by selling	1-85 AE
13	adolu university, there is a big shopping market	(GVNF) naming \$named\$ Migros. They earn money from stud	1-87 AE
14	(GPD) that \$this\$ . First, alcoholic drinks and	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes are very bad things i	3-187 AE
15	articipate in courses maybe in discussions, then	(GVNF) they can effect \$thereby affecting\$ the fluency	3-222 AE
16	t. I believe that "smoking" can't be compared to	(GVNF) "drink \$drinking\$ alcoholic drinks". So, I am in	3-259 AE
17	s. So this precaution is not useful to help them	(GVNF) being non-addictive \$abstain\$ or (GVNF) saving \$	3-260 AE
18	elp them (GVNF) being non-addictive \$abstain\$ or	(GVNF) saving \$to save\$ other young people from being a	3-260 AE
19	her I think. Lastly drinking alcoholic drinks or	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ is	3-260 AE
20	nt conferances, seminars or different activities	(GVNF) for being non-addictive \$to enable addicts to gi	3-260 AE
21	ople who have bad habits there are many reasons	(GVNF) to have \$why they have\$ them. For instance, they	3-266 AE
22	ld be protected bad effects of using alcohol and	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes, so (GA) 0 \$the\$ univ	3-266 AE
23	They benefit from them. But at some points, the	(GVNF) sells \$selling\$ of alcoholic drinks and (GVNF) s	3-281 AE
24	e (GVNF) sells \$selling\$ of alcoholic drinks and	(GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ cigarettes, many students face s	3-281 AE



GVT-misinformation

1 in the world. The government (GVN) give \$gives\$ (GVT) give \$has given\$ permission to the producers in 1-58 AE  
2 possible problems, we can say that the young who (GVT) drunk \$drink\$ extensively can fight with other s 1-75 AE  
3 in the campus would care about themselves, if it (GVT) is \$was\$ feared that their health (GVT) would be 1-80 AE  
4 s, if it (GVT) is \$was\$ feared that their health (GVT) would be threatened \$was threatened\$. Because th 1-80 AE  
5 ks and cigarettes would be useless. And if there (GVT) would be \$was\$ a ban like this, many people who 1-80 AE  
6 rinks would buy alcoholic drinks outside if there (GVT) isn't \$was\$ a place where cigarettes and alcholi 1-106 AE  
7 ch as smoking and drinking. It is better if they (GVT) don't \$did not\$ have but if you want to do nothi 1-110 AE  
8 so they assume that of is there (GVN) were \$was\$ (GVT) were \$was\$ (GVN) were \$is\$ noone apart from them 1-111 AE  
9 they (GVAUX) could \$may\$ not have fought. They (GVT) can reach \$could have reached\$ an agreement by t 1-111 AE  
10 arm themselves or stay undamageded. They should (GVT) be thinking \$think\$ that if they drink alcoholic 3-214 AE  
11 been often a wonder to me for many years why man (GVT) had produced \$has produced\$ alcohol and (GNN) ci 3-225 AE  
12 ys cursed them, because these harmful substances (GVT) destroyed \$have destroyed\$ many people's lives. 3-225 AE  
13 cert began instead of drinking after the concert (GVT) began \$had begun\$ . I think instead of forbidin 3-244 AE  
14 ce of alcohol because they do not know what they (GVT) say \$are saying\$ while talking in a drunken way. 3-257 AE  
15 ent for Addictiveness Recently many young people (GVT) drink \$have been drinking\$ alcoholic drinks and 3-260 AE  
16 drink \$have been drinking\$ alcoholic drinks and (GVT) smoke \$smoking\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ . 3-260 AE  
17 that these people are antisocial characters and (GVT) try \$are trying\$ to find people who alike them a 3-266 AE  
18 ol and smoking cigarettes (GVN) becomes \$become\$ (GVT) becomes \$are becoming\$ (WO) becomes common gradu 3-294 AE  
19 smoking (GA) 0 \$a\$ cigarette on a corner. People (GVT) started \$have started\$ to decrease (GDD) this \$t 3-294 AE



GVV-misinformation

1 ho (GVN) smokes \$smoke\$ , (GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) also affect \$are also affected\$ negatively. Ther 1-46 AE  
 2 cco\$ because the government (GVN) allow \$allows\$ (GVV) to produce \$to be produced\$ (GPP) it \$them to be 1-58 AE  
 3 f such things as cigarettes and alcoholic drinks (GVV) allowed \$is allowed\$ (GVAUX) allowed \$should be 1-87 AE  
 4 , it would just cause (GA) 0 \$the\$ university to (GVV) be seem \$seem\$ conservative. It is the same case 1-108 AE  
 5 do\$ people use these or why are these allowed to (GVV) use \$be used\$?" It is probably because of the pr 3-225 AE  
 6 and smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ , it may (GVV) be prevented \$prevent\$ (GWC) to disturb \$the dis 3-257 AE

GVAUX-omission

1 (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ or drinking alcohol (GVAUX) 0 \$encourages them to do likewise\$. And (GADJN) 1-52 AE  
 2 ) 0 \$those\$ who use them and (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who (GVAUX) 0 \$do\$ not use them. Even though (GDI) all \$any\$ defe 1-52 AE  
 3 k myself and everybody this question: "Then, why (GVAUX) 0 \$do\$ people use these or why are these allowed to 3-225 AE  
 4 ty campus, they are not actually as long as they (GVAUX) 0 \$do not\$ disturb others. The smell of (GA) the \$0\$ 3-257 AE  
 5 be forbidden in the university campus, or not. I (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ say that it shouldn't because drinking and 3-214 AE  
 6 ue the intellectual part of (GA) the \$0\$ society (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ not use them. These people are aware of man 3-225 AE  
 7 l and went to (GA) the \$0\$ school. And may be he (GVAUX) 0 \$would\$ make this as a behaviour. And he may be (GV 3-262 AE  
 8 ur health. I personally recommend that something (GVAUX) 0 \$should\$ be done at once or else our precious (GNN) 1-85 AE  
 9 . University students should decide whether they (GVAUX) 0 \$should\$ drink or smoke or not. 3-310 AE  
 10 and alcoholic drinks (GVV) allowed \$is allowed\$ (GVAUX) allowed \$should be allowed\$ in the campus. In Turkey, 1-87 AE  
 11 bright \$the brightest\$ brains (GPR) which \$who\$ (GVAUX) 0 \$could\$ improve the world at a great pace. They dri 1-105 AE  
 12 their children without knowing for what children (GVAUX) 0 \$will\$ spend their money. So using alcohol and smok 1-111 AE

GVAUX-misinformation

1 campus. if selling and drinking alcoholic drinks (GVAUX) be \$are\$ allowed in campus, students can fight a 1-46 AE  
 2 campus and give harm to the environment so there (GVAUX) can \$should\$ be some restrictions. (GA) The \$0\$ 1-51 AE  
 3 fear. Smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ also (GVAUX) can \$should\$ not be banned but in some places (G 1-51 AE  
 4 ted. However; if the boy hadn't been drunk, they (GVAUX) could \$may\$ not have fought. They (GVT) can rea 1-111 AE  
 5 the \$0\$ people who have such kinds of hobits, it (GVAUX) will \$would\$ be very unfair to forbid it in an e 3-229 AE  
 6 their (GNN) choices \$choices\$ , and to forbid it (GVAUX) will \$would\$ be meoningless. 3-229 AE

## GN (Noun Use)

### GNC-misinformation

1 . Even if we know the rules and all of us know (GNC) the harms of them \$their harms\$, we overlook ou 1-52 AE  
 2 he harms of them \$their harms\$, we overlook our (GNC) young's \$young\$ being poisoned by them. Besides 1-52 AE  
 3 instance these factors that they see their best (GNC) actors' \$actors\$, (GNC) actresses' \$actresses\$ 1-52 AE  
 4 hat they see their best (GNC) actors' \$actors\$, (GNC) actresses' \$actresses\$ or (GNC) anyone's \$anyone 1-52 AE  
 5 tors' \$actors\$, (GNC) actresses' \$actresses\$ or (GNC) anyone's \$anyone\$, who they see as a model to t 1-52 AE  
 6 nd (GVNF) drink \$drinking\$ alchol are harmful to (GNC) health of us \$our health\$. In (GA) the \$0\$ unive 1-66 AE  
 7 s. Another reason can be that, we can not change (GNC) students \$students'\$ habits in the university. H 1-87 AE  
 8 olic drinks or smoking is not a fair rule so the (GNC) enviroment of campus \$campus environment\$ or uni 3-195 AE  
 9 eople. we know that these things are harmful for (GNC) the health of people \$people's health\$ and to se 3-229 AE

### GNN-misinformation

1 all of us, too. It (GVN) cause \$causes\$ lots of (GNN) disease \$diseases\$ and it gives harm people who 1-46 AE  
 2 high \$where\$ lots of students come to learn good (GNN) thing \$things\$. Students want to be in peace in 1-46 AE  
 3 sses. And this is not something to fear. Smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ also (GVAUX) can \$should\$ 1-51 AE  
 4 DEFEND WITH CLEAR BRAINS (GNN) Cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ and alcohol are (GA) the 1-52 AE  
 5 e, if you are more than 18, you can buy alcohol/ (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$. Even if we know the rul 1-52 AE  
 6 , who they see as a model to themselves, smoking (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ or drinking alcohol 1-52 AE  
 7 ing or drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking are (GNN) a widespread problem \$widespread problems\$ in th 1-58 AE  
 8 government (GVN) have \$has\$ been trying to take (GNN) precaution \$precautions\$ (GDO) it's \$their\$ con 1-58 AE  
 9 y students should be taken into consideration as (GNN) an adult \$adults\$ because they can decide (GPR) 1-58 AE  
 10 for them. Drinking alcoholic drinks and smoking (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ are harmless according to 1-58 AE  
 11 solution on their own. However (GDD) this \$the\$ (GNN) pleasure \$pleasures\$ are temporary. Also they ar 1-58 AE  
 12 Alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ (GVN) is \$are\$ harmful wh 1-75 AE  
 13 it is smoked or drunk. They always threaten our (GNN) life \$lives\$. whenever we see someone drinking 1-75 AE  
 14 ) he \$a person\$ can't find money for alchocol or (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ and he can steal somethin 1-75 AE  
 15 the \$0\$ others. But if they can get alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ in the campus in a contro 1-80 AE  
 16 how much to drink or smoke and they are all over (GNN) 18-year \$18-years\$. First of all, I think that 1-83 AE  
 17 g cigarettes must be allowed to every university (GNN) students \$student\$ and there are not only strang 1-83 AE  
 18 the university campus. All the students are over (GNN) 18-year \$18-years\$, they have enough (GWC) cons 1-83 AE  
 19 0 \$should\$ be done at once or else our precious (GNN) life \$lives\$ will not be precious anymore. Let's 1-85 AE  
 20 rettes. This spoils your self-confidence through (GNN) wrinkle \$wrinkles\$ of your (GNN) faces \$face\$. 1-105 AE  
 21 fidence through (GNN) wrinkle \$wrinkles\$ of your (GNN) faces \$face\$. People, without self-confidence, 1-105 AE  
 22 ns. Firstly, when some university students smoke (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ or drink alcohol, (GA) th 1-107 AE  
 23 So, most students become both active and passive (GNN) smoker \$smokers\$. 1-107 AE  
 24 Smoking can not be forbidden in any way, because (GNN) cigarette \$Cigarettes\$ is a need like bread, wat 1-110 AE  
 25 the \$0\$ university. They think that they are all (GNN) an individual \$individuals\$ and they have rights 1-110 AE  
 26 are used in campus, they can cause more serious (GNN) problem \$problems\$ among (GA) the \$0\$ students. 1-111 AE

27 of health. And university campuses shouldn't be (GNN) a place \$places\$ which helps you use these thing 3-187 AE  
 28 in the university (GVN) are all \$is a\$ grown-up (GNN) individuals \$individual\$ and (GVN) are \$is\$ able 3-195 AE  
 29 ecisions. So they should decide whether drinking (GNN) alcohols \$alcohol\$ , smoking cigarettes are true 3-195 AE  
 30 sometimes feel bad\$ . In these times, alcohol or (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ may be like (GA) a \$0\$ me 3-213 AE  
 31 uld they do? Therefore, I think that alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ should be sold in the cam 3-213 AE  
 32 be thinking \$think\$ that if they drink alcoholic (GNN) drink \$drinks\$ , they will give harm to their (G 3-214 AE  
 33 N) drink \$drinks\$ , they will give harm to their (GNN) liver \$livers\$ and if they smoke cigarettes, the 3-214 AE  
 34 ill be a chance to start drinking or smoking for (GNN) non-smoker \$non-smokers\$ and non-drinkers (wo) 3-222 AE  
 35 e cigarette because it effects the security of (GNN) non-drinker \$non-drinkers\$ and non-smokers and w 3-222 AE  
 36 an (GVT) had produced \$has produced\$ alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. I have always cursed the 3-225 AE  
 37 and lecturers shouldn't use alcoholic drinks and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. Even if they use, they 3-225 AE  
 38 things inspite of their side-effects it is their (GNN) choices \$choice\$ , and to forbid it (GVAUX) will 3-229 AE  
 39 was the smell of alcohol along with (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. So I had to change my s 3-257 AE  
 40 they are free to drink alcoholic drinks or smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ in the university campus, 3-257 AE  
 41 e smell of (GA) the \$0\$ alcohol and (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ is very undesirable for t 3-257 AE  
 42 wed to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ in the university campus, 3-257 AE  
 43 sturb others. To drink alcoholic drinks or smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ is their own choice or wa 3-257 AE  
 44 ing to sell and drink alcoholic drinks and smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ , it may (GVV) be prevent 3-257 AE  
 45 ing\$ alcoholic drinks and (GVT) smoke \$smoking\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$. This problem is current 3-260 AE  
 46 in universities as students are away from their (GNN) family \$families\$ and taste independence. Certai 3-260 AE  
 47 ity campus but three reasons stand out. Firstly, (GNN) forbidden thing \$forbidden things\$ is always att 3-260 AE  
 48 nking alcoholic drinks or (GVNF) smoke \$smoking\$ (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ is a matter of preference 3-260 AE  
 49 t. Also we are individual and adults, we are not (GNN) child \$children\$ . we can dedicide what we shoul 3-262 AE  
 50 e cigarettes because they have a very stressfull (GNN) life \$lives\$ or they drink alcoholic drinks beca 3-266 AE  
 51 o many people in these places and people who use (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ or alcohol haven't (GA) 0 3-266 AE  
 52 eople who alike them and make a group with other (GNN) smoker \$smokers\$ or alcoholics. Instead of being 3-266 AE  
 53 d this disturbs many of students. Lastly selling (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ and alcohol (GVN) create 3-266 AE  
 54 g in an indirect way. Since alcoholic drinks and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ are harmful for both heal 3-292 AE  
 55 h and economical situation, I think (GA) the \$0\$ (GNN) university campus \$universities\$ shouldn't let t 3-292 AE  
 56 o be sold in its area. First of all, alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ both damage the health of 3-292 AE  
 57 cigarettes\$ both damage the health of the young. (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ might cause (GNN) heart a 3-292 AE  
 58 young. (GNN) Cigarette \$cigarettes\$ might cause (GNN) heart attack \$heart attacks\$ in very young ages 3-292 AE  
 59 ty campus shouldn't let the alcoholic drinks and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ be sold because they are 3-292 AE  
 60 s, there are 2 important reasons for alcohol and (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ not to be sold in (GA) 0 3-294 AE  
 61 who (GVN) has \$have\$ just come to the campus as (GNN) a university student \$university students\$ (GVN) 3-294 AE  
 62 (GPP) s/he \$they\$ has to behave like this to be (GNN) a real student \$real students\$. Many students w 3-294 AE  
 63 IS FULL OF FREEDOM Nowadays, everybody can smoke (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ and drink alcohol in Turk 3-310 AE  
 64 d and drunk freely. Universities are known to be (GNN) a constitution \$institutions\$ educating people w 3-310 AE  
 65 ring the selling and drinking alcohol or smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ , we will destroy (GA) th 3-310 AE  
 66 own. If (GA) the \$0\$ drinking alcohol or smoking (GNN) cigarette \$cigarettes\$ (GVN) are \$is\$ banned leg 3-310 AE



## GP (Pronoun Use)

### GPD-omission

1 agenda, the students are separated two parts as (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who use them and (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who ( 1-52 AE  
2 ed two parts as (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who use them and (GPD) 0 \$those\$ who (GVAUX) 0 \$do\$ not use them. Even 1-52 AE

### GPD-misinformation

1 he university campus and I have some reasons for (GPD) that \$this\$ . First, alcoholic drinks and (GVNF) 3-187 AE  
2 sell or use in the campus. My second reason for (GPD) that \$this\$ is that they shouldn't be bad models 3-187 AE  
3 a very negative and destructive way. Bearing all (GPD) these \$this\$ in mind, I ask myself and everybody 3-225 AE  
4 psychology and social life. when I think all of (GPD) these \$this\$ , I wish at least the people who co 3-225 AE  
5 ir areas is one of the most important reasons of (GPD) that \$this\$ is. It means that universities are g 3-292 AE

### GPP-omission

1 anybody doesn't decide \$nobody decides\$ to allow (GPP) 0 \$them\$ or not. Everybody has (GA) 0 \$a\$ right 1-58 AE  
2 it (GVN) get \$gets\$ you die and (GVN) age \$ages\$ (GPP) 0 \$you\$ much (GADJCS) more earlier \$earlier\$ . T 1-105 AE  
3 ity know how to behave what to do or where to do (GPP) 0 \$it\$ . So, they are mature enough to decide on 3-310 AE

### GPP-addition

1 lowed in campus, students can fight and quarrel, (GPP) they \$0\$ can perform unpleasant behaviour with t 1-46 AE

### GPP-misinformation

1 their relaxing and enjoyable effects. People use (GPP) it \$them\$ and they relax. In this way, they don' 1-58 AE  
2 allow \$allows\$ (GVV) to produce \$to be produced\$ (GPP) it \$them\$ to be produced\$ . But people should det 1-58 AE  
3 N) want \$wants\$ to drink or smoke, he/she can do (GPP) it \$so\$ freely. But, although there (GVN) are \$i 1-66 AE  
4 nk\$ extensively can fight with other students or (GPP) he \$they\$ can even cause someone else's death. B 1-75 AE  
5 y\$ can even cause someone else's death. Because, (GPP) he \$they\$ isn't conscious at that time. Sometime 1-75 AE  
6 s, too. Because if a person wants to buy and use (GPP) it \$them\$ , nobody can prevent him doing so. So 1-80 AE  
7 there wouldn't be a peaceful campus. So just let (GPP) them \$people\$ do what they want, but in a contro 1-80 AE  
8 them or (GA) 0 \$the\$ environment. The reason of (GPP) it \$this\$ is that there are so many security emp 1-83 AE  
9 rn and if you don't, you loose. You give harm to (GPP) you \$yourself\$ in another way. A person between 3-214 AE  
10 hese things, we can (GVM) spent \$spend\$ a lot on (GPP) it \$them\$ . Because of their harms, I think it s 3-222 AE  
11 ree to make their own choices but they should do (GPP) it \$this\$ without giving harm to others. The oth 3-229 AE  
12 . So I say that alcohol and smokes can be sold, (GPP) it \$they\$ does not effect us. 3-262 AE  
13 nt \$university students\$ (GVN) feels \$feels\$ that (GPP) s/he \$they\$ has to behave like this to be (GNN) 3-294 AE

GPI-misinformation

1	e something (GVNF) which are personal \$personal\$	(GPI) something which are personal \$personal things\$ .	1-51 AE
2	eactions against their consumption\$ . Therefore	(GPI) anybody doesn't decide \$nobody decides\$ to allow	1-58 AE
3	temporary. Also they are addictive. As I said,	(GPI) anybody \$nobody\$ even if the government doesn't	1-58 AE
4	must do or not. Because we live in a free world.	(GPI) The ones \$those\$ who don't use (GPU) it \$such pr	1-80 AE
5	high people smoke. Thirdly, if it is feared that	(GPI) the ones \$those\$ who are drunk in campus may cau	1-80 AE
6	sons. It is said that ones freedom ends up when	(GPI) the other's \$another's\$ begins, therefore while	3-257 AE
7	ose \$these\$ bad addictions deliberately. Second,	(GPI) the ones \$those\$ who (GVN) has \$have\$ just come	3-294 AE

GPF-misinformation

1	ealty. Upon this they can decide on to give harm	(GPF) themselves \$themselves\$ or stay undamageded. Th	3-214 AE
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GPU-misinformation

1	es. Because of people who (GVN) smokes \$smoke\$ ,	(GPU) we \$non-smokers\$ (GVV) also affect \$are also aff	1-46 AE
2	e places or rooms for smoking cigarettes. if so,	(GPU) they \$smokers\$ can smoke comfortably and without	1-46 AE
3	smoke comfortably and without giving any harm to	(GPU) all of us \$those around them\$ and to (GA) 0 \$the	1-46 AE
4	hose around them\$ and to (GA) 0 \$the\$ air. Also	(GPU) it \$smoking\$ pollutes (GA) 0 \$the\$ air, it (GVN)	1-46 AE
5	there with difficulties. After coming university	(GPU) they \$students\$ want to relax (I think they're c	1-51 AE
6	0 \$the\$ open air but in (GA) 0 \$the\$ faculties,	(GPU) they \$people\$ smoke in (GA) 0 \$the\$ corridors (G	1-56 AE
7	s on warnings that smoking cigarettes is banned.	(GPU) They \$smokers\$ have a smoking room but they don'	1-56 AE
8	rinking and smoking are optional. People can use	(GPU) them \$alcohol and tobacco\$ because the governmen	1-58 AE
9	nks and smoking cigarettes should be allowed. If	(GPU) they \$students\$ can not buy them from campus, th	1-58 AE
10	of use can be afraid of them. Extensive usage of	(GPU) them \$alcohol and cigarettes\$ can create lots of	1-75 AE
11	e \$they\$ isn't conscious at that time. Sometimes	(GPU) he \$a person\$ can't find money for alchocol or (	1-75 AE
12	he makes himself miserable in front of everyone.	(GPU) They \$such people\$ become away from people in ti	1-75 AE
13	hat is harmful for their health. And if they use	(GPU) it \$such products\$ (GVNF) knowing this \$knowingl	1-80 AE
14	free world. (GPI) The ones \$those\$ who don't use	(GPU) it \$such products\$ may prevent themselves when i	1-80 AE
15	conscious people. They know what and how much of	(GPU) it \$such products\$ is harmful and beneficial to	1-83 AE
16	life with a disease towards death. Finally, both	(GPU) of them \$smoking and drinking\$ get you unheathy.	1-105 AE
17	t to do anything they want in the campus. One of	(GPU) them \$these things\$ is smoking and alcoholic dri	3-187 AE
18	/her behaviour correctly and decide on the best	(GPU) one \$course of action\$ . In conclusion drinking	3-214 AE
19	or a university. So, it should be banned to sell	(GPU) these \$these products\$ in the university campus.	3-225 AE
20	igarette \$cigarettes\$ in the university campus,	(GPU) it is \$these products are\$ easy to buy for those	3-257 AE
21	uggestions\$ that you can do instead of forbidding	(GPU) it \$the practices\$ . These will make a long way	3-260 AE

GPR-misinformation

1	campus. Because, (GA) 0 \$a\$ campus is the place	(GPR) to which \$where\$ lots of students come to learn	1-46 AE
2	cigarettes. (GA) 0 \$A\$ Campus is a public place	(GPR) that \$where\$ everyone has the same rights. We si	1-56 AE
3	(GNN) an adult \$adults\$ because they can decide	(GPR) whichever \$whatever\$ is useful or harmful for th	1-58 AE
4	lose (GADJCS) the bright \$the brightest\$ brains	(GPR) which \$who\$ (GVAUX) 0 \$could\$ improve the world	1-105 AE
5	ax \$relaxed\$ to ignore (GA) the \$0\$ other people	(GPR) that \$who\$ are around them. They are accustomed	1-111 AE

APPENDIX VIII. Statistical Results Tables

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
GA	2	76,00	1,414	75	77
GV	2	56,50	13,435	47	66
GN	2	37,50	6,364	33	42
GP	2	28,50	14,849	18	39
GWC	2	13,00	,000	13	13
GD	2	8,00	,000	8	8
GADJ	2	3,50	3,536	1	6
GADV	2	2,50	,707	2	3
WO	2	5,00	4,243	2	8
Year	2	1,50	,707	1	2

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

	YEAR	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
GA	Year 1	1	1,00	1,00
	Year 3	1	2,00	2,00
	Total	2		
GV	Year 1	1	2,00	2,00
	Year 3	1	1,00	1,00
	Total	2		
GN	Year 1	1	1,00	1,00
	Year 3	1	2,00	2,00
	Total	2		
GP	Year 1	1	2,00	2,00
	Year 3	1	1,00	1,00
	Total	2		
GWC	Year 1	1	1,50	1,50
	Year 3	1	1,50	1,50
	Total	2		
GD	Year 1	1	1,50	1,50
	Year 3	1	1,50	1,50
	Total	2		
GADJ	Year 1	1	2,00	2,00
	Year 3	1	1,00	1,00
	Total	2		
GADV	Year 1	1	2,00	2,00
	Year 3	1	1,00	1,00
	Total	2		
WO	Year 1	1	1,00	1,00
	Year 3	1	2,00	2,00
	Total	2		

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